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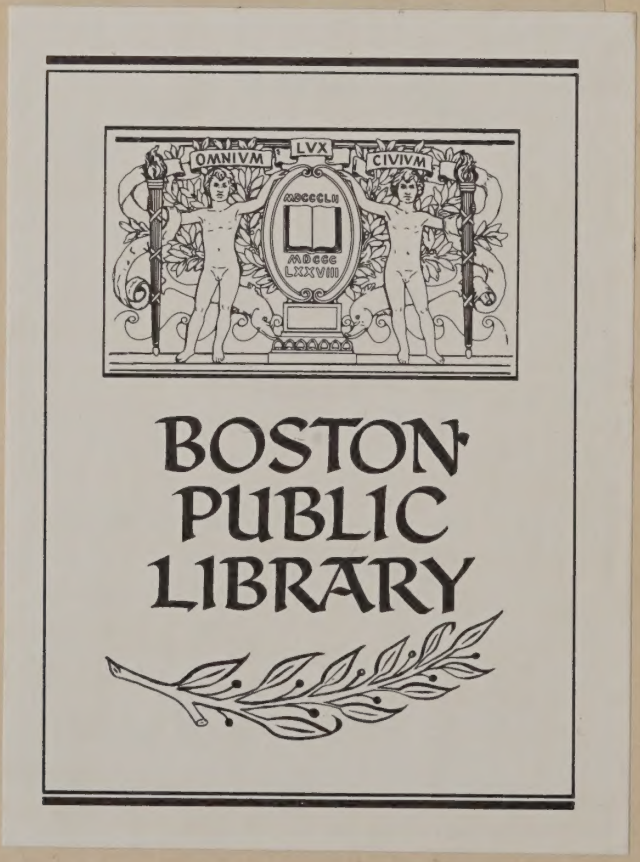

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 4, 1883.

The Week.

ALL accounts of the way in which Monday was "observed" show how great a change has come over New Year's Day. It has become different from itself and from any other holiday in the year. Its monotony is gone. The war declared by society against receptions has reached that point at which every family practically decides for itself what it will do with the day. The ladies may receive, but there is no obligation upon their friends to call upon them, as there once was; men may call, but there is no obligation upon any one to receive them. The duty of hanging out a basket, even, is not obligatory, for how could it be, when the corresponding duty of leaving a card in it is not recognized as binding? If you stay at home, you may give your guests wine, or you may strike a blow for the cause of temperance, and gain the good will of the "Boys' Loyal Legion," by giving only tea and coffee, or you may give nothing at all. You may lock your door and go into the country. You may dine with your family, your wife's family, or any other family that will invite you, or you may dine alone at a restaurant, and, if you are of a saturnine disposition, reflect how disagreeable family parties are. When you meet any of your friends you may wish them a "happy New Year," or you can pass by on the other side of the street without wishing them anything at all. In fact, you can do exactly what you please, and nobody has the least right to find fault with you. There is absolutely nothing any longer obligatory in the customs of the day. Were the excellent Dr. Lieber still alive, he would, to his surprise, find himself surrounded by a state of things in which his great social maxim, "No right without its duty, no duty without its right," could not possibly apply. The day is one of rights without any duties. In short, it has become and will undoubtedly always remain a real holiday, one of the few real holidays in the year —for there are duties, often onerous duties, connected with the others. Christmas involves extensive present-giving, if not a Christmas-tree, Thanksgiving Day a family reunion; and, excellent as these customs are, they do involve the idea and fact of duty, which is foreign to the notion of a perfect holiday. New Year's Day as it now exists ought, therefore, to be regarded as a distinct addition to the meagre list of days in the year during which we are relieved from the strain of toil which is always pressing on modern commercial communities.

The death of Gambetta can but have a very unfavorable influence on the fortunes of the Republic, which just now are not brilliant. This is true in spite of the fact that he had ceased to play the part of the coming man, as during the early days of the present régime. The present Legislature used him up, as the saying is, just as rapidly and remorselessly as it used up his predecessors, but it could not deprive him of his place in the public mind as a man who had shown great capacity and pluck in very trying crises. For Gambetta had much more behind him than his somewhat frantic resistance to the Germans as the leading spirit of the Government of National Defence. It was undoubtedly due to him more than to any other man, except Thiers, that the Republic was established instead of a monarchical restoration. He led the opposition to the Legitimists between 1871 and 1877 more impressively in the popular eye than Thiers himself. After Thiers's death, too, the burden of overturning the clique who, under cover of Marshal MacMahon's authority, were trying to establish a military despotism, fell upon Gambetta, and he bore it splendidly. He did not flinch in the least, and came out of the contest unquestionably the strongest man in France. So that although his somewhat mortifying failure to hold a majority in the Assembly when he took office discredited him as a possible Minister, and deprived him wholly of the character of a necessary man, it did not deprive him of the character of a man whose counsel and support were highly useful to the Republic, and whom it was well for the Republic to have at hand.

There is probably no one in France who wishes well to the Republic, and who doubts whether it is yet fairly out of the woods, who did not think of Gambetta as in some sense its protector, as the man who might be relied on to save it (if there came a convulsion of any sort) if any one could save it. President Grévy is a strong man, but he is old and tired. He will be seventy next August, and is a good deal broken physically. There is no other really able or influential friend of republican institutions now in the political arena, who is for the Republic "first, last, and all the time," as our politicians say, and who could not be induced to negotiate it out of existence, except Clémenceau, the leader of the Extreme Left; but Clémenceau's republic, it is safe to say, would, even if it could be set up, not last a month. It would alarm every interest in France, and above all that one interest whose alarm no Government can survive—property. In fact, it is very questionable whether the present fickle, unsteady Government of the Assembly would have been able to indulge in its taste for making and unmaking ministries but for the popular ease of mind which came of the knowledge that Gambetta was there and looking on. Who will push to the front now as his successor it is useless to speculate. It is quite certain, however, that he could hardly have died at a more unfortunate period for the Republic. The finances are in a condition which is causing much anxiety. The Nihilists are very active, and, owing to an apparent feebleness on the part of the Government in dealing with them, are creating an uneasiness wholly out of proportion to their numbers or influence or powers of mischief. The problem of military organization is still unsolved, and the country is groping about in a somewhat aimless way in search of the rôle which France is to play, now that that of a European arbiter or conqueror seems denied to her, before her people have learned how to be happy and to respect themselves without military glory.

The German press seems generally to treat Gambetta's death as a guarantee of peace, and it will probably wear that appearance both in Germany and Russia. He represented more than any other man in France the policy of revenge, and probably believed more thoroughly than any other in the possibility of getting back the lost provinces. But it has to be borne in mind that since he made the last of his warlike or threatening speeches the Tunisian expedition has occurred, the serious defects in the organization of the new French army have been revealed, and the nation has indicated unmistakably its dislike for military enterprises of every kind. It is, indeed, hardly possible that he can have held at the time of his death the views of the fighting power of France which he held three or even two years ago. All accounts of the condition of feeling in the French provinces agree in describing the terror inspired by the German invasion as still undiminished, and Gambetta must have become aware that the time was still distant when a politician could make capital by proposing another tussle with Bismarck. We, therefore, doubt very much whether his death has made peace in any degree more certain. The guarantees of peace which now exist in France are far more powerful than any one man's influence. They are to be found in the social condition of the country, and in the condition of the army and the finances. The increase of the debt is one of the guarantees which people forget when they talk of France as a warlike country. She has never had any such burden before, and the French people bear the bulk of it not simply as taxpayers, but as bondholders. In their fighting days they had no such trammel. Before they began the war of the Revolution they made almost a clean sweep of their debts, and Napoleon made the wars of the Empire pay for themselves.

It is reported that the Civil-Service Reform Bill will have an even stronger Democratic opposition to meet in the House of Representatives than in the Senate. The ground from which this partisan opposition springs has been openly avowed. It is that the Democrats expect to get possession of the National Government in 1884, and then want to be free to distribute the spoils as they have been distributed heretofore; or, at least, that, as the Republicans are now in possession of the offices, no law should be passed preventing the Democrats from getting their "fair share." Not satisfied with the fact that the system of competitive examinations will, as vacancies occur, open to them the way to obtain their share if they furnish the best men, they want in some way to expedite the process of transfer. To this end various amend-

ments to the original bill were brought forward in the Senate, and will undoubtedly come up also in the House of Representatives. One of these amendments provides that all places affected by the Pendleton bill shall—one-third at a time—be declared vacant, to be filled again by competitive examination, so that everybody, of whatever party, may have a chance at them without delay. A moment's reflection will convince every man of common sense that the execution of this scheme, fathered in the Senate by Mr. Pugh, would, from its magnitude, be simply impossible. Whoever considers just what a competitive examination is—how much preparation it requires on the part of those who conduct it, how much labor the reviewing of the examination papers and the making of the awards impose upon them, how heavy a draft upon the laboring force of a department the formation of several commissions at the same time is, and how great a disturbance of the regular course of business the constant going on of such a process for three years would be—will come to the conclusion that this scheme was formed by one who had but very shadowy ideas on the subject. As soon as the departments are relieved from political pressure their chiefs can, without all this circumstance, be best relied upon to remove incompetent persons.

The Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Hatton, is owner and manager—wholly or in large part—of the Washington *National Republican*, a paper which has steadily sneered at civil-service reform, and continues sneering at the bill which has just passed the Senate. It has now ventured on the prediction, as a last resource, that the Civil-Service Commissioners to be appointed under the bill will sell the offices at $200 apiece to candidates at the examinations, in order to increase their salaries. "The business will be done," it says, "without a word passed between the giver and the taker." It must be remembered, in the first place, that the man who inspires, or permits, or is responsible for this disgraceful imputation on the character of American public men, is a high officer of the Administration, who will to a certain extent have to work the new system; and, in the second place, that no charge so scandalous as this has been brought against the officeholding class by the most fanatical or reckless reformer. President Arthur would, we think, in view of all the facts, and under the rule he adopted in the recent removals of official sympathizers with the Star-route thieves, be fully justified in removing Mr. Hatton, and allowing him to give his entire time to the duties of Stalwart editorship, for which he seems to have special qualifications. It is highly improper to keep in high office a man holding and uttering such opinions. We need hardly say that the corruption he predicts and gloats over would be impossible under the competitive system. The examination papers would be the same for all, and the answers would be open to inspection, so that the cheating would have to be so barefaced that it would be instantly detected, and land the perpetrator in the penitentiary. For a Commissioner capable of such conduct, "bance-steering" would be a far safer and more lucrative business. No imputation of this kind has been or can be cast on the examinations already in use at the Post-office and Custom-house in this city.

Judge Park's decision, that the Democratic "black" ballots used in the recent city and State elections in Connecticut are illegal, seems to have been unavoidable. The case presented to him was that of the New Haven Auditor and City Clerk, recently declared elected by a large majority. The laws of Connecticut provide that ballots must be printed on plain white paper, and the object of the provision is, of course, to preserve the secrecy of the ballot. The Democratic ballots were, on the contrary, printed on black paper, leaving the names of the candidates white. This seems a plain violation both of the letter and the spirit of the law. The effect of the decision, if applied to the State offices, would be to elect the Republican State ticket, and it is now said that the Republicans will insist on the Legislature, when it counts the vote, declaring General Bulkeley elected Governor, instead of Mr. Waller. The *Sun*, in discussing the Connecticut Election Law, says that, in the absence of a "clearly expressed intention" of the law that the "black ballots" should be void, Judge Park went too far in deciding that they could not be counted. If our learned contemporary will look at the Connecticut Election Laws of 1877 (chapter 146, section 31), it will find the following provision: "All ballots shall be on plain white paper, with the name and office written or printed thereon, *and no other ballots shall be received.*" Nothing can be clearer than the intention of this. They should have been refused at the polls, but they were not. A legal question, therefore, arises as to whether the ballots, having been received and counted, an inquiry at a later stage into their legality can be made, and the Supreme Court as well as the Legislature would hesitate a long time before reversing the result of a general election on the strength of such a statute. The announcement, however, by the Republican candidate for Governor, that he will not contest Mr. Waller's election, ought to prevent the discussion of the point from becoming acrimonious.

The decision of Judge Arnoux, that no dividends can be paid on the $15,000,000 stock dividend of the Western Union, was the inevitable result of the decision of the Superior Court General Term that the stock was illegal. Anticipating the injunction, the company had already paid the January dividend, and Judge Arnoux has since modified his injunction so as to permit the payment of dividends on stock where the company cannot distinguish between the old stock and that issued under the consolidation agreement. Under these circumstances it is hard to see how the decision can have much effect. The officers of the corporation are the only persons who have the means of distinguishing between the two kinds, and they appear to be perfectly satisfied with the injunction as it now stands. Judge Arnoux has also decided not to enjoin the company from replacing the new stock by bonds, on the ground that there is no evidence that they contemplate doing so. There seems to have been no way of avoiding this decision, although, as was urged on the argument, the managers might change their mind about the bonds over night.

The position of this $15,000,000 of stock strongly illustrates the difficulty of correcting the evils of corporate mismanagement by litigation. One Judge of the Superior Court renders a decision that the stock is legal. The stock, on the strength of this decision, is bought and sold in the market, and passes into the hands of holders who have no connection with the original issue. The Court, at General Term, reverses this decision, and pronounces the issue illegal. But this leaves a very important point unsettled—"whether this is legal stock illegally issued or void stock"; that is, so much waste paper. This, Judge Arnoux admits, is still to be decided, and to reach a final decision on this will take a very long time. Every purchaser and holder of the stock will of course fight for the legality of his own stock, and attempt to save it from the taint attaching to the original issue. Special facts will be shown in every case, and the courts will have their hands full for years. Such cases show the extreme difficulty of preventing the practice known as "watering stock" by legislation.

Governor Thompson, of South Carolina, has set an excellent example by refusing to make any changes among the five or six hundred State officials, in spite of the pressure exerted on him by friends and party workers. This is an illustration on a small scale of what the appointing power can do to make stability of tenure one of the customs of American politics, instead of instability of tenure, which is now one of its customs. One of the greatest obstacles with which civil-service reformers have had to contend is the theory that because the law does not prohibit removals without cause, Presidents and Governors are in some mysterious manner bound to make removals without cause, and cannot stop making them unless the Legislature interferes to tie their hands. Of course, this is pure hallucination. The pressure, too, which Presidents and Governors say they yield to when they make removals, is the result, not the cause, of their yielding. They are pressed because it is known that if pressed hard enough they will surrender. There is no man in the community in any place of trust who would not be terribly pressed if it were well known that pressure would make him betray his trust. If, for instance, it were known that very great importunity would cause bank presidents to discount notes without inquiry into the solvency of the drawers or endorsers, the crowd round all the banks every day would be larger and more troublesome than that which assails the President or the Governor at the beginning of their Administration. Bank presidents are beset by no such crowds, however. The reason is not that there is a law forbidding them to discount the paper of the insolvent, but that the insolvent know perfectly well that no pres-

sure or importunity would enable them to raise money in that way. In other words, the insolvent know so well that the presidents will not give way, that they attempt no "pressure."

The decline in the price of silver to fifty pence per ounce has caused much solicitude in England and on the Continent of Europe, but has not led to any new suggestions for arresting the downward movement by international conventions or joint resolutions. On the contrary, the determination of all responsible parties—governments, banks, and individuals—appears to be to let silver find its own level. It is noted among the causes of the recent decline that the export trade of India has fallen off, leaving her a diminished purchasing power for silver, and that simultaneously with this China has sent to India considerable sums of silver, and that Austria has lately sent to the same market £2,000,000 of her stock. The heavy decline in the London quotation is attributed to these agencies. It is believed that Austria intends to get herself upon the gold basis, and is prepared to make considerable sacrifices to that end. The only large markets for silver now are India and the United States Mint—the latter being a purely artificial market, and one not to be relied upon as a constant quantity or permanent factor in establishing the price. It is to be hoped that the new aspect which the situation assumes when the silver dollar falls in value to eighty-one cents, will arrest the attention of Congress sufficiently at least to bring the matter up for a general debate.

Some Southern papers continue to cite accounts of Northern homicides committed by burglars, thieves, drunkards, and desperadoes, in bar-rooms and brothels, as proofs that the South is no worse than the North in the homicidal matter, in answer to the charges of the *Nation*. We have, therefore, again to remind them that in talking of Southern homicide we have confined ourselves to social and business homicides, committed by persons occupying respectable positions in society, and pursuing lawful and regular callings. Not one of our illustrations has been taken from the doings of the criminal, disorderly, or disreputable class. The only real recent parallel to our illustrations, in fact, they have yet been able to adduce is the Dukes-Nutt homicide in Pennsylvania, which appears to be but a slender parallel after all, for the tragedy seems to have arisen out of an altercation about a daughter's seduction, and it will not be complete till we see the result of the murderer's trial. The Northern homicides, numerous enough, no doubt, nearly always occur in low company. A decent man, therefore, runs no risk from them.

The following is a specimen of the silly messages which reach us from Southerners on receipt of the news of one homicide by persons in a respectable position at the North—namely, the Dukes-Nutt murder in Uniontown, Pa.:

> "To which the attention of the *Nation* is respectfully called, as furnishing a suitable text for some articles on Northern civilization, such as would be found in it for the next month if this thing had occurred at the South: apprehension that Ohio and Pennsylvania civilization is fast relapsing into Southern barbarism; disgust that even in the South so cowardly a murder would not have been possible. Fit theme for many proper reflections on the civilization of a State where such assassination was possible on Sunday.
> "A READER."

The writers of such stuff as this evidently suppose that the whole affair is a little play of words, and that they can trick the public into believing that homicide is rare at the South, and is always, or nearly always, punished.

Mr. Wilde sailed on Wednesday for Liverpool, but the fact was not generally known, and he got away with very little interviewing. He says that he has enjoyed his visit to this country very much, and that he hopes to return before a great while and see how Art is getting along. It is pleasant to know that in his opinion it is "progressing" with us, and that there is reason to hope for the future. As to his impression of the people in general, he thinks that we had "a type" fifty years ago, but that we have now lost it. "Fifty years hence," he added, "they may regain it. But I like the Americans." There have undoubtedly been some changes in the American type in the last thirty years, and we doubt whether Mr. Wilde would really have liked it—in 1852, say—nearly as well as he does now. Thirty years ago he would not have been nearly as well understood as he is now, and in some parts of the country he would have found "types" of a very disagreeable sort. There was a "type" in New York at that time, known as the "b'hoy," that would probably have given him trouble, and made the future of Art in America seem very doubtful to him. The fact that Mr. Wilde has been able to pass several months in this country lecturing and talking about Art, and has altogether escaped physical violence, is one of the most gratifying proofs that could have been given of the softening of manners in the United States within the last generation.

The little programme with which Herr Most furnished the Chicago Socialists on Friday was for its size of a very sweeping nature, but he was positive that the time has come for carrying it out. It was, in brief, that everybody was to be killed except "the people," and everything was to be destroyed except what the people needed for their personal use while doing the killing. He said great inconvenience had hitherto been experienced in the killing business by the want of food for the killers. This must be provided against this time by laying in stores, and "establishing butcher shops and bakeries," in which the capitalists and bankers are to be employed as slaves. As soon as the killing is over, everything is to "be divided up," after which happiness will reign. There is, however, some reason to fear that the killing would not stop in time for the division. In fact, the dividing up and the killing would probably continue as long as there was anybody left to kill. In the meantime, however, is it not the duty of the Chicago authorities to institute against Herr Most proceedings *de lunatico inquirendo?*

In the Belt-Lawes libel suit in London on Thursday, the jury returned a verdict of $25,000 damages for the plaintiff. The libel complained of was a report set afloat by Mr. Lawes that Mr. Belt, who is a fashionable sculptor, did not do his own work, but secretly employed others to do it. To show that he was a real sculptor, and not an impostor, the Court allowed Mr. Belt during the trial to make a bust of a Mr. Pagliati, and a large part of the evidence in the case consisted of testimony by artists as to the comparative merits of this bust and another bust of the same gentleman said to have been made by Mr. Belt in 1879. A number of distinguished artists and sculptors swore positively that the two busts could not be the work of the same man, while Mr. Belt and his witnesses swore positively that they were. The jury had to believe that there was perjury on the one side, or a mistaken opinion on the other, and the Judge summed up strongly for the plaintiff. The permission given to the plaintiff to model a bust in court occasioned some discussion as to the admissibility of such evidence; but the main interest in the case was social, Mr. Belt being a fashionable sculptor and most of the witnesses men eminent in art.

The trials which the Government has set on foot in Ireland for "high treason" and seditious speaking are rather remarkable for the inability of every Ministry, no matter how liberal its tendencies, to profit by experience in Irish matters, than for anything else. There is no reason to suppose that any prosecution for violent oratory in Ireland ever has any better effect on the popular mind than to make heroes and martyrs of the orators. Juries can hardly ever be got to convict in such cases, except by packing such as public opinion will now not submit to; and when convictions are obtained public opinion does not permit the treatment of political prisoners to be harsh enough to make any sentence a deterrent. So the general result is apt to be an enormous waste of time, great expense, and proceedings in court which for Irishmen have all the entertainment of a first-class play, with a powerful cast. If there be one thing more plainly inferrible from recent Irish history than another, it is that prosecutions for seditious language make in Ireland what economists call an effective market demand for seditious oratory, and produce a steady supply of the article. Any young Irishman with a gift of the gab can through one of these prosecutions achieve great fame and much popularity, and the result is that there is always a swarm of candidates for prosecution. The melancholy feature of the affair is that Mr. Gladstone, and Mr. Trevelyan, and Lord Spencer probably know all this very well, but have to start the prosecutions to satisfy Englishmen who know and care nothing about the state of Ireland, but get angry and swear when they read of the way in which Healy and Biggar and the like talk about the Queen's Government.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 27, 1882, to TUESDAY, January 2, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Pendleton Civil-Service Reform Bill passed the Senate on Wednesday by a vote of 39 to 5, Messrs. Brown, Call, Jonas, McPherson, and Morgan—all Democrats—voting against it. Mr. Vest's amendment, prohibiting officers and employees of the Government from giving as well as receiving money for political purposes, was rejected by a vote of 18 to 27, all the affirmative votes being Democratic, including that of Mr. Pendleton. An amendment offered by Mr. Plumb, to prevent the employment of whole families in the civil service, was adopted unanimously, but the proposition by the same Senator to fix a tenure of office of six years, and to make employees who should serve for six years eligible for a second term of six years, was rejected. Mr. Brown's scheme for making an equal division of places in the Government between all parties was rejected—17 to 27, Mr. Pendleton voting for it.

Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, who has been watching the debate on the Pendleton bill in the Senate, said on Wednesday that the bill had not been amended to its serious injury, while, on the other hand, it contained the political-assessment prohibition, which was a strong and valuable addition.

On Wednesday the Senate adopted a resolution, offered by Mr. Hoar, instructing the Postmaster-General to send to the Senate a statement showing how much money had been paid to steamship companies for the transportation of the mails of the United States in each year since 1840, and to what companies and in what amounts the money had been paid; and also a resolution, offered by Mr. Call, calling upon the Secretary of the Interior for information in regard to contested homestead entries. On Thursday the Senate passed the Political Assessment Bill—which is similar in its provisions to the Hawley amendment to the Pendleton bill—by a unanimous vote. The Fitz-John Porter Bill was then taken up, and Senator Sewell spoke in favor of it. A memorial signed by 1,280 firms and individuals of New York city, representing all the principal branches of business, protesting against the passage of a United States bankrupt law, on the ground that the operation of such a law has proved to be an injury to the business interests of the whole country, was presented by Mr. Lapham. On Friday Mr. Logan made a long speech against the Fitz-John Porter Bill, which is said to have made a strong impression. The Presidential Succession Bill was then taken up, Messrs. Hoar, Garland, and Morgan speaking in favor of the bill, and Mr. Edmunds against it. Mr. Logan continued his speech on the Fitz-John Porter Bill on Tuesday.

On Wednesday the House, after accomplishing practically nothing, adjourned until Saturday. On Saturday the Senate bills to reform the civil service and to prevent official assessments were taken from the table and referred to the Committee on Civil-Service Reform, with leave to report them back at any time. The Senate bill appropriating $70,000 to reimburse the State of Oregon for monies expended in the suppression of Indian hostilities in the Modoc war was passed, and the House adjourned till Tuesday.

The New Year reception at the White House, which promised to be one of the most brilliant ever held there, was brought to an untimely end a little after 12 o'clock by the sudden death of Elisha H. Allen, Minister from the Sandwich Islands to the United States, and Dean of the Diplomatic Corps. After paying his respects to the President, he returned to the anteroom to get his hat and coat, when he was suddenly seized with a severe affection of the heart, and died instantly. The event was announced to the President, and the reception was immediately stopped. Mr. Allen was born at Greenfield, Mass., in 1804. In 1852 he was appointed United States Consul to Honolulu, and soon after became Minister of Finance and afterward Chief-Justice of the Hawaiian Kingdom. When the reciprocity treaty went into effect, he was sent to this country as Minister-resident, and has ever since held that position.

The reduction of the public debt for the month of December amounted to almost $15,500,000, making the decrease for the first half of the fiscal year more than $81,000,000. The large decrease in the past month is accounted for by a remarkable decrease in the ordinary expenditures. The Secretary of the Treasury estimates the surplus for the year at $120,000,000.

A statement made out at the Treasury Department on Thursday shows a great decrease in the receipts from tobacco since the agitation of the question of tax reduction began. It was thought that the aggregate of the tobacco-tax receipts for the preceding sixty days would show a falling off of nearly $2,500,000 as compared with the corresponding period of last year.

The proceeds of the recent sale of articles accumulated in the Dead Letter Office, after deducting expenses, amount to $4,497 67, which sum has been deposited in the Treasury to the credit of the Post-office Department. The amount realized from the sale of any parcel can be recovered by either the sender or the person to whom it was addressed, at any time within four years from the date of its registry at the Dead Letter Office.

The Belgian Minister and the Postmaster-General on Friday formally exchanged ratifications of the convention recently concluded between the United States and Belgium for the exchange of money orders, to take effect on the 1st of January, 1883.

A man named Morrissey, arrested for violating the Postal Law in regard to lotteries, was recently released with the consent of District-Attorney Woodford. The Post-office Department made complaint to the Department of Justice, and on November 17 Attorney-General Brewster wrote to Mr. Woodford, asking for an explanation. Mr. Woodford replied, on November 23, to the effect that the prisoner had been discharged by what he regarded as a wise exercise of discretionary power. Mr. Woodford further said he had received from the Attorney-General a reply to an invitation to attend the New England dinner, and the reply had been forwarded in a "penalty envelope," the use of which, except on official business, is punishable by a fine of $300. Mr. Woodford did not assume that Mr. Brewster had intentionally violated the law, but he used the incident as an illustration of what a wise discretion would allow him to overlook. This letter called out a reply from Mr. Brewster, in which the latter said that although much that Mr. Woodford had said in regard to the release of Morrissey was reasonable, there were irregularities connected with his release, and that this case should admonish Mr. Woodford's assistants to be cautious in the exercise of the discretionary power which is intrusted to them. In regard to the matter of the New England dinner, Mr. Brewster rebuked Mr. Woodford for the allusion to it; and after explaining that his clerk took his reply to be an official letter, and therefore sent it in a "penalty envelope," Mr. Brewster concludes: "Besides, I am not on trial, nor is there any complaint made against me, and I again suggest that such an allusion was not deferential and proper."

A meeting was held in Boston on Thursday evening to consider what means might be adopted to facilitate the mail service between New York and Boston, and indirectly the service between the East and West, and South and Southwest. A resolution was adopted declaring that a fast mail-train leaving Boston at about 9 o'clock P. M. daily, and reaching New York between 3 and 4 o'clock A. M., and a corresponding train in return, were indispensable to the convenience and prosperity of the business interests of Boston and New England, and calling upon the Senators and Representatives in Congress from Massachusetts to take steps to secure the concurrence of the Postmaster-General in this view, and thereby bring about some immediate action in the matter.

The Spanish-American Claims Commission, which was established in 1871, under an agreement between the Governments of Spain and the United States, to decide claims of American citizens for injuries to person or property alleged to have been committed by the Spanish authorities during the Cuban insurrection, ended its existence on Wednesday, leaving eight cases in the hands of the umpire for decision. The total amount of the claims submitted to the Commission was almost $27,000,000.

The inauguration of Mr. Cleveland as Governor of New York took place in the Senate chamber at Albany on Monday. The ceremonies were simple. After the oath of office had been administered Governor Cornell delivered an address of welcome, to which Governor Cleveland replied. At a caucus of the Democratic Assemblymen in the evening Alfred C. Chapin, of Brooklyn, was nominated for Speaker on the second ballot. Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, was nominated by the Republican caucus.

Chief-Justice Park, of Connecticut, has declared certain ballots used by the Democrats in the New Haven city election illegal. This throws the city government into the hands of the Republicans, and as it necessitates the throwing out of 7,000 ballots in the State election, it would, if all the other ballots were legal, give the State election to the Republicans. Mr. Cole, Chairman of the Republican State Committee, having signified his intention to petition the Legislature, when it met, for an investigation of the matter, and to ask for such action as might be lawful and proper under the circumstances, on Monday a letter from Mr. Bulkeley, Republican candidate for Governor, to Mr. Cole was published, in which he refuses under any circumstances to accept the Governorship in case the Democratic ballots of New Haven should be rejected. This action on the part of Mr. Bulkeley will probably prevent any controversy in the Legislature.

The State Treasurer of Tennessee has announced his intention of refusing to pay the January interest on the State bonds. This action has excited considerable feeling on the part of the creditors, as well as of the debt-paying wing of the Democratic party of the State, to which the Treasurer has been always supposed to belong. It is understood that the Legislature will support the Treasurer in his action, as the Readjusters have control of both its branches.

In the two months during which Governor Stephens, of Georgia, has occupied the Executive chair, he has pardoned and commuted the sentences of forty-nine convicts in the State Penitentiary sentenced to death or servitude under the regular proceedings of the courts. Of this number twelve were murderers

Herr Most, the German Socialist, addressed a meeting in Chicago on Thursday night. He said that the entire world was conducted on false doctrines and in detriment to the interests of the great mass of the people. Therefore everything now in governmental existence must be destroyed, and all institutions obliterated from the face of the earth. The people must kill every one now ruling over the people in this country as well as in Europe. He also recommended the gutting of every bank in the United States and Europe, and the wholesale use of petroleum and dynamite.

The annual report of the Treasurer of Yale College for the year ended July 31, 1882, has just been published. The university funds amount to $448,491 68, an increase of about $22,000. The income from these funds was $53,448 44. The total amount of the academic funds is $795,848 05, yielding an income of $177,536 70, out of which several thousand dollars in annuities was paid. The expenses of the department were $166,799 76, of which $84,330 was paid in salaries to instructors and $6,000 for scholarships. The aggregate of all the funds was $1,826,532 69. The needs of the university are in excess of its income, especially in the academic, scientific, medical, and law departments.

FOREIGN.

Léon Gambetta, the foremost of French statesmen, died at Ville d'Avray, near Paris, on Sunday night, after great suffering. The indirect cause of his death was a wound caused by a shot from a revolver fired, it is said, by his mistress. The wound resulted in internal complications, which terminated fatally. He was born in October, 1838, at Cahors, the capital of the department of Lot, in the south of France. His father was an Italian.

The French Cabinet has decided that Gambetta's funeral shall be similar to the funerals of Thiers and Crémieux, as members of the Government of National Defence. The Parisians will close their shops on the day of the funeral, and all of the troops in Paris and Marseilles have been ordered to attend the funeral. The German press, in commenting on Gambetta's death, expresses the opinion that the event has delivered France and the peace of Europe from great danger. The *North-German Gazette* says that in German eyes he has ever appeared the personification of revenge. The general verdict throughout Europe is that France has suffered a great loss.

The report of the Committee of the French Chamber of Deputies on M. de Brazza's mission states that he considers it possible to complete the exploration of the Upper Congo in two years. M. de Brazza's object is to maintain the position already achieved by founding eight chief and twelve minor stations, forming a chain to Brazzaville from Gaboon and from the sea. The French Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday rejected, by a vote of 352 to 110, the amendment of M. Camille Pelletan, member for Aix, reducing the Tunisian credit. General Billot, Minister of War, said the army of occupation would be reduced to 20,000 men, but the credit was necessary in order to show that the army of occupation was definitive. The vote of credit was adopted by a vote of 424 to 52.

On Thursday the Chamber almost unanimously adopted the vote of credit for M. de Brazza's expedition. On the same day the Senate adopted the ordinary and extraordinary budgets, and voted a grant of 25,000,000 francs to meet the cost of the occupation of Tunis. On Friday both houses were prorogued.

Mlle. Croizette, the celebrated French actress, has retired from the Théâtre-Français on a pension.

Count von Wimpffen, the Austro-Hungarian Ambassador at Paris, committed suicide on Saturday morning, probably on account of financial difficulties connected with the collapse of the Union Générale. The news created consternation at Vienna.

The six-hundredth anniversary of the founding of the House of Hapsburg was celebrated with enthusiasm throughout the Austrian Empire on Wednesday. The royal family received numerous deputations and addresses from prominent Austrian corporations.

Herr Tisza, President of the Hungarian Council, in replying to the New Year's congratulations of the Liberals on Monday, said he could not see any ground for apprehension of disturbance of the peace. The Government, he said, would seek allies, not for war, but for the preservation of peace.

The river Rhine and its tributaries, from the Lake of Constance to Cologne, have been rising rapidly, and many bridges and dams have been destroyed. On Thursday the Government of Baden announced that the floods had reached a higher point than in November, and the river Neckar was on Thursday at the highest point known in this century. Travel was interrupted between Paris and Vienna, and great damage done in many parts of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland. On Friday the Rhine began to subside, but the bursting of a dyke at Worms resulted in the flooding of the lower part of the town. A despatch from Worms on Saturday announced that the dykes on both sides of the Rhine had burst, and that the low-lying districts were flooded. On Tuesday a despatch from Wiesbaden said the Rhine floods had destroyed five villages, and that two hundred and fifty houses had fallen.

In the Italian Senate, on Friday, the Parliamentary Oath Bill was passed by a vote of 105 to 12. The Senate then adjourned until January 17th.

King Alfonso, replying to the Christmas congratulations of the Spanish Chamber of Deputies, on Wednesday, said: "The movement for the concentration of important public forces around my throne increases my hope of seeing the whole of Spain animated by a feeling of attachment to our traditional monarchy."

A despatch from St. Petersburg to the London *Standard* says that Russia and the Vatican have made an arrangement, one of the results of which will be that the Pope will reappoint Catholic Bishops in Poland. It is stated that the Pope has acquiesced in England's proposition to accredit a diplomatic resident at the Vatican on the same footing as that of the representative of Prussia.

It is also reported from St. Petersburg that complaints in regard to the treatment of the Jews are again appearing in the newspapers. It is stated that the railway companies have ordered the discharge of their Jewish employees. The Prefect of St. Petersburg has ordered that no indulgence shall be shown to Jews living in the capital without official leave. The Senate has decided that no court can authorize the transfer of land to a Jew.

The Russian Chief of Ordnance has ordered of Herr von Krupp, of Essen, all the guns required by the artillery reserves, and the German Government has raised no objection to the execution of the order.

A despatch from Berlin says that on the reassembling of the Reichstag the German War Office will submit supplementary demands to meet the increased military expenditure.

Sir Charles Dilke, in an address to the electors of Chelsea, on Friday, concluded by expressing the hope that he should hear no more talk about the retirement of Mr. Gladstone. The London *Times*, referring to the fact that Lord Derby, Colonial Secretary, consented to receive the High Commissioner of Canada and other colonial agents in general upon his accession to office, considers it wise to recognize more formally than has hitherto been done the official status of gentlemen whose value in conveying directly to the Home Government the wants and aspirations of the colonies is not to be underrated.

In the libel case of Belt against Lawes, in the Queen's Bench division—a suit growing out of a charge by the defendant that a work which the plaintiff claimed as his own production was really that of another hand, and which has created great interest in England—a verdict for the plaintiff was rendered on Thursday, with £5,000 damages. The jury deliberated forty minutes. The Judge had summed up strongly in favor of Mr Belt. After the verdict the Judge refused a stay of execution The diary of Verheyden, the principal witness against Mr. Belt, was impounded by order of the Court. The plaintiff claimed that the diary had been concocted for the purposes of the case. The lawyers of Mr. Lawes intend to apply for a new trial.

Mr. Davitt, on Thursday night, addressed a meeting at Limehouse, London, on the social and political condition of Ireland. A resolution was carried declaring that self-government, with a resumption of the land for the benefit of the people, was the only means of restoring peace and contentment in Ireland. The *United Ireland* was on Thursday issued in Dublin for the first time since its seizure. Mr. O'Brien, Nationalist, and editor of the *United Ireland*, will contest the seat for Mallow, County Cork, vacated by the acceptance of a seat in the Queen's Bench Division by William Johnson, the Attorney-General for Ireland.

A meeting of the National League was held at Bray, Ireland, on Sunday, at which Mr. Corbett, M. P., presided. He said that no one need hesitate to join the League, as Mr. Trevelyan had admitted that it was a legal organization. Messrs. Lalor and Harrington addressed the meeting. The former made an incendiary speech, in which he said he was glad to observe that the assembly was composed of fighting men. He said he was certain they knew the day might come when they would have to use that force by which every other country had obtained its freedom. On Monday Mr. O'Brien, editor of the *United Ireland*, was arraigned in Dublin on a charge of seditious libel, based on an article which was printed in his newspaper.

A telegram received on Saturday at the Admiralty Office, in London, from Suez, stated that nine of the principal culprits, out of twenty-one Bedouins implicated in the murder of Professor Palmer's party, have been captured, together with the wives and other relatives of the remaining important criminals, who will be held as hostages. The murderers of Professor Palmer and Captain Gill are among the prisoners. Sufficient evidence has been collected for a trial of the prisoners.

Mr. Dillon has issued an address to the electors of Tipperary, announcing that, in deference to the wishes of his friends, he had agreed to postpone his resignation as member of Parliament until the first week of the session. Consequently there will be a vacancy about the end of February. He energetically denies that he retires because he is disgusted with the Parliamentary agitation. He says he believes more firmly than ever in the necessity of providing that the Irish representatives in Parliament shall be an independent body of Nationalists, who will oppose and harass every government which denies rights to Ireland. He believes, above all, in organization in the "Ireland in America," and wherever the Irish remain faithful to their nationality. He resigns, he says, solely because his health is broken down, and labor will be impossible to him for a considerable time. He believes the National cause was never since the Union in a stronger position.

A despatch from Cairo says that the Egyptian Ministry will accept General Sir Evelyn Wood's army scheme, which provides a force of 6,000 troops, with twenty-five English officers.

Despatches from the Sandwich Islands say that active preparations are being made for the coronation of King Kalakaua, which is to take place on February 12. The King's Ministers recently made a tour of the island of Oahu, and were very enthusiastically received by the people. There are over 300 telephone wires now in use in Honolulu, and some of the planters are cutting their sugar cane at night with the aid of electric lights. The sugar crop for 1883 is coming in rapidly and promises exceedingly well.

The acting Governor of Iceland has sent a communication to the London *Times* to say that, notwithstanding the large donations which have been received, there will be great distress in the island from the want of food during the present winter.

THE PASSAGE OF THE PENDLETON BILL IN THE SENATE.

One of the stock jokes of the friends of the spoils system has long been that the reformers expected to introduce the Millennium by substituting appointment by competitive examination for appointment by favoritism. The jokers will, now that the Pendleton bill has passed the Senate and will probably pass the House, perhaps comfort themselves by showing that it will not establish the Millennium, and will still leave many evils in the civil service. The truth is, however, that none have been more emphatic than the reformers themselves in guarding against extravagant expectations as the result of any bill, however carefully drawn. All that can possibly be expected from the working of any law is an improvement in the condition of human society. The man who expects perfection from any piece of legislation is usually a lunatic. The man who alleges as a serious objection to a law that it will not produce perfection, ought also to be regarded as mentally unsound, and some day will be. One of the express objects of the United States Constitution was "to establish justice." That it has not established justice is, however, no argument against its value. The object of the Pendleton bill is, in like manner, to make the civil service a perfect machine, but all that is to be expected from it is improvement in the machine. If it does this in any degree, it will not only silence those who have been maintaining that, "in the existing state of human nature," the United States civil service could not be improved, but will prepare the public mind for steady progress in the direction of improvement. It will, in short, make it easy to cure such defects as the actual working of the law may reveal in the law itself, by showing the public how much law can do to build up the now greatest need of the Republic—an administrative organization suited to its enormous size, its rapid growth, and its rapidly increasing revenues.

We shall now briefly touch on the features of the bill which need most attention from the people. In the first place, it "authorizes" the President to appoint a commission to set the new machinery of appointment in motion. It does not and cannot direct him to do so. He can, if he pleases, make the law a dead letter by taking no action under it. If he does take action under it, and appoints the Commission of three, they are to "aid him" in the preparation of civil-service rules and regulations in case he "requests" them to do so. He need not, however, request them to do so. He can, if he pleases, give the Commission no work to do, and leave it a laughing-stock, as President Grant did that which was appointed in his first term. The public will do well to bear these things in mind, because in the past many of the evils in the civil service have been due not to any defects in the law, but to the abuse by the President of the discretion lodged in him by the Constitution—that is, to his making appointments and removals which he ought not to have made, and need not—in any proper sense of the term—have made. The bill, therefore, will not, and it is not desirable that it should, do away with the necessity for steady pressure on the Executive in support of it, and close supervision of his manner of carrying it out. In saying this, however, we do not mean to be understood as doubting President Arthur's intention to give the law a full and fair start, or doubting that if once started, it will never be repealed. We mean simply that nothing will prevent its being nullified, or evaded in some degree or other, but public vigilance. The sinister interests which it assails are numerous and powerful, and will continue to be so.

The rules and regulations to be drawn up under the bill by the Commission provide for admission to the service by competitive examination, but apparently, as the wording of it now stands, vacancies in any grade can be filled in this way from outsiders, and not vacancies in the lowest grade only, as originally intended. The section relating to promotion does not conflict with this view, because it simply provides that promotion, when made, "shall be on the basis of merit and competition." There is a want of clearness on this point which is to be regretted. It seems desirable that officers should know beforehand just what they may expect and what they must not count on in the way of promotion.

The provision that appointments in the departments in Washington shall be apportioned among the several States and Territories on the basis of population, is a concession to the spoils view of the offices, and may in practical working have some ludicrous as well as embarrassing results. It may, for instance, compel the selection of an expert of great rarity, such as an examiner in the Patent-office, from Arkansas, or New Mexico, or Florida. Some modification of this provision to provide against accidents of this sort seems absolutely necessary.

It is to be observed that the successful candidate at a competitive examination does not thereby secure definitively a place in the United States service. He simply obtains the right to six months' probation, in which his moral and mental qualifications for the place which examination cannot reach will be fully tested. If it turns out that these are wanting, he will have to give way to some one else. The law, in other words, simply makes the competitive examination, instead of the recommendations of Congressmen, the means of selecting the persons whose capacity for office shall be tried. It does not impose on the public service any officer or employee simply because he has been able to answer certain questions in the elementary branches of knowledge, or even questions relating to the duties of the office to be filled. It only says that if a candidate shows that he knows certain things, he shall have an opportunity of showing whether he can do certain things.

The bill is intended to apply for the present, besides the departments at Washington, to custom-houses and post-offices whose officers amount to fifty all told. But it is not to touch the preference now given by law to soldiers or sailors, nor to apply to laborers or workmen. It contains stringent provisions against "Hubbellism" in all its forms—*i. e.*, the levying of assessments by United States officers; but it does not protect the clerks against levies by politicians not in the United States service.

THE TARIFF ON LUMBER.

The representatives of the Chicago lumber manufacturers who appeared last autumn before the Tariff Commission and advocated the retention of the tariff on lumber, were endowed, it is to be hoped, with a fair sense of humor, else they must lose much of the enjoyment to which they are entitled in contemplating the readiness with which their bait was swallowed by the Commission. The joke is excellent, even if the public at large cannot quite appreciate it. The lumbermen think that the present duty of $2 per 1,000 feet imposed upon lumber entering the United States from the Dominion of Canada is reasonable, and the Tariff Commission concurs with them in this view. What are the facts in the case which the Tariff Commission should have taken into consideration in discussing this duty upon Canadian lumber? We are now, since the publication of the Forestry Bulletins of the Census, for the first time in a position to examine the subject really intelligently.

The duty was placed upon Canadian lumber in the interest of the Northwestern lumbermen. It benefited no other class, and was desired in no other section. The lumbermen of the Northwest argued that their pine forests were inexhaustible—able to supply indefinitely all the demands the country could ever make upon them; and that beyond the Boundary these forests extended indefinitely, containing such a body of timber that the human mind could not even grasp its immensity. They could manufacture all the lumber the country could ever need. But if the Canadians, with their greater facilities for manufacturing, their lower wages and better timber, should be admitted to competition, the home manufactories must perish. By exaggerating the extent of the pine forests of the United States, they were able to purchase pine lands at a nominal price. By maintaining the duty upon Canadian lumber, they were enabled to manufacture lumber at a large profit. The plan was well conceived and successful; but unfortunately the Census brought some disagreeable facts to light. It showed that in 1880, even, the pine forests of the country had already severely suffered, and that they were not only not inexhaustible, but in reality almost exhausted. It showed that the production of white-pine lumber had increased and was increasing with dangerous rapidity, and that the complete extinction of Chicago as a great lumber-distributing point could be foretold with entire certainty. The publication of these facts was followed by the natural results: the price of pine land doubled in a few months, and in some cases even quadrupled. But the lumbermen still preserved a bold front. They denounced the Census, and set to work to discover undiscoverable pine.

Their first venture was in Tennessee; and on the western slopes of the Allegheny Mountains and the Cumberland Plateau, where the broad-leaved forest of the Mississippi basin culminates in all its richness and beauty, their organs discovered a great body of white pine,

which contained more lumber than Michigan could boast upon the day of its discovery. The choice of locality had been badly made; East Tennessee was too well known, and had to be abandoned. Their next attempt was made in the North. A traveller and woodsman of tremendous experience and intelligence rushed into Chicago, breathless with excitement. He had discovered, on a little stream flowing from the north into the Georgian Bay, a body of the most magnificent white pine the eye of man had ever beheld. It contained hundreds or thousands of billion feet of lumber—enough to supply the United States and Canada for at least a century. Unhappily, it was shown that the stream in question was only about thirty miles in length, that the valley which it watered was situated near the extreme northern edge of the pine forest, and that the few pine trees which grew along its banks among the hardier denseness of the great sub-arctic forests of the north, were scattered, small, and utterly worthless for commercial purposes.

All this had occurred before the meeting of the Tariff Commission in Chicago. The lumbermen, finding that they could no longer secure the raw material at a nominal price, were more anxious than ever to maintain the duty on Canadian lumber, and so keep up the price of the manufactured article. The vast resources of the Canadian forests, and the dangers which threatened the lumber manufactories of the United States from Canadian competition, were still held up as sufficient reasons for maintaining the duty. It is still impossible to speak with great precision of the Canadian forests. Their extent, but not their productive capacity, is known. They are composed, east of the Rocky Mountains, of pine and fir, and west of the Rocky Mountains largely of fir. The number of broad-leaved trees which extend north of the boundary of the United States is comparatively small, and none of them attain either the size or quality of the same species further south. The competition, then, which we have to fear from Canadian lumber is in pine and spruce; that is, in comparatively cheap woods, which enter into the general construction of all buildings, and which are among the prime necessities of civilized life. But if the productive capacity of Canadian pine forests is less known than that of our own, reliable information is not entirely wanting in regard to them. Intelligent estimates of the amount of pine standing in Canada have been made, and, although differing considerably in amount, they are not without value, as it appears that the last estimates made differ from the earlier ones principally because they include small trees, which a few years ago were entirely disregarded. It is safe to assume, in any case, that the existing Canadian pine forests will not yield more than 40 to 50,000,000,000 feet of merchantable pine. The production of white-pine lumber in the United States is now not far from 10,000,000,000 feet annually; so that, in order to protect the Chicago lumbermen from competition with a body of pine which does not exceed four or five years' supply for this country, we impose a tax of $2 upon every 1,000 feet of white pine, spruce, or Oregon fir used in the United States. The manufacturers of lumber grow rich; the consumers and the forests suffer.

The country is not without words of warning in regard to the dangers which threaten the forests; they have been spoken far and wide. In the meantime we continue to take $2 from the pocket of every man using a thousand feet of pine or spruce lumber, and hand it over to the manufacturers as a bounty to induce them to destroy the forests more rapidly. It is natural, then, that the manufacturers resist any attempt to have this duty removed. They will make a still more determined fight to prevent it. They are bold, rich, and united. They are actuated by a single purpose—to convert the greatest amount of forest into the largest amount of money in the shortest possible time. Their organization is perfect. They control Legislatures and elect members of Congress; they own Governors and Senators. They know what they want and they mean to have it at any cost, and without regard to the future prosperity of the country. It will take something stronger than the Tariff Commission to make them let go their grip upon the people. We repeat, the tariff duty on lumber is a premium on the devastation of the country, and should be repealed without delay.

CO-OPERATIVE STORES.

The failure of the Coöperative Dress Association has been ascribed to various causes, such as want of sufficient capital, incompetency of the foreign buyer, bad choice in the selection of a name, improvident management, disagreements of officers, etc. It is fortunate that defalcation is not found in the list of assignable causes of the disaster. The only thing quite certain is that a paid-up capital of $250,000 has been lost, and lost honestly, in the space of about eighteen months.

The Association—we speak without disrespect for its founders and promoters—was a foredoomed failure from its beginning. It was not based upon the principles of co-operation, but upon those of competition. It was a joint-stock, competitive dry-goods and millinery store, differing in no wise from other dry-goods and millinery stores, except as its ownership was scattered among some hundreds of persons who gave no attention to its affairs, and its management was in the hands of either hired persons or inexperienced persons, and was a shifting management at that. There is no trade so largely dependent upon acquired skill and individual responsibility as the trade in ladies' dress goods. There is none so beset with the vicissitudes of fashion and caprice, and none, therefore, which requires such quickness of vision and firmness of nerve to meet exigencies. The grocer knows that sugar and tea and coffee and butter and eggs will always be in demand at prices something above the cost of production. The dry-goods merchant never knows whether the articles on his shelves to-day will bring as much six months hence as they have cost him. Some will bring more and some less, and his success or failure depends upon his ability to get rid of the whole lot at an average profit, and keep his stock so full all the time that his customers shall have little or no occasion to go elsewhere to find what they want. The most eminent professor of this art in the United States was the late A. T. Stewart, but Mr. Stewart's skill was an acquirement, a growth, an accretion of forty years' development, and in no sense a divination. The successful dry-goods merchant is made, not born. It is not every one whom practice and experience can make successful in dry goods; but the chances of success among those who have had no experience, and who must rely therefore upon hired experience, are so small that they are not worth mentioning, especially in a city where competition is so keen-scented and all-devouring as it is in New York.

For these reasons the Dress Association was destined to certain failure, and it is matter for congratulation rather than regret that the capital was only $250,000. If it had been twice as large, it might have lasted twice as long, but would have ended in the same way. It may be added that if want of capital was the cause of the failure, it is another and signal commentary on the badness of the management, since more capital was offered in the beginning than was accepted, and a large sum was returned to subscribers after it had been actually paid in. This error, if it be one, is ascribed to the London expert in joint-stock storekeeping who was brought here to set the machinery going, and who of course brought with him only London experience, which is a very different thing from New York experience. If Mr. Pulbrook was wrong, those who brought him here were still more so.

It is important that coöperation as a principle should not be discredited by the failure of the Dress Association, which, as we have already remarked, was not coöperative at all. The name was evidently taken from the London coöperative stores, which are themselves not coöperative, but competitive, as Mr. George Jacob Holyoake takes pains to show in his 'History of Coöperation.' A coöperative store is one in which the profits, if any, are divided among the purchasers and not among the shareholders. The pioneer society of Rochdale commenced in 1844, when twenty-eight workingmen contributed £1 each for the purchase of a small stock of provisions for their joint use. These provisions were to be sold not at cost but at market price to the members of the society. The difference between wholesale and retail price was relied upon to pay the expenses of the store and a fixed interest on the capital contributed. Any profit beyond this was to be divided among the purchasers in proportion to their purchases. If, after the declaration of a dividend, the persons entitled to it preferred to leave the amount belonging to them undrawn, it was counted as additional capital and credited with interest the same as the original capital. The Rochdale store grew by the addition of members and the accumulation of capital, until in the year 1876 it had 8,892 members and $1,250,000 capital, and yielded $250,000 profits per annum.

The example of the Rochdale pioneers found a multitude of imitators in the manufacturing districts of England, which have yielded a vast amount of good results to the

working classes, not merely by saving to them middlemen's profits, but by encouraging habits of thrift, by establishing reading-rooms, and bringing light and knowledge to the members and their families in a thousand ways. In short, it was real coöperation applied to the satisfying of human wants. The principle of competition did not enter into it at all, or only to a slight degree. The success of the experiment among the working classes was so great that eventually the middle and upper classes became impressed by it, and sought to turn it to account for their own advantage. The conditions of retail trade in London, where aristocratic custom had brought about a system of long credits and correspondingly high prices, were very favorable for an innovation based upon cash payments and correspondingly low prices. The retail dealer in London was in the habit of collecting his dues from regular customers once a year, or once in two years, or at the customer's convenience. Interest and bad debts were always gnawing at his profits, and these required to be offset by higher prices for his goods. The conditions of retail trade in New York, where monthly payments are expected from regular customers and cash from all others, are as different as possible from those existing in London before the advent of the so-called co-operative stores.

Coöperative storekeeping in London began with the Civil-Service Supply Association, in the year 1864. The Association was composed at first of a few post-office clerks, and was gradually enlarged by the admission of other members of the civil service. It was based upon different principles from those of the Rochdale pioneers. Its main object was cheapness, not savings. It furnished goods to members at wholesale price, plus expenses and a small advance to cover contingencies. In the course of ten years this small advance had resulted in the accumulation of a fund of $400,000 over and above current requirements. The question then came up how this fund should be divided—whether among the purchasers, according to the Rochdale coöperative plan, or among the shareholders, according to the joint-stock competitive plan. As only shareholders were entitled to vote upon the question, the latter plan was adopted. The Civil-Service Supply Association became the model of the other London coöperative stores; that is, they all became joint-stock business undertakings, and exposed themselves to the perils of all business undertakings under the law of competition.

The stores were vastly popular in the beginning. They became the fashion. It was no uncommon thing, says Mr. Holyoake, to see a Marchioness elbowing her way in the Haymarket—an unfragrant locality—to make her purchases at "the store." The stores, buying and selling only for cash, made no bad debts, lost no interest, and could always command the lowest prices in the wholesale markets; consequently they could, and did, undersell the ordinary retailer. They really revolutionized London trade. They imposed upon the retailers the alternative of either following their example by cutting off long credits and selling at low rates for cash, or perishing. The retailers first bewailed, then threatened, then petitioned Parliament, but finally adopted the business methods of the new stores. They are now gradually but surely regaining their former hold upon the community of buyers, by the exercise of superior business qualifications—the same which have given the New York retailers their marked advantage over the Coöperative Dress Association. There is still room for real coöperative storekeeping in New York, but it is not likely to be either popular or useful among the classes who subscribed the capital for Miss Kate Field's enterprise.

CONGRESS AND THE NATIONAL LIBRARY.

"Observe, my son," said the minister of a monarch, "with how little wisdom the people are governed." It is not much better when the people govern themselves. Five or six years ago, when our national debt was larger and the income smaller, the Joint Committee on the Library of Congress proposed most magnificent plans for a new building, to cost ten or twelve millions. Now, when the Treasury is overflowing, the Committee feel obliged by the Congressional apprehension of popular blame for extravagance to ask for a building costing only half as much, and Congress rejects even this demand. If the objection made to the plans had been that they were bad—as they were—one would not have found fault; but no one but the Committee knew, or could be expected to know, anything about the plans. The questions brought up were, whether it is worth while to have a national library at all, where it is best to put its house, and how much it is worth while to pay for the building.

To the first question, it was answered that by the operation of the copyright law we already have a national library, an evil state of things which Mr. McLane, of Maryland, proposed to do away with by destroying half of the books as being useless. His drastic remedy found no advocate in words, though the House has always been doing what indifference could to carry it into effect, letting 480,000 volumes be crowded into space designed for 180,000. As to the place, the project of buying land for the site, which has always been supposed to cover a job (with some show of reason, since the price usually talked of is about three times the assessed value), was summarily disposed of. The enlargement of the Capitol, which could only be a temporary makeshift, has also dropped out of sight. Judiciary Square, by far the best site in the city, has been appropriated by some commission for the construction of a building for the Pension Office, in the planning of which (observe again, my son) it is said that no member of the Office has been consulted. The Botanical Garden on Pennsylvania Avenue, which is now most in favor, is not inconveniently situated, and perhaps, after the channel of the river is improved, it may not be exposed to the Potomac floods. The third question was the cost. As we said, it started at ten or twelve millions for the building, exclusive of the land. At that time the idea was to construct a magnificent palace, with art galleries and vast halls for the public to promenade in, and some small storage for books, put in, as it were, parenthetically. The exterior was to be Gothic; and, as often happens with our public buildings, there were persons who did not think it beautiful. At the present session the Committee did not dare to present so extravagant a plan, and substituted one with exactly the same interior, but in the Renaissance style, to cost three or four millions, showing that they had proposed to expend five or six purely for an outside casing, and not an attractive one at that. Until we have a design of undoubted and extraordinary excellence it is well to reserve our millions. Of the Renaissance design we can only say that if it is the one exhibited two or three years ago, it is little improvement on the Gothic. But the House will have neither. The House limits the expense to $2,000,000. Congress is willing to store its books, but does not care in doing so to attempt to beautify the city of Washington. If there had been any chance of its succeeding, one might regret its parsimony.

It has been confidently asserted that, by adopting a certain plan, books can be stored in a thoroughly fire-proof and not disagreeably plain building at the rate of three for a dollar. A library is always inconveniently full before it is closely packed, but the two million dollars will certainly provide for five million volumes, twice as many as are in the largest library in the world, three times as many as are in the next largest library, double the number provided for in the ten-million-dollar plan. If Congress should double its rate of growth and acquire 50,000 additional volumes every year, the building would be good for ninety years; then it could be enlarged. No plan for a library building is good that does not provide for enlargement.

One of the most sensible suggestions shows curiously how little knowledge Congress has of libraries. It was proposed that the matter be referred to a commission of experts composed, among other persons, of the librarians of the public libraries of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Louis. Now, if by this was meant, as it probably was, the free public libraries owned by these cities and supported at public expense, the cities of New York and Philadelphia have none; St. Louis has only a Public School Library; and the Public Library of Baltimore has not yet any librarian. If by public libraries was meant, as in the tariff, all that are not private in those cities—mercantile, society, proprietary, university—then the body would be somewhat unwieldy. However, it makes little difference which interpretation is the true one, as the amendment was not adopted, and the whole matter remains in the hands of the Joint Library Committee, who do not consult librarians, and whose favorite plan was disapproved of by the librarians in convention at Washington and formally condemned by the librarians in convention at Cincinnati. The result so far, though not creditable to Congress, is not greatly to be lamented. With the original plans we should have had an ugly, unsuitable, and costly building. With the new plans we shall probably have an ugly, unsuitable, but cheaper building. The saving of six or seven millions is something, and there is the further advantage that the Library of Congress plainly housed will not be the chief show place of the city, and will escape that army of sight-seers who in the costlier edifice would have made any proper use of the books impossible.

THE OPENING OF THE ROYAL COURTS OF JUSTICE.

London, December 9, 1882.

England does not shine in ceremonies; both the reserve and the solidity of the national character are averse to occasions of pomp and display. The climate does not lend itself to open-air processions nor to rich combinations of color, and the comparative simplicity of worship has lessened the taste, surely natural to all mankind, for solemn and dignified public ceremonial. Although people are, in their hearts, just as well pleased in England as elsewhere to show them-

selves in some gorgeous dress and be admired by the beholders, they have a great fear of appearing ridiculous; for everything is turned into ridicule nowadays, and the antique show on Lord Mayor's Day, for instance, excites more amusement than respect. No really imposing ceremony in which all orders of the nation are represented now takes place, except a coronation or the burial of a national hero like the Duke of Wellington; and such occasions are of course rare. Hence the interest which even those who knew nothing about the law, and cared little about the lawyers, took in the scene of December 4, when the Queen solemnly opened the new courts in which justice is henceforth to be dispensed by the highest tribunals of the country.

For a century and a half after the Norman Conquest the King's Court, in which his justices sat, followed the King himself from place to place. Magna Charta provided that that branch of this court which entertained actions between one subject and another should thenceforth remain fixed in one place. That place was Westminster, then a mile and a half from London, where the King had a palace close to the Abbey Church of St. Peter. Here the other two branches of the old court (for it was now divided into Queen's Bench, Exchequer, and Common Pleas) also came to sit, and here they have done so ever since—first under the ample roof of Westminster Hall, latterly in buildings erected for the purpose along its western side. When the Court of Chancery grew up, the Lord Chancellor used at first also to sit in this hall, but of late years both he and the other Chancery judges have had accommodation provided for them at Lincoln's Inn, close to Chancery Lane, and just outside the limits of the ancient city of London. This local separation of the two sets of courts caused less inconvenience than might have been expected, because the counsel who practised in the Common-Law courts did not usually take Chancery business, nor the Chancery men Common-Law business—each keeping to their own courts, and those courts being totally distinct and independent of one another. There were, however, some grave disadvantages in this dual system. Attorneys had business in both sets of courts, and had to run hither and thither between them. The Common-Law practitioners have for many centuries had their chambers—or "law offices," as you would call them—in the Temple, a large mass of buildings lying between the Thames and Fleet Street, opposite the foot of Chancery Lane, and therefore near the Lincoln's Inn courts, but a mile and a half from the courts at Westminster. Moreover, these Westminster courts were themselves small, ill-ventilated, every way inadequate to the vastly increased business which had to be discharged in them, and destitute of the requisite provision of rooms for the various officials, or for the judges themselves, when sitting informally "at Chambers." Thus it was at last resolved to bring all the courts under one roof, and, as there was no vacant space at Westminster to which the Chancery courts could be transferred, the only solution was to carry the Common-Law courts up to the neighborhood of the Temple and Lincoln's Inn. Seventeen years ago a site was chosen immediately north of the Strand, at the point where Temple Bar separates it from Fleet Street, and thus close both to the Common-Law practitioners in the Temple and to the Chancery practitioners in Lincoln's Inn. This site, then covered by a labyrinth of lanes inhabited by the poorest class, was gradually cleared, but not till 1871 did the work of building actually begin. Meantime an event happened which gave a new significance to the undertaking: in 1873 the Judicature Act was passed—a statute which destroyed the ancient distinction between courts of Common Law and courts of Equity (Chancery), fusing all the superior tribunals of the land into one new Supreme Court of Judicature, subdivided into a court of original jurisdiction (the High Court of Justice) and one of appellate jurisdiction (the Court of Appeal). It thus became more than ever necessary for all the judges to have courts provided for them in the same place, in order that the unity of system and procedure which the statute was meant to bring about might be attained, and that counsel and attorneys might be able to practise more easily in every court, having only to walk from one judge to another across a passage, instead of driving down to, or up from, Westminster to Lincoln's Inn. If the erection of one building for all the tribunals had not been already begun, it must have been begun after the passing of this act; nor can the full effect of the act be obtained until this local juxtaposition of authorities hitherto unconnected has had time to tell.

These explanations seem required in order to convey an idea of the various aspects of the event of December 4. It is interesting in three ways: Firstly, it is an important stage in the history of our law, marking the fusion of the old Common-Law courts with the more recent, yet also ancient, Equity courts, and rendering that fusion more practically complete. Secondly, it is a unique occurrence in the history of our judicial administration. Since first there were central courts in England, since William Rufus built that great hall at Westminster which is being now forsaken, there has never been any assemblage of the lawyers for a common purpose, any recognition of them by the state as a great profession, on half so great a scale. Such a huge pile as this is would never have been thought of till in this century England has grown so vastly in wealth and population; nor is it likely that for many centuries to come the need of any other such central building will be felt. Thirdly, the occasion was one of those rare ones which gather all that is eminent in English society together—eminent whether by rank, or by office, or by intellectual gift. A great number of our most distinguished men were required to be present, being connected either with the Executive Government or with some branch of the law. Everybody else desired to be present, in order to see the sight; and the pressure for tickets was terrible during the last few days, particularly, of course, from the wives and daughters of those to whom tickets had already been given. Tickets were, in fact, distributed to persons who could claim any kind of distinction, even though it was neither official nor legal. One saw in the vast crowd almost every face which any one could have desired to see—men of science, authors, journalists, painters, musicians, even actors, remote as their vocation might have seemed from the purposes of the day. Nearly everybody whom an American visitor to England would ask about as famous in any walk of life was to be seen there that day.

In one respect, this desire to make the assemblage truly representative of modern England spoiled its historical significance. There was little attempt to distribute people according to their place and order in the state. The Queen's counsel, the title given to the highest rank among barristers, were indeed all seated in one spot, and looked imposing in their full-bottomed wigs, silk gowns, and black coats of last century cut. But the junior members of the bar were scattered here and there wherever they found room. The Privy Councillors, although the highest official order in the realm, and specially connected, on the theory of our Constitution, with the Crown's administration of justice, had no special place set apart for them. Neither had the Peers, nor the Bishops, nor the House of Commons; nor did either Peers or Bishops appear in their official robes. In fact, any one who wished to moralize on the demoralization of our institutions, and the steady effacement of their ancient lines, might have found here a suitable opportunity; for although the occasion was one which might have been thought to specially suggest the observance of old rules and distinctions, the substantial equality of those who were present, and the neglect of all artificial classifications, was what most struck an observer who asked himself how things would have been arranged in the fourteenth century, or the seventeenth, when Privy Councillors and Peers were so much more important than they are now, and when no one would have dreamed of admitting representatives of mere literature, or science, or art to share in any public ceremonial.

Historically, therefore, the display lacked something, for it neglected associations that would have been suggestive; and pictorially it suffered by the want of brilliant colors. Though there was great variety of official costume, the black of the lawyers largely predominated; and as the ladies came in morning dress, with cloaks or mantles on their shoulders—for the day was cold—they added less brightness than is usually expected from them. Still the *coup d'œil* was impressive as the great procession passed up the long hall between thick rows of spectators; for it spoke of the antiquity, the permanence, the solidity, even now in democratic days, of the Constitution and Government of England. Although the Queen is now no more than a figure-head, every one treated her as if she were still as much the ruler of the country as was Henry II. when he organized these courts which still dispense justice in the sovereign's name. The monarchy of France has gone, the monarchies of Spain, Russia, Prussia, Austria are recent growths compared with the English, yet the English is, to all appearances, safer than any one of these. The Lord Chancellor, who addressed the Queen on behalf of the judges; the Archbishop, who offered a prayer; the Attorney-General, who, as spokesman of the bar, asked the Queen to direct that the day's proceedings might be entered on the records of the Supreme Court; the Lord Chief-Justice (Lord Coleridge), whose tall and dignified form, rich with scarlet and ermine, was one of the more prominent in the procession; the Chancellor of the Exchequer (Mr. Gladstone), whose face, worn and grave and grim, but instinct with quenchless fire and passion, was scanned more closely than any other—all these are the holders of offices which have lasted for many centuries, and been filled by persons famous in the history not of England only, but of the world. No occasion could have more forcibly impressed on an observer's mind that singular continuity of development which England, almost alone among European states, exhibits, and which, so far as one can see, may go on, for generations to come, unbroken by any revolution, yet constantly changing the realities which lie under these old forms, and making them more and more forms only.

As a piece of architecture, the building may be pronounced better than most of our recent performances, yet scarcely worthy of its importance or its magnitude. If there is little in it to object to, there is also little to admire—little which strikes the imagination or detains the eye by beauty of detail. There never was an age in England which had half so many great buildings to erect, yet withal we have not thus far produced a single really great architect. Nearly every town has been erecting a town-hall or an exchange; immense numbers of new churches have risen in populous districts; in both Uni-

versities several new colleges have been erected; London herself has had new Houses of Parliament, new public offices, a new Natural History Museum, a new Royal Academy—all buildings of great size and cost. Yet nothing has been created by which this age can desire to be remembered. Mr. Street, the architect of these courts, did not live to see them finished. He was a man of great taste and knowledge, as his book on the Gothic architecture of Spain sufficiently proves, and in practical skill he was certainly inferior to none of his contemporaries; yet, in examining his work, we are more struck by his knowledge of thirteenth and fourteenth-century Gothic than impressed by any grandeur or charm of the work itself. I speak chiefly of the exterior, and of the great central hall, which no doubt suffers by the inevitable comparison one makes between it and that at Westminster. The convenience of the courts has still to be tested by use, for the judges will not migrate thither till January. But those who have gone through the whole interior of the building say that it too much resembles the legal procedure of England in its complexity, its intricacy, its darkness, and the difficulty of finding one's way out when one has once got in. Yet, whatever its defects, it cannot fail to be better than the rooms in which our judges have hitherto had to sit, in which there was neither air nor proper space for the counsel and the attorneys. It remains to be seen whether the old separation of the bar into those who practise Common Law and those who practise "Equity"—a separation which has survived the technical fusion of the courts in 1873—will survive their local juxtaposition. There is still enough difference in the business allotted to the "Chancery Division"—that which represents the ancient Court of Chancery—to produce a difference in the methods of pleading and procedure from those of the other divisions; but the tendency to employ the leading advocates in every court alike will no doubt increase till what is still called the Chancery Bar will at last disappear, and with it the last vestige of the ancient twofold division of English courts and English law. Y.

ENGLISH FICTION: THE DEATH OF ANTHONY TROLLOPE.

LONDON, December 11, 1882.

THE death of Mr. Anthony Trollope, which took place three or four days ago after a short illness, makes a considerable void in the list of our writers of fiction. He was not, indeed, in the first rank of imaginative writers: we have had none since the departure of Thackeray and Dickens to whom that place could be assigned, except the remarkable genius, lost to us two years ago, who was best known under the title of George Eliot. But in the second rank Mr. Trollope stood very high; and though other novelists may have had as many readers as he, there was none who was in so many ways representative of English fiction both by his books and by his living personality. He had established his reputation nearly thirty years ago, when Thackeray, Dickens, and George Eliot were all still in the fulness of their fame; and from that time till now his readers had come from the best educated classes as well as from those who have no taste or capacity for anything heavier than romance. In this respect he stood conspicuously above Miss Braddon, Mrs. Henry Wood, Ouida, and other heroines of the circulating libraries, and also above such more temperate writers as William Black, James Payn, or Whyte Melville. None of these have, like Mr. Trollope, succeeded in making their creations a part of the common thought of cultivated Englishmen; none have, like him, given us characters which we treat as typical men and women, and discuss at a dinner-table as though they were real people. Mrs. Proudie, for instance, the Bishop of Barchester's wife, to take the most obvious though not the most favorable instance, is as familiar a name to English men and women between sixty and thirty years of age as Sam Weller, or the Marquis of Steyne, or Rosamond Lydgate. There is no surviving novelist of whose personages this could be said.

Anthony Trollope was a genial, hearty, vigorous man, a typical Englishman in his face, his talk, his ideas, his tastes. His large eyes, which looked larger behind his large spectacles, were full of good-humored life and force; and though he was not witty nor brilliant in conversation, he was what is called very good company, having travelled widely, known all sorts of people, and formed positive views on nearly every subject, which he was always ready to promulgate and maintain. There was not much novelty in them—you were disappointed not to find so clever a writer somewhat more original in his talk—but they were worth listening to for their solid sense, and you enjoyed the ardor with which he threw himself into a discussion. There was nothing about him of that erratic turn which we often attribute to literary men. He was a steady and regular worker, who could and did turn out a certain quantity of copy for the printer every day, composing a novel just as other people might compose tables of statistics. These methodical habits were to some extent due to his early training as a clerk in the Post-office, where he spent the earlier half of his life, having finally quitted it about fifteen years ago, when he became, for a short time only, editor of a monthly magazine. He turned his civil-service experiences to good account in some of his stories, giving very faithful and characteristic sketches, in the 'Three Clerks' and 'The Small House at Allington,' of different types of Government officials, a class which is much more of a class in England than it is in America. His favorite amusement was hunting, as readers of his novels know, and until the last few years he might have been seen once or twice a week following the hounds in Essex. Like most of our literary men, he was a politician, and a pretty keen one too. He once contested, in the Liberal interest, the borough of Beverley in Yorkshire, a corrupt little place, which has since been disfranchised as a punishment for its corruption; and his experiences there doubtless suggested the clever electioneering sketches in the story of 'Ralph the Heir.' He appeared on the platform at the great meeting in St. James's Hall in December, 1876, which was the beginning of that vehement party struggle over the Eastern question that only ended at the general election of 1880. But he had no practical experience of politics either in the House of Commons or in one of those great cities where party warfare is waged almost as hotly as at Westminster, and therefore those pictures of political life which are so frequent in his later tales have not been thought successful. They are all taken from the outside—they do not suggest the reality. He knew a good deal about our colonies, having visited and written books describing the West Indies, Australia and New Zealand, and South Africa; probably he would have been most useful in these matters in Parliament had he succeeded in entering it. Thackeray also once tried, and was also unsuccessful.

The most conspicuous merit of Trollope's novels, in the eyes of his own countrymen, is as pictures of contemporary manners. In this respect they are unrivalled. Dickens, with all his great and splendid gifts, did not describe the society he lived in: his personages were too startling to speak and act and think like the men and women of the nineteenth century. Some of his novels are menageries of oddities, from which a foreigner would learn little or nothing about England. Thackeray, again, though he described certain sections of the upper class with far more power and delicacy than Trollope ever reached, did not go beyond those sections, and has little to tell us about the middle class generally. Trollope was thoroughly at home both in our middle class and also (though less perfectly) in our upper class; and his pictures are all the more true to life because there is not that vein of stern and often cynical reflection which runs through Thackeray, and makes us think less of the story than of the moral. Trollope usually has a moral, but it is so obvious, so coolly and quietly put, that it does not draw our attention off from the smaller incidents of the story, the little touches of every-day life which make the people life-like. One may almost say that it is because even his characters are commonplace that they so well represent the current habits and notions of our time. They are only the same people we meet in the streets or at a party; and they are mostly seen under no more exciting conditions than those of a hunting meet, or a lawn-tennis match, or an afternoon tea. They are flirting, or talking for effect, or scheming for some petty temporary end; they are not under the influence of strong passions, or forced into striking situations, like the leading characters in Charlotte Brontë's or George Eliot's novels; and for this reason again they represent faithfully the ordinary surface of English upper and upper-middle class society: its prejudices, its little hypocrisies, its snobbishness, its respect for conventionalities, but also its public spirit, its self-helpfulness, its neighborliness, its respect for honesty and straightforwardness, not to speak of those transient tastes and fashions which are, so to speak, the trimmings of the dress, and always happily attacked by so acute an observer of little things. That Trollope will be read at all fifty years hence one may well hesitate to predict, considering how few of the present generation have read Richardson, or Fielding, or Miss Edgeworth, or Charlotte Brontë, or even Walter Scott. But whoever does read Trollope in 1930 will gather from his pages better than from any others an impression of what every-day life was like in England under Queen Victoria.

His range was not wide, for he could not present either grand characters or tragical situations, any more than he could break into the splendid humor of Dickens. His wings never raised him far above the commonplace earth. But within that limited range he had surprising fertility. His clerical portrait gallery is the most complete that any English novelist has given us. No two faces are exactly alike, and yet all are such people as one might see any day in the pulpit. There is scarcely one of his stories in which a young lady is not engaged, formally or practically, to two men at the same time, or one man more or less committed to two girls, yet no one story repeats precisely the situation of any of his predecessors. Few people who have written so much have so little appeared to be exhausting their resources.

It must, however, be admitted that Trollope's fame would have stood higher if he had written less. The public which had been delighted with his first two or three groups of novels, and especially with that of which 'The Warden' is the first and 'Barchester Towers' the second, began latterly to tire of the mannerisms of their favorite, and felt that they now knew all he had to say, although the occasions and ways of saying it might be ingeniously varied. Partly, perhaps, because he feared this, he once or twice attempted to represent more extravagant situations and exceptional personages. But the attempt was not successful. He lost his touch of ordinary life without getting into any higher region of poetical

truth; and in his last few stories he had returned to his earlier and better manner.

Among the writers of fiction who survive him there is none who so well combines artistic quality with the gift of hitting the popular taste. Miss Braddon is more popular, if one is to reckon popularity by the number of readers, but in giving herself up to the production of an immense number of hasty works she has set aside such possibilities of becoming a true artist as she possessed. Miss Broughton has power, but it is not a power which seems to ripen toward anything finer or more perfect than she produced at first. Mr. Henry James and Mr. Howells, as well as Mrs. Oliphant and Miss Thackeray, are true artists, with a subtle sense of character, but they have not yet laid hold of the general public, highly as their work is appreciated by cultivated people. Mr. George Meredith, a strong and peculiar genius, who has a great fascination for those who will take the pains to follow him, remains unknown to the vast majority of novel-readers. The rest of our fictionists, Mr. James Payn, Mr. W. Black, Mr. Blackmore, Mr. Wilkie Collins, with many others of equal or minor note, are what one may call story-tellers of incident—some of them possessed of an excellent gift for narrative, amusing or exciting, but giving us neither original studies of character nor positions or situations of dramatic power. Mr. Collins, for instance, though in a sense a skilful constructor of plots, accomplished in the art of keeping his readers in suspense, has never been able to make any of his plots really impressive, because his people have no passion; they are mere lay figures, whom we recognize by some habit or some set of phrases which the author assigns to them; but as they do not themselves engage our interest, so the crises in which they are involved do not move us. We say, "How clever," but we forget all about them when we close the book. One does not thus forget the dénouement of 'The Mill on the Floss' or of 'Jane Eyre.' In this respect the leading novelists of France are certainly ahead of us. Their characters are studied with far more care, and the whole action of the story is carefully subordinated to the development of these characters, and the placing of them in a critical position which will set their strength and weakness in the fullest light. There is far more of a judicious adaptation of the parts to the whole in French fiction than in ours, and therefore more unity of impression is attained. Mr. Trollope no doubt set a bad example in this respect. He crowded his canvas with figures; he pursued the fortunes of three or four sets of people at the same time, caring little how the fate of the one set affected that of the others; he made his novel a sort of chronicle which you might open anywhere and close anywhere, instead of a drama converging toward one centre and animated by one idea. This looseness was in him redeemed by the brightness and faithfulness of his sketches of character and manners: in those novelists of incident who have just been mentioned these merits are much less considerable. It is fair to say, however, that they generally deserve with him the praise of purity of tone. Even our sensational novelists, even our fleshly school, gives our host of novel-readers food which may be pronounced wholesome, or at least harmless, when compared with that which Paris provides for all the rest of Europe. Y.

ARCHÆOLOGICAL PROGRESS IN GREECE.

FLORENCE, Dec. 14, 1882.

THE past year has not been prolific of discoveries in Greek archæology. The most important finds have been made in Asia Minor by the Germans, and are not yet reported on. That of a Mausoleum, made by the Austrians at Gulbaktche, on the main land opposite Rhodes, is the most important find, in an artistic point of view, since that of Pergamon, and has an additional value in the resemblance of its sculptures to those found at that place. They are in an excellent style of Greek art, with combats of Amazons and Greeks—scenes from the 'Odyssey,' etc. The whole find has been carried off by the agents of the Government, and will be reconstructed at Vienna. The sculptures are unfortunately not in marble, but in a fine sandstone, yet are in good preservation, and, so far as we can judge from the photographs and descriptions, are of the end of the good period of Greek art. In Greece proper, with the exception of the half of an archaic cuirass of the sixth century from Olympia, which I found at Zante, and some fragments at Delos, nothing especially noteworthy has turned up, unless it be in the just announced discovery of some statues, etc., under the Acropolis, of which I have no details. The Archæological Society of Athens, which is more active than ever in seeking to prevent any other society or agency from making any excavations in Greece, really does more to impede archæological research than it has ever done to help it. Its actual work is always insignificant as compared with its pretensions and plans, and, dog-in-the-manger like, it struggles against any concessions being given to any Government or other society, while the Acropolis, which, from all consideration of archæological and historical interest, should be thoroughly, and first of all localities, cleared of its rubbish slopes, is being built up to and the ground rendered for ever inaccessible without enormously increased expense. The builders of the houses, knowing the advantage of the site, generally go to the rock in search of antiquities, and in this way some articles are now and then found by private search. At the same time, the Society is expending its means in the purchase of sites of far less importance to prevent at any future time any one but themselves from digging in them.

With slight exceptions, the entire aggregate of noteworthy discoveries in Greece are due to foreign research and capital, and as, according to the Greek law, nothing can leave the country, all concessions must involve the condition that Greece receives the entire results of the excavation. Yet at the present moment the Society is offering the most obstinate and effectual opposition to the French plan of excavation at Delphi, and the School at Athens has, I understand, abandoned the work at Delos, under the annoyance and petty vexations of the Greek supervision. As an instance of the way in which opposition is carried on, I will tell what happened to the delegate who has been for the past two summers superintending the work at Delos. The demarch of Mykonos (the demarchy to which the uninhabited island of Delos is attached) insisted on choosing the workmen who should work at the excavations, *as they must be chosen from the party in power.* The French excavators naturally refused, point-blank, to permit any such meddling with their work. Upon this, the demarch openly declared that the French, in understanding with the ephors who supervise the work for the Greek Government, had systematically stolen the objects found, and that they had shipped whole cargoes to Paris. At the conclusion of last summer's work, the delegate, accompanied by the ephor, left on a sailing craft direct for Syra, on which the demarch telegraphed to Athens that the Frenchman had fled from Mykonos with all the statues of Delos. This caused the Government to summon the ephor to Athens, when it was known that there was not a fragment of marble in the boat. This year, at the conclusion of the works, the departure took place from Mykonos, when the demarch, in the most insolent manner, accused Mr. Reinach of having stolen the statues, etc., and insisted on searching his traps, boxes in which the tools were, etc., although the ephor in supervision was on the spot and protested against such insolence of a petty official without authority or sense of decency. It may be supposed that excavation in Greece is not a pleasant matter; and when we remember that the work is done mainly in the burning summer, as the winter is spent by the scholars at Athens; that not only discomfort but disease is incurred (this summer at Lamia one of the scholars died of fever caught in his investigations); that no facilities are offered by the authorities or people; and that a continual petty persecution is kept up by local officials like the demarch of Mykonos—the difficulties of the pursuit of archæology in Greece become fully apparent.

Nor does the treatment of their art treasures by the Greek Government and people honor their patriotic more than their archæological feelings. It is known pretty generally that the marbles and bronzes excavated at Olympia still lie in the worksheds at the diggings, and that the sea-air and damp is ruining them faster than their interment did. That they are utterly inaccessible to the large majority of students of art and archæology, is not enough; they are left to decay *in situ*, as a law says that where a commune will provide a museum for the objects found in its limits, it may keep them, and the provincial and individualistic rage which is the greatest flaw in the Greek character—carried as it is to the point of envy of, and antipathy to, everything foreign in the degree of its foreignness—entirely swamps all patriotic pride. Love of art *per se* does not exist in the nation.

The Germans have finished their thankless labors, and probably the French will follow their example perforce. The results of their work at Delos have never won them the least expression of the most formal gratitude. Yet the discoveries at Delos alone would make interesting any minor museum in Europe. They include—besides the ruins of the temples of Apollo and Artemis, of Isis and the Syrian gods, that of Helios on Mt. Cynthus, the porticos, the agora, and the theatre, which cannot be removed—the pediment of a temple in the most beautiful style of Greek art, eight life-sized archaic statues of Artemis, from her shrine—one of which, bearing a votive inscription from a woman of Naxos, is, from its close imitation of wood-carving (the ξόανα of the earliest art), as well as from the very early literation, the most interesting archaic statue yet found, and probably the earliest Greek statue in marble known, dating from the early part of the seventh century; a marble statue of Nike, signed on the pedestal by the famous archaic sculptors Archermos and Mikkiades; a splendid woman's head in the style of Scopas, probably a head of Artemis, from her shrine; several beautiful portraits of the Ptolemies; two colossal statues of Greco-Roman work, signed by well-known artists, one of them by the Athenian Melanos; a warrior, by Agasias of Ephesus; inscriptions of the highest importance, and numberless minor fragments. Of these the most bulky are still lying at Delos and being defaced by the elements and the ignorant and barbarous shepherds who keep their flocks there; the smaller ones are being, or have been, stolen, and the portable ones are buried in two basements at Mykonos, where they can be neither drawn, photographed, nor properly seen, piled up in confusion—statues, bronzes, terra-cottas—in the dark and damp; and this, which is the legal pretext for the museum required by law, has only been opened once in two years. But when the Hermes of Praxiteles

the most interesting identified statue in existence, lies on the ground without a defence from the sea-air, works of Agasias and Melanos may be considered favored by being in a basement where the rain can't get at them.

It becomes impossible, under all the circumstances I have recounted, to retain any sympathy with Greek greed and invidiousness, which are the most potent motives for their exclusive and narrow policy, while the almost universal corruption of the officials who control these interests permits the evasion of all the restrictions, so that the most valuable works are exported clandestinely by speculators; and, on the other hand, the peasants who find objects of interest which are too large to be dealt with secretly, break them up and sell the fragments. The injury done in this way, and by the loss of all data as to the locality and relations of the objects found, causes greater detriment to the science of archæology than the Society in Athens organized for its advancement does good by all its labors.

The laws forbidding exportation of antiquities, and confiscating them under certain circumstances—laws in their utter disregard of individual rights not equalled by those of any civilized, or half-civilized, country in the world—apply also to coins; and wherever the archæological authorities choose to suspect that any coins come from a find in Greece, whether on public or private property, they are seized and confiscated for the museum without formality. Yet this summer a find of the greatest importance (including several unique coins, of which one, struck in commemoration of an alliance between Elis and Olympia, was not only unique, but the only datum yet known of that event), having been seized and impounded, was released as without any importance to the museum, through payment of bribes, amounting to 2,000 francs, to the officials of the ministry—on condition, however, that they should be sold to a certain dealer, the father of one of the officials; and the curious thing was that the peasant-finder kept his word and sold them to the person designated for 6,000 francs, though 10,000 had been offered by another dealer and they would have brought 20,000. The utter contempt of law, art, archæology, and public interests which one sees on every side in Greece makes the friends of the country despair of everything in it. But this is much too lengthy a subject for the end of a letter. W. J. S.

Correspondence.

THE ANTEDATING OF BOOKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A practice which cannot meet with too severe condemnation seems to be gaining ground among publishers. I allude to the habit of dating books issued at the end of a year as if they had been published at the beginning of or during the succeeding year. It would matter but little if the practice affected only birthday and holiday literature, but when false dates are placed on the title-pages of scientific works the matter becomes a serious one. I received to-day two volumes from two prominent European publishers which bore the date "1883." Both were scientific ethnological works of very considerable importance. I have also received others from American houses. Last year the practice seemed to be less prevalent.

When it is necessary that it should be known that books are published near the close of the year would it not be better to use the name of the month in connection with the year, as, for example, "December, 1882," rather than "1883"?

The prevailing custom should call forth the censure of all lovers of truth in literature, and especially of those who deal with books in the capacity of bibliographers.

Very respectfully, Frederick W. True,
Librarian.

United States National Museum,
Washington, December 26, 1882.

POSTAL INFORMATION WANTED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having occasion lately to send a sample of merchandise to Europe through the mails, the charge for postage to destination was found to be just one-half as much as our rate for the same between any two offices in the United States.

Will some high or low official, or any one else who has endeavored to produce the impression that the last-named rate is insufficient and needs to be increased, please state by what process of reasoning, or by what delusion, the representatives of all the countries of South America, Europe, Asia, and Africa embraced in the Universal Postal Union were led to adopt one-half of our domestic rate as sufficient not only for that but for another domestic rate added thereto, together with the connecting ocean carriage?

Inquirer.

STIPULATIO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: That the custom of breaking a straw, stick, corn-stalk, or the like in token of assent to a contract (referred to in discussing the origin of the word stipulation in the *Nation*, No. 908) survived in England until modern days, may be seen from 'Robinson Crusoe,' sec. xxxviii. The French ecclesiastic, in suggesting to Crusoe to marry the English sailors left on the island to the Indian women they were living with, is made to say, "yet a formal contract before witnesses and confirmed by any token they had all agreed to be bound by, *though it had been but the breaking of a stick between them*, engaging the men to own these women as their wives," etc. This must, I think, refer to a still subsisting English custom, recognizable by the ordinary reader.

In a picture of Raphael's (I believe) of which engraved copies are common enough, representing the marriage of the Virgin and St. Joseph, a young man who assists at the ceremony is represented as breaking a stick across his knee. I remember when a boy, fifty years ago, being told in explanation of this act that the breaking of a stick was an ancient form of attesting a contract, and the introduction of it into the picture points pretty clearly to such a custom in use, or at least well known in the painter's time and country.

Quere, is not this analogous to the origin of the word *indenture*, as given by the old law writers? Both parts of the contract being written on a single sheet of parchment, they were cut apart by a waving or indented line, and the fitting together of the two parts proved their correspondence to the most illiterate jury. D.

Menlo Park, Cal., December 16, 1882.

ARE "CORNERED" CONTRACTS RIGHTLY VALID?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The articles which appeared in your last issue upon the subject of "corners" present a criticism upon the agitators the validity of which no one but a Prohibition orator could call in question. Those who are at the head of the agitation are attacking the whole system of speculation in order to prevent a single evil connected with it. "If thine eye offend thee, cut off thine head," seems to be their version of the Scriptural injunction. Such laws as they propose will at best be dead letters. Otherwise, law-abiding speculators will be shut out and our "corner" laws will fail as ignominiously as our usury laws.

Nevertheless, the folly of the methods proposed must not blind us to the necessity of some measure. When Mr. Gould, with what we might call a Satanic humor, says that *before he knew it* he had bought up more Chicago & Northwestern stock than there was in existence, and *was induced to part with some of it* at 250 to the very brokers who were immediately to sell it to himself at 80, it is very evident that the wrong is a glaring one. In fact, it is not a strong statement to say that the *highway* robber of two generations ago reappears as the *railway* robber of to-day. Each in turn has looked upon the public as powerless to defend itself, and has contemptuously sent forth the challenge, "If you don't want to be plundered, you must keep away from our roads." Here the parallel ceases, for the highway robbers were law-breakers, while their successors are often law-makers.

For my part, I believe that something must and can be done. In cases such as that given above, the most ordinary juryman can be made to appreciate that trickery has been used in order to compel the purchaser to pay more than the goods are worth. In ordinary business the proof of similar dealings invalidates the contract of sale. Why should not this principle be made to apply to "corners"?

Yours very respectfully,
Charles B. Spahr.

Columbus, O., December 27, 1882.

HOMICIDE AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with painful interest your articles on "Homicide at the South," and also the correspondence, generally in the way of protest, called forth by these articles. As a Southerner born and bred, I would like to believe your statements and deductions nothing more than the outcome of inveterate "Northern prejudice." At times your strictures do seem to me too harsh; and sometimes, too, you seem rather to evade than to answer an objection. But I have never yet seen any refutation of your general charge, that human life is not properly regarded, and that homicide is habitually excused and palliated by the public conscience in the Southern States. I think this is also true of the West and Northwest; but that is no argument in our favor.

My observation at college and since that time—say for the last sixteen years—has forced upon me the hateful conclusion that my people are not only not averse to the fierce spirit of bloodshedding apparently hereditary in the Anglo-Saxon race, but that they prefer to *cultivate* it to the extent of "avenging a man's honor," and are willing to excuse, as far as possible, the excesses beyond that point, which, they know, *inevitably* grow out of that spirit. This seems to me to be a fact, and a sad one. It does no good to say that the North, too, is full of criminals; so is England; but the English criminal meets swift punishment, and, in the North, conviction and punishment may reasonably be expected. Punishment for bloodshed is the exception with us.

As to the causes of such an habitual predisposition, the "cavalier ancestry" idea has a good deal of influence, as stated by "Y." in your issue

of December 7—an influence which would be ridiculous were it not formidable. Slavery necessitated, in a measure, the execution of law by the master upon the slave, and hence, undoubtedly, was fostered the habit of taking law lawlessly into one's own hands, as, I think, one or more of your correspondents note. But that produced duels rather than the outrageous homicides of the present day. Still more influential for murder is the opinion very generally entertained by our people, that crimes of bloodshed where a "gentleman's" *feelings* are at all involved, will not or cannot be punished by our courts of justice promptly and effectually. A gentleman from one of the Gulf cities told me, a year or more ago, that he did not believe a conviction for bloodshed could be *obtained* and *carried out* in his community. Of course his statement gave only his opinion, which, however, he proceeded to illustrate in a very ghastly way; but that *was* his opinion, and he was an intelligent and successful business man. The courts are controlled by habitual public opinion and expectation in this particular matter. But I believe that the most potent of all these causes is to be found in the disastrous effects, moral and social, of four years of destructive and unsuccessful warfare, together with the consequent hideous necessity, which tens of thousands of good men believed themselves to be under, of controlling, by force of arms even, a half-civilized slave race made their foes and equals at the polls—of controlling this race in order to self-preservation. The iniquity of the negro ballot, against which Senator Oliver P. Morton protested, has not finished its harvest of wrong, as we in Virginia are experiencing in all bitterness, and as the people of the whole country will yet find out. The demoralization of the war was kept up and intensified by the "reconstruction" troubles; and thus the evil tendencies in Southern life were fostered into virulent activity. Such a state of society demands sympathy, and much has been shown us, and it arouses hostile criticism which has been heaped upon us without stint. But we *have* the evil, and it ought to be eradicated, not concealed, nor palliated, nor offset by the "and you too" argument.

How these causes operate may be illustrated by two notable cases. I was in South Carolina some months ago, and talked with some gentlemen about the Cash-Shannon duel. My impression had been that all well-disposed men of intelligence, in and out of that State, regarded that affair as a most cruel, wanton, and deliberate murder, under the disguise of a duel. To my surprise, I was told—by young men, it is true—that "there was nothing else for Cash to do," and that the newspapers had stated the whole affair so erroneously as to "do Cash great injustice." Some older men by whom the duel was spoken of, expressed the same horror and disgust which such an occurrence would naturally excite everywhere; and they probably expressed the feeling of the State at large. I do not wish to be understood as giving the opinion of young South Carolina as opposed to old South Carolina. I merely give the significant utterances of a few persons. But it seemed to me that the defenders of Cash thought he should have *punished* Shannon for "insulting" and annoying him, just as he should have punished a slave for annoying him, the method, however, being different, since Shannon was an equal, and equals are to be punished with steel or fire-arms, and not, as slaves were, with the lash. I do not think this view in itself more characteristic of South Carolina than of other old slaveholding States.

The street homicide grows most frequently, it would seem, out of the belief in the non-administration of justice, and may be illustrated by the murder of O'Connor and the two Mabrys recently in Knoxville, Tenn. O'Connor knew that Mabry had threatened his life, knew Mabry's reputation as a heavy drinker and as a dangerous, desperate man when drunk. He evidently did not believe that the courts could protect him, nor that public opinion would sanction an appeal to the courts against Mabry; and so he killed and was killed. It is doubtful whether anybody in Knoxville was surprised at this threefold murder, after hearing that threats had been made. Some most estimable ladies from that city, whom I have seen since the shooting, were dreadfully "shocked," thought it was "awful"; but they showed not the slightest surprise, beyond the surprise caused by any startling occurrence, as, for instance, the burning of a hotel—and everybody knows that hotels will burn.

Indeed, one of the saddest aspects of this phase of our Southern civilization is the reflected habit of mind of our lovable and loving women on this subject. I say "reflected," for I do not and cannot believe, knowing them as I do, that they would hold the opinions now habitual to so many of them, did they not get these opinions from their fathers and brothers and husbands. I am in a position where for several years I have been brought into constant contact with young ladies from almost every State in the South, and I cannot now recall any act or any expression of opinion which would show that these young ladies would not regard any young unmarried man as "disgraced" should he decline to fight a duel; and, on the other hand, many of their acts and expressions warrant the belief that they would so regard him, and have been taught so to think. That remark *may* be based upon insufficient evidence. Doubtless many of those young ladies would deny that they held any such opinion, and doubtless many do not. None the less, I believe, it is true of them as a class. And to no man do I yield in admiration and reverence for the sweet, true womanhood of Southern women; but very good women may habitually entertain very wrong ideas. My observation in social life also leads me to think that the reputation of not being willing "to go into the field" is no advantage to a young man, though notoriety as a duellist, generally, is a positive disadvantage.

How to remedy this state of things I do not know, unless it be by attacking the opinions underlying it. Certainly keeping silent about it, or denying it, does not seem very efficacious. And positive harm is done by such stuff and twaddle as you published several weeks ago from that reverend gentleman who denied that the homicidal class among us was found anywhere except among the ungodly frequenters of barrooms and billiard saloons. To think of a congregation committed to the tender mercies of such colossal obtuseness! Let us discuss such a subject in earnest, when we discuss it at all.

This letter is already too long for me to say more than that I am sorry your strictures are so true (may they soon cease to be so!); that I do not like to say what I have said, because my remarks may seem to be an attack on my people, though I desire them to be considered as an additional warning merely; and that my reason for writing at all is, that I want to do what I can to keep all that was good, and to get rid of all that was bad, in the old South, because I am ardently desirous of seeing the new South established worthily, upon the strong foundation of sound and honestly administered government—and in such a society lawless violence has no place.

I believe in looking the truth in the face. I despise neither the past nor the present of this country, South and North, and I want to see the evils in its social and governmental life rooted out, North and South.—Respectfully,

NEW SOUTH.

VIRGINIA, December 16, 1882.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your articles on "Homicide in the South," and the various letters which they have evoked, have been read with great interest by your subscribers here. They have occasioned frequent discussions among us, and generally when we have succeeded in clearly presenting the single issue to which you have narrowed the question, we have found the views of our more thoughtful acquaintances concurring with those of the *Nation*. There are those, however, who insist that the interest of certain "Colonization Societies," and not the interest of this section, is sought to be served by these articles; and there are others who urge that political purposes prompt this "bloody-shirt" waving, as they term it. These, of course, consider the alleged facts slanders, and sneer at the conclusions.

Some few plead, by way of confession and avoidance, that our sanguinary settlement of disputes is due entirely to our large frontier area, and declare that an increase of population, and not Northern essays addressed to the reason, will bring the remedy. They do not, however, show very clearly by what means these frontier settlements may become populous.

There are others who, despairing either of their case, or of their ability to manage it, resort to the old and easy practice of abusing the plaintiff's attorney.

We have conversed with some who, while admitting the facts which are well pleaded, deny that they are sufficient to warrant the conclusion. They maintain that the immigration of such people as we need is prevented entirely by the nature of our present labor system, with which the Swedes, the Irish, and the Germans dislike to compete.

Last, and most insignificant of all, are those few who rejoice in that state of public opinion which requires one not only to punish the violator of one's own absolute or relative rights, but to kill him for the slightest invasion of them.

The "big brother," and the avenger of his own honor, form in the South an "institution," so to speak, out of which have come decided benefits, which in this discussion should, probably, not be overlooked, not because these benefits justify the countenancing of the "institution," but because they somewhat excuse its toleration. On account of such a force in society there are some offences comparatively unknown in our borders. There is a consciousness not only that swift punishment will follow the commission of these offences, but that such punishment will meet with public approval. Of course, in this there is, to speak mildly, a tendency to lawlessness, and many Southern people who cannot help a feeling of satisfaction with the killing by individuals of insolent swaggerers, or the lynching by mobs of brutish ravishers, are nevertheless becoming impressed with the great danger of permitting those to be the instruments of justice who cannot be expected "to draw the proper line." There can be no doubt, however, that the deference, the suavity, and the courtesy which distinguish Southern people are due in great measure to the modes of feeling and habits of thought which this time-out-of-mind social "force" has encouraged.

Many Northern people whom the writer has known and esteemed have, when domiciled in the South, been found wanting in no gentlemanly trait, but in adaptiveness to certain of these feelings. They do not hesitate, for instance, to say, upon occasion, to a Southerner with whom they have business transactions: "Your state-

ment is untrue," or "Your promise has been broken." Southern men also use such expressions, but they use them to express the deepest contempt, and generally with the apprehension that they will be resented with blows or shots. They, therefore, very rarely use them. But Northerners quite as readily and quite as calmly use such expressions in the ordinary course of business as we and the majority of mankind use them in judicial proceedings. They have no intention to insult, certainly none to challenge to combat, when they state in their counting-rooms, as they would state in their court-rooms, "You have not kept your word."

A Massachusetts man in describing a certain Western town, in a recent conversation with the writer, said, in a tone that implied expected incredulity, "Why, they have people there like some of yours here who want to fight you if you call them liars." This gentleman, it was plain, considered such a desire as surprising as if it had been caused by a general traverse in pleading. A Southerner cannot choose but smile at any horror being occasioned by such a wish. His training has caused him to consider the giving of the lie a deliberate insult, and a deliberate insult as a challenge to fight. At our Southern schools, and particularly at the Virginia Military Institute, an insult is never given by any one but with a view to the consequence, which is an altercation. The advocates of the system adopted at such schools assert that it almost entirely rids them of the offences and annoyances which spring out of mere wantonness. Even the younger professors, if insulted, would resign their positions, and resort to the "historic hole" at the V. M. I. to meet the offender, or his *representative*, in pugilistic combat. What this system does for schools it does for communities, and hence it is endured by even those who do not attempt to justify it.

There are many Southern people as fair-minded as your recent correspondent, "X. Q. Z.," who are anxious to know the extent of the evil among us, and all of its causes, that they may cordially coöperate with you in attempting its eradication. There are many eminent men in the South who have for years endeavored to rid our people of the mawkish sentimentality which leads to the acquittal or pardoning of such men as Cox. Among these may be mentioned the venerable professor of law at the University of Virginia, who is constantly reminding his pupils of the injunction which Lord Hale impressed upon himself as Chief Justice of England: "There is a mercy due the community as well as the criminal." As I believe you have not set down aught in malice against us, I hope you may not consider that I have attempted to justify what even Southern communities "deplore," and what I earnestly trust you will yet do much to correct. It may be that your Southern seconds can help you to understand more fully certain prejudices, and more readily anticipate and thus more completely demolish certain defences. This has been the object of this letter. GEORGIA.

ATLANTA, Ga., December 26, 1882.

[It is worth remarking how little effect on French journalistic manners the weekly duels between editors have. The abuse which gives rise to them is no doubt often directly prompted by a blackguard's desire to pass for a man of courage, ready to back his words, and the same thing must occur wherever duelling is sustained by public opinion. Across the Channel, where the duel is obsolete, editorial personalities are, or have been till lately, almost unknown. But in France, again, though duelling flourishes, homicide of our Southern variety is unheard of. Whatever relation may exist, therefore, between these "twin relics of barbarism," they are not inseparable.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with considerable interest the articles and letters published by you relating to homicide, and the use of fire-arms in the South. The following facts, taken from the State Auditor's Report (page 120) of Alabama, for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1881, have considerable bearing on this question, and doubtless will be interesting to most of your readers.

The total valuation of mechanical tools foots up to $228,537; of farming implements, only $77,086, making a total of $305,613, while the valuation of guns, pistols, and dirks amounts to $354,247 25, or $48,634 25 more than is invested in tools and farming implements combined. I have been able to find no evidence that in this respect Alabama is an exception to the other Southern States. Yours respectfully,

X. Y. Z.

NEW YORK, December 28, 1882.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO. have in press 'The Voyage of the *Jeannette*,' being the ship and ice-journals of Lieutenant De Long, edited by his wife. These will be supplemented by the testimony of the survivors of the expedition and a biographical sketch of Commander De Long.

The Colegrove Book Company, of Chicago, have published 'The Unending Genesis,' by the Rev. H. M. Simmons, of Minneapolis—an attempt to place the true story of creation in a clear and striking light, and to show that the same processes are in operation every day.

Three bound volumes of periodicals are on our table. The first two—*Lippincott's Magazine*, vol. 30, and *Harper's Young People* for 1882—need no description. The third is vol. 5 of the *Granite Monthly* (Concord, N. H.), a publication like no other. Its aim is mainly biographical and genealogical, and each number contains an engraving, usually of good quality, of some prominent New Hampshire citizen, with a notice of his life. Thus, in the first two numbers of vol. 6 we have portraits of the new Governor of New Hampshire and of Secretary Chandler. Historical and purely (rather than highly) literary articles are relied on to furnish variety. In the number for last month a complete list of Yale graduates who reside in New Hampshire is given. The small number (forty) shows perhaps that the State is still considered a good one to emigrate from.

We are glad to learn from a circular that the attendance at Washington and Lee University is twenty per cent. greater than last year.

The Maine Historical Society, at its winter meeting, in Portland, celebrated the eighty-fourth birthday of the venerable Prof. Alpheus Packard, who entered Bowdoin College as a student in 1812, graduated in 1816, became tutor in 1819, and professor in 1825, and has ever since been a member of the Faculty. Prof. Packard's response to the Society's felicitations was singularly happy.

From Mr. Agassiz's annual report on the condition of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy we learn that it is his intention, in connection with Prof. Faxon and Dr. Mark, to issue in the Museum Memoirs a 'Selection from Embryological Monographs,' containing quarto illustrations derived from innumerable scientific transactions and periodicals, and serving as an atlas for any text-book on embryology. By the purchase of the large Schary collection of Bohemian Silurian fossils, and by its own rich amassing in the West and Southwest during the year, the museum now contains one of the finest collections of palæozoic fossil invertebrates in existence. Mr. Samuel Garman, whose explorations for mammalian remains in the Western Territories were very successful, was led to believe from the mode of their accumulation that the cause of extinction of the more recent was "a very severe winter, much more extensive and severe" than the occasional blizzards of our time. "As if from freezing, the shafts of the larger bones are generally splintered."

The November number of the *Bollettino* of the Naples African Society, unusually full of news, gives a portrait of the late Marquis Antinori, the latest victim among African explorers, and a sketch of his romantic career and melancholy end by G. B. Licata.

The lower courses of the Rivers Trombetas, Yamundá, Urubú, Watumá, and Capim, northern affluents of the Amazon, are mapped in the double number 100–101, of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift*. The accompanying narrative (translated) is by the same hand—that of the Portuguese explorer, Barboza Rodrigues.

The third German Geographical Congress is to meet in Frankfort on March 29, 30, 31, and in connection with it there will be an exhibition of apparatus for geographical instruction. Notices of intention to read papers may be sent up to February 1 to Professor Rein, Marburg. The exhibition will remain open for two or three weeks. For this nothing can be received later than March 1, and notice should be given a month earlier to Herr P. A. Schmölder, No. 25 Neue Mainzerstrasse, Frankfort. Lists of exhibits forwarded to the same address will be used in preparing the catalogue.

The *Ausland*, a weekly periodical devoted to ethnology, geography, travels, etc., edited since January, 1882, by Professor Fr. Ratzel, has kept up its ancient reputation for strict subserviency to the true interests of science. The *Jeannette* expedition, the new developments on the Congo River, the disastrous end of the Crévaux party on the Pilcomayo River, have all been related with the fullest and freshest details, and letters on Mexican and New Mexican travel are just now engaging the attention of its numerous readers.

The first number of 'Dumas's Art Annual: an illustrated record of the exhibitions of the world—1882' has just appeared (J. W. Bouton). It is in size and style conformable to the same editor's illustrated catalogue of the Salon, and contains about 200 drawings not alone of paintings and statuary, but also of *mobilier* and architectural ornaments, for one of the exhibitions taken cognizance of is that of the Central Union of Decorative Art, Paris, with its collections of more or less ancient pieces. The Russian pictures have perhaps the greatest interest. Owing to the lateness of the enterprise the incomplete representations have almost the air of caprice, but the editor promises two editions this year, in order to catch up. At the end of the volume a cursory review is given of the English exhibitions, by Henry Blackburn, of the American, by "Edward Strahan," etc., and an account of sales at the Hôtel Druot. Some defects in the arrangement are obvious. Not only are the pictures pertaining to a given exhibition not all grouped together, but no hint is given under each where it belongs.

The November number of the *Rundschau*, which continues to be at the head of German magazines, opens with the concluding part of a novelette by Gustav zu Putlitz, and ends with the usual political and literary reviews. A brief

account is given of the Hamilton collection. The editor, Julius Rodenberg, contributes an interesting article on Buckle, apropos of a condensed translation of Huth's 'Life and Writings of Buckle,' by Leopold Katscher. "Die Anfänge der Universitätsverfassung" is a reprint of Professor Behrendt's inaugural address as rector of the University of Greifswald, and gives a clear picture of the constitution, the Faculties, and life at the oldest European universities—Bologna, Paris, Prag, etc. Neumann-Spallart examines the curious regularity existing in the annual records of births, marriages, crimes, etc., and their relations to freedom of the will, while Professor Nöldeke, of Strassburg, has an historical article on "Der Islam."

Our national vanity may derive some slight satisfaction from the fact that M. Em. Terquem, who has established what we should call a periodical bureau in Paris, where he receives subscriptions to foreign journals, has put upon his catalogue 729 American journals and newspapers, with only 274 English.

The Société Historique, whose foundation we announced, held its first general meeting November 11, when a membership of more than 400 was reported, and fortnightly conferences were appointed to begin forthwith, MM. Sorel, G. Paris, Cordier, and Renan leading off. In December the first number of the *Bulletin* was to be published.

Cabinet and civil-service changes are chiefly to be remarked in the new *Almanach de Gotha* (New York: B. Westermann & Co.), apart from the *bouleversement* in Egypt. This nondescript government is still reckoned part of Turkey, as are Bosnia and Herzegovina, but no longer Tunis. President Arthur's portrait, not flattered by the engraver, replaces that of Garfield in last year's *Almanach*. The frontispiece is a family group consisting of the Emperor Wilhelm and his male heirs for three generations—the last an infant whom "der alte Herr" is holding smilingly in his lap. The other plates represent the King and Queen of Servia, both fine types of manly and womanly beauty. The *Almanach* here touches its 120th year.

With part 45, Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon closes its third volume at Carlow (New York: L. W. Schmidt). In the recent numbers the most prominent general articles have been Bibliography, Book-printing, and Book-trade; Bulgaria and California, among countries; and Bismarck, among great men. The freshness of the article on the German Chancellor is shown in the reference to the three volumes, 'Preussen im Bundestag, 1851-59,' from which our Berlin correspondent has taken such tempting specimen extracts. Bismarck's biographer, or familiar interviewer, Moritz Busch, has an article to himself. The maps and illustrations are, as usual, numerous and good.

—Apropos of our comments last week on the failure of the Coöperative Dress Association, "An Old Subscriber" writes:

"From a fairly sufficient experience, I can give some reasons why consumptive coöperation does not prosper in the United States. Firstly, the people of this country (except, possibly, the very rich and the very poor) are not 'penny-wise'—they will not take the least trouble to make a *small* saving. Secondly, it is impossible to hire for a salary the necessary amount of thrift, energy, and fidelity in management to compete with private shopkeepers. Thirdly, the giving of long and large credits in retail business having never approached the proportions it had reached lately in Great Britain, it is not possible for coöperative stores here to offer those inducements in return for 'cash on delivery' which have had so much to do with the success of coöperation in England."

—Now that all sorts of proposals are made for the improvement of our postal system, we may suggest printing on the face of postal-cards the names of a few of the large cities, as, New York City; Boston, Mass.; Chicago, Ill.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Washington, D. C. Persons having much correspondence with these cities would gladly buy them. The additional cost to the printer of one more plate for each city would be slight, and the cost to the Government probably nothing at all. It would make a little more trouble in selling postals; but that might be confined to the larger offices, supplies of these partially-directed cards being sent to the smaller offices only when ordered in quantities. Indeed, it would be best everywhere to sell no less number than 100 of these cards.

—Inaugural addresses are not always to edification. The incoming professor is under bonds to magnify his office and to underrate his capacity, and the lines are laid down in advance almost as inexorably as those of the old-fashioned "long prayer." But the opportunity of making a noble preface to noble work, of giving the keynote to the coming harmony, has in exceptional cases called out the best utterances of able men, and Professor Butcher's 'Inaugural Address delivered at the opening of the Greek class in the University of Edinburgh' is worthy of the brilliant scholar who is known to the English-reading world as one of the authors of the best prose translation of the 'Odyssey,' and as the writer of an admirable book on Demosthenes, which shows not only a thorough command of the subject, but a rare power of luminous presentation and literary perspective. The theme of the discourse is not and could not be new, but it would not be easy to find in the same compass the story of "What we owe to Greece" presented with the same completeness and the same balance. To phrase about Hellas and Hellenism is not difficult, if one may judge by the various studies that have appeared of late years. One can recall a number of such fine adjectives as "large," "serene," "statuesque," "swift," "subtle," that have done admirable service in characterizing every variety of Greek genius; but Professor Butcher is not a man who has selected the remains of antique art as suitable material on which to carve his own fancies. His tone is that of a master who knows and who is earnestly desirous of making others know, not that of the mere literary man who is forward to console us by his own productions for what we have lost, and to outshine what we have saved.

—And yet simply as a literary performance Professor Butcher's address lacks no charm of graceful eloquence. "If we find," he says in the opening of his discourse, "as I think we shall, that Hellenism has not given us enough to live by, yet we shall also see how greatly they misread the mind of Greece who think to become Hellenic by means of eccentricity tinged with vice." It may be gathered from this that the new professor of Greek is not likely to prop his mind with Sophocles in times of trial, as Mr. Arnold does, nor yet to run to the same excess of riot with the "art for art's sake" people. "Love of knowledge, love of rational beauty, love of freedom" are "the qualities most distinctive of Greek genius"; and our obligations to Greece in these respects are admirably illustrated by literature, philosophy, politics, and art. "To her we owe the love of Science, the love of Art, the love of Freedom: not Science alone, Art alone, or Freedom alone, but these vitally correlated with one another and brought into organic union." But "our religion has not its roots in Greece," and Calton Hill is not to be crowned by an altar to the Graces.

"Greece had already more freedom in all its branches—freedom for society, freedom for the individual, freedom for thought. She had written her spirit on books and on tables of stone, which time has spared for our reading; she had shown how the love of beauty might be united with the love of truth, art with science, how reason might be made imaginative. She had given living history for dry chronicle, oratory for rhetoric, tempered imagination for Eastern phantasy. This imperishable legacy she left to mankind. She could now afford to give place to that Eastern religion which has deepened the sense of responsibility and the meaning of personality, which has enlarged the conception of life as something to be won through death, which has left human freedom intact, while it has claimed an obedience before unknown."

—The audience at the sale of the fourth portion of the Sunderland library was somewhat indifferent, but one lot (sold November 11) awoke a lively competition. It was No. 9,545, one of the seventy-one editions of Petrarch, his 'Triumphi,' Venetia, Bernardino da Novara, 1488. The catalogue merely said that it had two series of six illustrations, one on wood and one on metal, and that it was incomplete. The auctioneer accordingly started it at £2, but it quickly went up to £100, and then, by leaps of £50 and £100 at a time, to £1,950. The reason was that the series of illustrations on metal had been recognized by some amateurs as being the rare set attributed by some to Nicoletto da Modena and by others to Botticelli or Filippo Lippi, and very likely not engraved by either, but by some unknown Florentine artist. They were in admirable condition, and had evidently been inserted in the volume at the time of its publication. There is a passage in Zani's Encyclopedia which discusses the authorship of these engravings, and evidently alludes to this very set in the Sunderland copy. The prize was carried off by the British Museum. A certain number of its humbler companions were purchased to swell the all but unrivalled Petrarch collection of Prof. Willard Fiske, the Librarian of Cornell University. Their titles appear among the addenda to Prof. Fiske's remarkable 'Catalogue of Petrarch Books' just printed by the University Press, but not published, for it is designed to facilitate the completion of his collection. It fills sixty pages, imperial octavo, closely printed in double columns, of which six are devoted to iconography and bibliography; and there is a very full index besides. Titles before 1700 are transcribed with great particularity. Not only are special editions of or works about Petrarch included, but also incidentally associated performances like the sonnets on Petrarch in Carducci's 'Poesie,' or the translated sonnets in Mr. T. W. Higginson's 'Oldport Days,' and even articles extracted from periodicals. Occasionally, the bindings are noted.

—The list is an author-catalogue, and under Petrarca are arranged chronologically editions (1) of his collective writings; (2) of his Latin writings (*a*) in prose and (*b*) in verse; (3) of his Italian writings, which form, of course, much the largest department. Translations follow the original texts, and are classed by nationality—Bohemian, German, Italian, Spanish, French, English, etc. Prof. Fiske describes his three copies of the earliest collective edition of Petrarch's works, Basle, 1496, edited by Sebastian Brant, whose own title to fame rests on his 'Narrenschiff.' All of these are perfect, except one, for which an incredibly fine facsimile of page 1 has been supplied. Prof. Fiske discredits, apparently on good grounds, the alleged Deventer edition of 1494, Basle, 1494 and 1495, and Venice, 1496. The puzzling printer's date, 1416, at the end of the Venetian edition of 1503, is accounted for by a very rational hypothesis. Under Epistolæ, the indebtedness of Chaucer to Petrarch for his "Clerke's Tale" is remarked, and Prof. Fiske adds: "The literature of the

Griseldis tale has still to be written. Petrarch's version of it, rather than Boccaccio's, seems to have passed into general European literature. Translations of it are among the earliest printed books of England, France, and Germany; and it even reached as far as Iceland, where it was known under two titles, . . . and soon passed, as it did elsewhere, into the domain of folk-lore." Prof. Fiske's collection contains two MSS. of the Italian writings of Petrarch, one of about the year 1470. Francesco da Bologna's edition of the Canzoniere, 1516, is said to have a special interest by reason of recent discussions relating, "first, to the claims of Francesco da Bologna to the original design of the Italic or cursive type, commonly ascribed to Aldus"; and, secondly, to his identity with the famous artist Francia. The first may perhaps be considered established. The most elaborate bibliographical excursus which Prof. Fiske allows himself concerns Dr. John Nott's anonymous translation of the Sonnets and Odes, London, 1777 and 1808. It will be found highly readable by book-lovers. Under Petrarch Bibliographies, the fate of the incomparable collection of Prof. Marsand is narrated. Sold to Charles X., and deposited by him in the Louvre, its preservation seemed assured, but, unhappily, the part of the building in which it was stored was burned by the Commune. So, by way of coincidence, the war between France and Germany, in the bombardment of Strassburg and its library, destroyed Sebastian Brant's municipal annals. The foremost Petrarch library now extant is that of Domenico Rossetti at Trieste. Prof. Fiske's Catalogue represents a prodigious amount of labor and a high degree of scholarly and typographical accuracy, and adds one more to the indispensable tools of the student and specialist.

—*La Bibliophile*, a monthly publication, of which 3,000 copies are distributed gratuitously by the Veuve Adolphe Labitte, being in fact a bookseller's catalogue with seven or eight pages of reading matter prefixed, has begun an octavo series with the November number. This No. 1 contains an interesting note on the Bibliothèque Nationale, whose possessions are enumerated as follows: printed books, 2,200,000 volumes, covering fifty kilometres of shelves; manuscripts; an exhibition of the history of writing and printing, in the Salle Mazarin; a reading-room with 20,000 volumes; a rich section of maps and plans; more than 2,500,000 engravings, kept in 15,000 volumes and 4,000 portfolios; an exhibition of the history of geography; the hall that contains the famous globes of Coronelli and various instruments of cosmography and astronomy of great value; more than 150,000 medals and coins; archives. All these riches have hitherto been exposed to serious danger of fire from the neighboring buildings. Lately, however, the Government has bought all the buildings in the block and torn them down, and is constructing on the site buildings much needed for the extension of the library. Among them are two rooms to be lighted by electric lamps, in which the long winter evenings can be used for study. If the experiment succeeds, the space devoted to this purpose will be extended. Another change, of some interest in this country, is the proposed adoption of the "dictionary" plan of cataloguing.

—If differentiation be the sign of high organization, German journalism must indeed be highly organized. It has already two bird journals, *Der Geflügelhof* and *Das Allgemeine Geflügelzeitung*, and now the little variety of carrier-pigeons are to have a periodical all to themselves, "*Die Brieftaube:* Organ für Brieftauber-Liebhaberei in ihrem ganzen Anfang." The last clause is good. Does it foreshadow a future in which some single brands of carrier-pigeon-fancying shall have their own particular weekly? English journalism is running in the same way into specialties. Besides the numerous trade journals, which no one outside of the trade cares for, such as the *Cutters' Monthly*, the *Colliery Guardian*, the *Live Stock Journal*, the organs of the grocers and the carriage-makers and the lawyers and the doctors, there are many of which the general public catches an occasional glimpse, such as those devoted to bicycling and tricycling and Alpine climbing and (just now) to electric lighting, and perhaps we should add the illustrated *Furniture Gazette*. One wonders in looking over the list which the periodical-dealers send round at this season, where readers are to be found for them all. Stevens has over 400 dailies, weeklies, monthlies, and quarterlies on his list of English publications alone, and he is by no means complete. The number of writers, too, must have increased enormously in the last half century; for the writing of books has not fallen off at all, though it is true that a large portion of our best books appear first in periodicals. While on this subject, we may chronicle a rival to the *Deutsche Rundschau*, begun last month at Vienna, under the title of *Oesterreichische Rundschau*, and a second Chinese daily, *Hu Pao*, just started at Shanghai. It is hardly worth while to mention the new anti-Gambettist journal, *Indépendant Français*, the new weekly *Républicain Catholique*, of which Jules Simon is to be editor or associate editor, and the new rival to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, the *Revue Libérale* (F. W. Christern). Paris is too prolific of new journals, and especially of new political journals, and her progeny is too short-lived, for a new birth to attract much attention.

—Professor Haeckel's 'Indische Reisebriefe,' which were first printed in the *Rundschau*, and of which the most interesting portions were translated for *Nature*, have now been issued as a volume of 355 pages (Berlin: Gebr. Paetel; New York: Westermann), with a touching dedication to the author's mother, apropos of her eighty-fourth birthday. As characteristic extracts from these letters have already been given in our columns, it only remains to state that they constitute one of the most charming books of travel ever published, in readability quite worthy of being placed by the side of Darwin's 'Voyage of the Beagle.' With the power of minute observation peculiar to a great naturalist, Prof. Haeckel unites a clearness, concreteness, and brilliancy of style very rare among German professors. Passing over some of the more technical results of his observations, the present volume contains a vast amount of details about the climate, the scenery, the fauna and flora, the inhabitants, etc., of Ceylon, with a graphic account of the voyage to and from that place. The following is a good specimen of Haeckel's manner and style: "First among the delicacies for which I was indebted to my rifle was roast monkey. Both in a fresh condition and soaked in vinegar, I found this species of game to be excellent, and began to understand that 'cannibalism' really comes under the head of refined gormandism." One of the leading traits of the Singhalese, he found, was a disposition of every person to warn him against the dishonesty of everybody else. An old native dubbed Socrates accounted for the general depravity by a new theory of heredity, involving the prevailing tendency toward polyandry: "As each one of these lowlanders has several fathers, to begin with, and as he inherits so many bad qualities from each of his fathers, it is quite natural that this race should become more and more degenerate." Very amusing also is the account of the fate which befell the Munich *Bilderbogen*, of which Haeckel had taken a few hundred along only to regret that he had not twice as many. In exchange for the fruits, etc., which the natives brought him, nothing seemed capable of giving so much pleasure as these colored pictures, mostly in the comic line. Even from neighboring villages the chieftains came and brought him flowers and fruits for the prints, which afterwards adorned their huts. Most popular were the military pictures and those from Wagner's "Nibelungen" and other operas.

—Spielhagen is a bold man; he has undertaken to prove the superiority of German fiction over the English and especially over the French. Whoever has waded through many German novels will hesitate to accept his decision in advance. Spielhagen himself has no doubt: the French and the English are vastly inferior in the depth of their views and in the extent of their canvas. We have no disposition to deny that the average English novel is shorter than the average German; and the French and American are shorter still. As to the other point, even Dickens and Thackeray are superficial, says Spielhagen. We might urge, on Mr. Howells's authority, that they are antiquated, and say that, if we are to draw the past into comparison, Spielhagen's other objection will not hold, for the English and the French have sufficiently large canvases in 'Clarissa Harlowe' and 'Sir Charles Grandison,' in 'Clélie' and the 'Grand Cyrus.' But we waive this plea, and rest our case on the belief that the vast world of novel-readers will find more to their taste in the superficiality of Dickens and Thackeray than in the profundity of Auerbach. On the real objects of the novel, in exciting the imagination, in moving the feelings, in painting character, in exhibiting its development, English fiction has been and may again become the first—the place is vacant now. The French have followed closely with a remarkable profusion of writers of ability and not one writer of genius. The Germans, in spite of their theories, are a distant third. Their novels of incident are no more profound than other people's; their novels of character are apt to be too profound. Nothing *vetat ridentem dicere verum*. One may philosophize in a novel; one may teach theology, sociology, history, hygiene, if one wishes; but it must be in homœopathic doses. In a novel the profundity that is visible is worse than the art that does not conceal itself; instruction undisguised ceases to instruct, because it ceases to be read. Here is a disastrous defect in German art. The French novel of the day is readable; the German is not.

—Spielhagen, however, believes that it ought to be, for it is much better constructed. In the first place, in Germany, he says, the story and the romance are two entirely distinct species. In France there is a hybrid race: the tale in one volume, neither story nor romance, but both at once. Then, the French authors have a bad way of introducing the necessary information about the past history of their personages. Thus Daudet, in 'Fromont jeune et Risler aîné,' makes Sidonie see the place where her childhood was passed in order to go off into a digression of fifty pages of explanations. This is not epic; these are artifices that offend art; the poet should never put himself in the place of his personages and make himself the cicerone of his portrait-gallery. But in these stories no other course is possible, because they are not romances, but only the last chapter of a romance, just as the classic tragedy was simply a catastrophe—the result of many previous events, but itself occurring in a single day. The last defect found by Spielhagen is one which less theoretical critics had believed to be often a main source of the excellence of

French novels—viz., that they are written with the idea of a future adaptation to the stage. From the point of view of the reader that is a merit; it gives a spirit and movement and unity to the story. But from the point of view of the classifier—and all Germans are naturally classifiers—it is a grave evil. The romance, they say, is an epopee—it narrates and depicts; a drama, on the other hand, develops character by action. The two kinds of writing are directly opposed to one another, and their mixture is an offence against good taste. But if a man writes a long, tedious, pedantic romance, is it to become famous by calling it an epopee? On the other hand, if he writes a neat sketch, with characters that live and talk and, still better, grow; in which the interest of the story chains the attention, and the sparkle of wit enlivens the way till the force of passion becomes too absorbing, will it not deserve its reputation even if it does not fit into any of the compartments of the critic's system? Spielhagen's theories are not badly imagined as theories, and no doubt find their support in the *Æsthetik* of many a learned German; but if he will write a novel as good as 'Middlemarch,' or even as good as the best of Daudet and Cherbuliez, he will do more to demonstrate the superiority of German fiction than he can by a dozen critical articles.

—It is a postulate of modern lexicography to add to each word its etymology. Many linguists have gone still further, and compose dictionaries that are purely etymological, although etymologies do not teach us everything about a word's history. To elucidate the origin of *German* words, Prof. Friedrich Kluge, of the Strassburg University, has just begun the publication of his 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch' (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner), to supplement those already existing of K. Schwenck, the Grimm brothers, Fick, etc. Kluge traces every word as far back in time as it is possible to do, exhibits sound criticism, and admits nothing as certain or probable which does not agree with approved canons of Indo-European phonetics. As German is peculiarly rich in forms difficult to analyze, the author has busily gathered as many parallel forms as possible from all cognate dialects. In a work like this, Fick's Comparative Dictionary of the Indo-European Dialects is of more avail to linguists than any other, and Kluge has fully availed himself of it as well as of the results given by his other predecessors. Linguistic science has not advanced sufficiently far to show the origin of every term, and therefore Kluge's conscientious work frequently disappoints us in not yielding what we look for. For the second part of *elf*, Eng. *eleven*, Kluge proposes the radix *lik*, "to remain over," while Schleicher explained it as a phonetic change of *δέκα*, *decem*. *Brot*, Eng. *bread*, the author supposes to be a derivative of *brauen*, to brew, and mentions in support of his opinion the middle-German *biebrôt*, Eng. *beebread*, honeycomb—literally, "bread of bees." Grimm refrains from giving a decisive opinion on the origin of *Brot*, but it lies very probably in the old German *brôdi*, "brittle, mush-like, soft as pulse"; compare the term for *pancreas*, sweetbread. *Batzen*, a small coin, is from Ital. *batezzone*, referring to the imprint of St. John the Baptist's figure; but Kluge derives it from *betz*, a nickname for the bear. *Brust* is from *bersten* in the special definition of budding forth, *Galopp* from the French *galop*, and this, according to Diez, from *galaupjan*, "to make run"; in both cases the author refrains from giving a derivation. *Bastard* he traces from the Celtic. The better to distinguish foreign words, which are given in Roman type, Kluge's work is set up in Gothic characters. There is no doubt that to students of the cognate English and Scotch language and their earlier periods of development it will prove preëminently useful. The first two parts end with *hehlen*.

ASHTON'S REIGN OF QUEEN ANNE.

Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne. Taken from Original Sources, by John Ashton, author of 'Chap Books of the Eighteenth Century,' etc. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford.

THIS set of social pictures is an interesting and valuable addition to the materials for a history of the reign of Anne. It is strange, considering the extreme attractiveness of the subject, that a good history of that period has not yet been written. While Macaulay lived, the theme was appropriated to his pen. That he did not live to handle it was deemed an immense calamity, yet it may have been a literary blessing in disguise. His work, amazingly brilliant as it is, and wonderful as is the art of conducting a narrative displayed in it, is not history, as all who know the history are aware. It is a splendid Whig epic, of which William is the hero; and the character of the hero, like everything else, is marred by rhetorical exaggeration. Point, picturesqueness, antithesis are perpetually sought at the expense of fidelity, and sometimes in disregard of plain fact. Macaulay was devoid of philosophy; he never thinks of assigning his period to its place in general history; hardly ever does he even refer to anything beyond the four corners of his canvas. Hence his want of proportion and balance. Since his death the subject has been waiting for some one who could treat it worthily. Lord Stanhope tried, but the result was a mere abortion. The qualities which made his former work very pleasant reading, though not a masterpiece, seemed to have utterly deserted him. Mr. Burton had given us a history of Scotland which, albeit not brilliant, was deservedly esteemed as a sober, trustworthy, and judicial narrative. His 'History of the Reign of Anne' is sober with a vengeance, and, saving some display of Scottish feeling, judicial; but it can hardly be called a narrative at all. It is rather a series of dissertations on successive portions of the history, without a previous knowledge of which it would not be intelligible to the reader. So the War of the Succession, Marlborough and his victories, the union with Scotland, the great struggle between the Whigs and Tories, with its strongly marked characters and striking vicissitudes; the impeachment of Sacheverell, and the singular revolution to which it led; the intrigues and the fall of Bolingbroke; the glories of the Augustan literature and art—still solicit the pen of a historian who wishes for a theme full of dramatic life, and as complete in itself as the best constructed play.

Of the intellectual products of the reign of Anne, it is needless to speak. Mr. Ashton truly says that it was the merit of Addison, Steele, and their compeers, not only to refine literature, but to render reading popular. Science had made, in the reign of Charles II., a progress which throws Mr. Buckle off his balance, and leads him to glorify a by no means glorious period. Under Anne, the Royal Society is the butt of all the wits, not excepting the liberal-minded Addison; and perhaps the ridicule was partly deserved, if scientific collectors exhibited "the bones of mermaids" and "the horns of unicorns"; but even the author of 'Laputa' would scarcely have sneered at Newton. An additional interest attaches to the giants of those days on account of their lack of the subsidiary appliances which now enable men who are not great to do great things. We admire Newton more when we think of the ponderous geometry which he wielded, and Bentley when we think of the editions which he must have used. The drama was at a low ebb—the genius of the nation had spent itself in the glorious profusion of the Elizabethan era; but the theatre was pretty flourishing, though not patronized by the Queen. There were good actors, and still better actresses, such as Mrs. Oldfield and Mrs. Bracegirdle, though, as Mr. Ashton says, it was then not more than forty years since the first appearance of women on the stage. Pamphleteering, both political and religious—or rather ecclesiastical—was lively, and had plenty of matter: political journalism was in its cradle. The chief organs of daily discussion seem to have been the coffee-houses, the closing of which, under Charles II., was therefore equivalent to imposing silence on the press. The political oratory of the period was not reported. Probably from the very fact of its being addressed, not through reporters to constituents, but to the House and with the object of gaining votes, it was superior to the prolix editorials which fill the weary hours of Parliament at the present day. But as the avowed aim of Bolingbroke was "to show game to the Tory squires," it is not likely that in his speeches those of a second Demosthenes are lost.

To painting, sculpture, and music neither English genius inclined nor had Puritanism been propitious, though Cromwell himself loved music, and the miniature portraits of him by Cooper are superb. Engraving in Anne's reign was good; and carving, excellent after its fashion, both in wood and stone, was done by Grinling Gibbons. If the reign could claim St. Paul's, it might boast of having produced as noble an exterior as any in the world; but Wren and his work belong rather to the generation before. The great building of Anne's period is Vanbrugh's Blenheim, a work original, picturesque, and imposing: a real palace, and a worthy embodiment of historical grandeur, let criticism say what it will. Mr. Ashton gives us a shock by treating the house architecture of the reign as almost a fiction, and telling us that what is taken for the Queen Anne style is really Dutch. As the best of the genuine specimens remaining, he names two town houses, Nos. 10 and 11 Austinfriars. But surely there are country houses, the date of which is undeniable, that present a style of their own, far inferior in beauty to that of the Tudor mansions, yet characterized by an amplitude and a stately formality which seem to correspond well with full-bottomed wigs and My Lord's grand manner.

Of vital religion, Mr. Ashton is probably right in saying that there was not much: that had taken its departure with the Puritan. Free-thinking was pretty rife, though often covered by a politic mask, as in the case of Bolingbroke, who, to gain the votes of the High Church party, framed persecuting laws against Dissenters, and left infidel treatises to be printed after his death. There was, however, a good deal of outward observance, such as daily prayer in churches and wearing black in Lent; perhaps there was even rather more of real awe and reverence than is commonly supposed. Marlborough, before a battle, always had prayers read at the head of each regiment, and himself received the sacrament from his chaplain. Of political religion, such as the Sacheverell affair called forth, there was an amount fully proportioned to the lack of Christianity. It seems wonderful that the red-hot supporters of the Church of England should have treated her clergy with contumely; that they should have behaved to the chaplain as to a menial servant, made him leave the table before the dessert, and forced him, as the condition of being presented to a small living, to marry My Lady's waiting-maid. But the solu-

tion is to be found in Swift's 'Sermon on Brotherly Love,' which, after a paragraph or two on a feeling of which the preacher himself had but a limited experience, proceeds to ask whose fault it is that Brotherly Love does not more prevail. The ready answer is, that it is the fault of the Papists and the Nonconformists, upon whom the preacher then heartily comes down. The Church of England was prized as the bulwark against these two foes—Popery, which, in the time of Louis XIV., the nation might still reasonably regard with terror, and Puritanism, of whose reign the gentry still retained the bitterest recollection. Besides, the subjection of the Anglican Establishment endeared, and still endears, it to the squire. "As soon as the sermon is finished, nobody presumes to stir till Sir Roger is gone out of the church. The knight walks down from his seat in the chancel between a double row of his tenants, that stand bowing to him, on each side; and every now and then inquires how such an one's wife, or mother, or son, or father do, whom he does not see at church; which is understood as a secret reprimand to the person that is absent." What Sir Roger would not fight, or at least vote and drink, for a branch of the universal Church so "pure and reformed" as this? Nor were the clergy always personally objects of reverence. Swift writes to Stella: "I walked here after nine, two miles, and I found a parson drunk fighting with a seaman, and Patrick and I were so wise as to part them, but the seaman followed him to Chelsea, cursing at him, and the parson slipped into a house, and I know no more. It mortified me to see a man in my coat so overtaken." Perhaps it might have equally mortified the "man in my coat" to see certain portions of the Dean's writings.

Saving in exceptional times, such as that of Scroggs and Jeffreys, the English courts of law seem to have been always dignified and, after their fashion, just. After their fashion, it was; for the law was unscientific, irrational, and barbarous in the highest degree. All that could be said for it was that it did aim, in its narrow way, at upholding personal rights and liberties against arbitrary power. Even the *peine forte et dure*, of which Mr. Ashton gives us a hideous picture, was a widely different thing from judicial torture: its object was solely to compel the man to plead to the indictment, without which, it was supposed, his trial could not rightfully proceed; and it ended the moment his obstinacy was overcome. There does not seem to have been on the part of the English courts the eagerness to convict which French courts have always shown. The death penalty was lavished with the cruel prodigality of an aristocratic legislature reckless of the blood of the people. Humane quibbles often tempered the cruelty of the code; yet there were wholesale hangings, and they were frightful butcheries—the cart, not the drop, being used, and the friends of the victims pulling their legs and striking their breasts to shorten their agonies. The state of the prisons, also, was hideous, extortion on the part of the keepers conspiring with neglect. Lifelong imprisonment for debt was, perhaps, of all these barbarous pedantries the most barbarous. The aspect of the courts must have been much what it is in England now. Wigs were worn by the judges and barristers, though in those days only as a part of the ordinary dress of a gentleman, and *green* bags, it seems, instead of blue, were carried. Lawyers were accused of roguery and of setting people by the ears for their own profit, but the accusation is not peculiar to the Augustan Age.

Medicine was mere empiricism. In the pharmacopœia given by Mr. Ashton were "Live Hog Lice," "Man's Skull," "Leaves of Gold," "Stone of a Carp's Head," "Frog's Livers," "White dung of a Peacock dried," with many other remedies equally sovereign. It earned its fee by purging and bleeding without stint. Its chief professors, whose skill probably, like that of our spiritualists, was moral, made large incomes—incomes equal to at least $60,000 or $70,000 in our day—rode in coaches with six horses, and behaved themselves like pashas. Dr. Radcliffe, the most renowned of them, was sitting over his wine when he received a message from the Princess Anne, who had become somewhat hypochondriac after the death of her sister, desiring him to come at once to see her. He refused to go, and sent back a message that it was all fancy, and that her Royal Highness was as well as any one else. So Mr. Ashton decorously puts it; but the real message, according to tradition, was too coarse to be repeated to ears polite. This cost Radcliffe his appointment at court. When the Queen was dying, he was sent for; but the implacable old Turk answered that "he had taken physic, and could not come." There was an outcry against him at the time; in these days he would be torn to pieces. He was always saying the rudest things, and sometimes he met his match. He never would pay a bill without demurring, and he told a pavior who had been mending the pavement in front of his house and applied for the money, that he had done his work badly and covered it with earth to hide it. "Doctor," replied the pavior, "mine is not the only bad work that the earth hides." Queen Anne, as we know from a passage in Boswell's 'Johnson,' touched for the King's Evil: strange to say, it appears that she did it in response to a Jacobite challenge to prove her legitimate royalty, and that the result was satisfactory to the public mind; so that the conditions proposed by Renan would seem to have been fulfilled by the performance of a miracle under critical inspection. On the part of Johnson or his parents there must have been a want of faith. With the treatment of children the medical faculty would not have deigned to concern itself. It was such that the race may be said partly to have owed its vigor to a process of natural selection, carried on through a most desperate struggle for existence. The young Duke of Gloucester, the heir to the Crown, having water on the brain, and finding himself unable to get up stairs without help, his royal parents, to cure him of his sickness, shut themselves up with him and gave him a good whipping.

At the top of society was a grand urbanity of manner, of which the paragon was Marlborough, who found it of no small use to him in his diplomacy. There was also a set of fops, much like the fops of other times in their folly, their frippery, and their ridiculous adulation of the female sex, but distinguished from their counterparts in our day by brilliancy of costume, and, above all, by their wigs, the chief care of the dandy, for which immense prices seem to have been given, and which consequently became the mark of street marauders.

> "Nor is thy flaxen wig with safety worn:
> High on the shoulder, in the basket borne,
> Lurks the sly boy; whose hand to rapine bred
> Plucks off the curling honors of the head."

But social refinement had as yet extended little to the country, where Squire Western predominated, and not at all to the lower classes. Mr. Ashton has given us plenty of pictures of barbarism, such as riotous fairs, affrays in taverns, and bull and bear baiting, for which twin colosseums rose conspicuous above all the other buildings in Southwark. This is not the reproach of a particular reign or country; it is the state of European civilization two centuries ago. Bull and bear baiting were after all not so cruel an amusement as autos-da-fé. The people in Anne's time do not seem to have been gourmands or gluttons—they took only one substantial meal a day, and their cooking was plain; but they drank deeply. "How say you, Daniel Dammeree, are you guilty of the high treason for which you have been indicted, and are now arraigned, or not guilty?" "My Lord, I was so much in liquor that I did not know what I did." "Night very drunk, as the two former," is an entry, and not the only one of the kind, in the contemporary diary of Tom Brown. When Walpole was a boy, he was plied with wine by his father, because it was not becoming that the son should see his parent drunk. Manners at the watering-places were astoundingly free, and we have a squib upon somebody's matrimonial affairs posted in the chief resort of the company at Bath; not that this is worse than the society journal of England in the present day.

Gambling, also, was high, and so was its twin sister, speculation. A certain M. Bourchier, who had begun life as a footman, raised himself by success at the gaming-table, and by the grand style in which he operated, to the rank of a great social potentate. He went over to the camp in Flanders with a magnificent equipage, played with King William and won of him £2,500, an incident not mentioned by Macaulay. He played at the same time with the Duke of Bavaria; the Duke at last threw double or quits with him for £15,000, and "lost the money upon reputation, with which Bourchier was very well satisfied, as not doubting in the least; and so taking his leave of the King and those noblemen that were with him, he departed." He died, Mr. Ashton tells us, very rich. The diversion of the "Mohocks," as is well known, was filling the streets with outrage by night; and though panic seems to have exaggerated their atrocities, they appear undoubtedly to have indulged in the merry practice of slitting people's noses. Other gangs of upper-class scamps practised the same thing under different names. But of all the ferocities of the time, the worst was the incessant duelling, which would have clouded with fear the lives of the class who were bound by honor to fight, if they had not been as reckless as they were. The Duke of Hamilton and Lord Mohun are opposing parties in a lawsuit. They meet in the chambers of a Master in Chancery, and the Duke remarks of a witness: "There is no truth or justice in him." Lord Mohun replies: "I know Mr. Whitworth; he is an honest man, and has as much truth as your Grace." This is enough: two days afterward His Grace and My Lord go to Hyde Park and fight; their seconds fighting also, or, as they expressed it, "taking their share in the dance." Lord Mohun falls dead, and the Duke on the top of him mortally wounded. It was averred that Lord Mohun's second treacherously stabbed the Duke, but this seems clearly to have been a calumny bred by the fury of the Jacobites at the loss of the head of their party in Scotland.

Amid all the savagery and brutality of these people, however, there shine forth unmistakably immense vigor and fortitude. The army was recruited, as Mr. Ashton shows, from the loose and even from the criminal population; but it would be a mistake to fancy that it was a blackguard army. There were in larger numbers two centuries ago than now men out of whom perhaps the nomad had not been thoroughly worked, who were out of place in a state of regular industry, yet had their qualities, and made good soldiers, though bad citizens. These men service in an army, under a great commander, not only restrains and disciplines, but purifies and exalts. Marlborough seems to have felt perfect confidence in his men: no misgiving as to their discipline, any more than as to their courage, made him hesitate in undertaking the most daring and critical operations. He found

them trustworthy in the deadly mines of Tournai as well as on the blood-stained slope of the Schellenberg and in the terrible passes of Malplaquet. Uncle Toby and Corporal Trim were rough people, but they had strong hearts in strong bodies, and they did their duty without a word. It was all the more to their credit, because their officers had no title to their confidence but valor, being generally destitute of military education; Marlborough, the grand exception, having been trained in the French school. The simplicity with which the victories of Marlborough and his soldiers over the veteran troops of the Great King were announced and celebrated is thrown into strong relief by the inordinate jubilation which has followed a triumph over the wretched mercenaries of Arabi, who fired one random volley and ran away. The seamen were even rougher than the soldiers. Benbow and Cloudesley Shovel were, no doubt, as coarse as the salt-junk and grog on which they lived. But they were heroes, if by perfect fearlessness united with single-hearted devotion to professional duty a man can deserve that name. It was a French officer who said of them to the Prince de Condé, that they rode the sea in all seasons and in the worst weather with as much tranquillity as the swans floated on the lake at Chantilly. Nor had they, to sustain them, much hope of reward or honors. These old sea-lions could not exist now: they would be interviewed, feasted, photographed, decorated, harangued, and shown about till they had lost the rough simplicity of their nature. However, in paying them due honor, no Englishman would wish to return to their days, or to have a seaman's life made again the display of fortitude under every sort of privation and suffering that it was in the days of Anne, and even in much later times.

On the most important point, perhaps, of all, the relations between the sexes and female character, there was little that was new to be said. The upper-class woman of that period is perfectly known to us all through the *Spectator* and other social literature. She was never a Saint Theresa nor a Mrs. Somerville; often she was a butterfly, sometimes she was naughty, and gambled at basset. Her hours were not later, the heels of her shoes were not higher, nor was her dress, even taking into account her patches, much more unnatural than those of her descendants. Dissipation for dissipation, perhaps hers and that of her partner in those days rather had the advantage over that of London society in these days, inasmuch as it was at all events real enjoyment. There was no standing for hours in a hot and crowded room to talk to people to whom you did not want to talk, about things in which you felt no interest. Sir George Lewis might have said that the amusements were highly reprehensible; he could hardly have said that life would be pleasant enough if it were not for its amusements. Matrimony was far from spotless. There were Fleet marriages performed by tipsy parsons, forced marriages, runaway marriages, matrimonial wrongs, cruelties, and infidelities. But in England, on the whole, man and wife were true to each other—more so, certainly, in the upper classes than they were in France; and if that generation left plenty of work for marriage-law reformers, it also handed on the strength of conjugal affection and of domestic sentiment which makes the experiments of reformers on the constitution of the family safer than they would otherwise be.

RECENT POETRY.

One is apt to suspect that the critics, like the custom-houses, ignore the existence of all books more than twenty years old, when we see 'Songs from the Dramatists,' edited by Robert Bell (Dodd, Mead & Co.), treated by them as a new work; the fact being that it is a reprint of a volume under the same title, published by Parker & Son, London, in 1854, as part of the 'Annotated Edition of the British Poets.' The American publishers have added only some vignette head and tail-pieces, and they would perhaps have done well to mention the origin of the book; but it is as good now as it was a quarter of a century ago, and is really a remarkably well-chosen and well-annotated collection. Mr. W. J. Linton's 'Rare Poems of the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries: a Supplement to the Anthologies' (Roberts Bros.), is a collection of much the same kind, but with rather more pretension. It undoubtedly gives some poems which are additions to the 'Anthologies'; but some of the newly-discovered poems are trash, and some of the best are far from being newly-discovered. Why include, for instance, in a volume expressly devoted to "rare poems" such well-known favorites as Suckling's "Ballad of a Wedding," Crashaw's "To his supposed Mistress," and "Phillida flouts me"? Mr. Linton might almost as well have inserted "Chevy Chase." We notice that some critics are objecting to some of his selections as hardly suited for the parlor-table, but it may be fairly urged that the very title of the book implies that it ventures on dangerous ground; and Mr. Bell's collection is open to the same criticism. We should rather criticise Mr. Linton from the opposite point of view, and complain of his emendations. He alters the refrain of Suckling's "A Health" (p. 119) to suit "modern liking," as he says in a note (p. 246); but Mr. Bell has secured the needs of propriety quite as well by simply omitting the offending lines ('Songs from the Dramatists,' p. 260). Mr. Linton's own woodcuts, though wayward enough in their distribution, are commonly charming.

Still another good and well-annotated collection is 'Poems of American Patriotism,' by J. Brander Matthews (Scribner), which begins with Emerson's noble poem "Boston," and covers the whole course of our history. Of course no two persons would quite agree about the poems to be selected, or even what classes of poetry to include. It is not quite clear why Stedman's "John Brown" should be included, and the whole field of early anti-slavery poetry omitted. In some cases, the best things by an author do not appear; there are, for instance, two or three better poems by Halpine (Miles O'Reilly) than those here given, notably the capital lines, written from the Irish point of view, in favor of the enlistment of colored troops, the burden being:

> "Ivery day in the year, my boys,
> And ivery hour in the day,
> I'll let Sambo be murthered in place of meself,
> And niver a word I'll say."

Mrs. Helen Jackson's "Decoration Day" might also be well included; and that admirable poem, "Driving Home the Cows," by Miss K. P. Osgood, which comes nearer to reaching the true pathos of the war than any single poem yet written.

Two attractive volumes by young English poets come to us from Macmillan & Co. 'The Renewal of Youth, and Other Poems,' by F. W. H. Myers, is a collection of fresh and spirited poems by a man so widely travelled that he has even visited the United States and writes a very graceful "Letter from Newport" (dated Sept., 1879), in which he tries his hand, like everybody else, at describing that modern Sphinx, the American Girl:

> "Through English eyes more calmly soft
> Looks from gray deeps the appealing charm;
> Reddens on English cheeks more oft
> The rose of innocent alarm:
> Our old-world heart more gravely feels,
> Has learnt more force, more self-control;
> For us through sterner music peals
> The full accord of soul and soul.
>
> "But, ah, the life, the smile untaught,
> The floating presence feathery-fair!
> The eyes and aspect that have caught
> The brilliance of Columbian air!
> No oriole through the forest flits
> More sheeny-plumed, more gay and free;
> On no nymph's marble forehead sits
> Proudlier a glad virginity.
>
> "So once the Egyptian, gravely bold,
> Wandered the Ionian folk among,
> Heard from their high Letôon rolled
> That song the Delian maidens sung;
> Danced in his eyes the dazzling gold,
> For with his voice the tears had sprung,—
> 'They die not, these! they wax not old,
> They are ever-living, ever-young!'" (pp. 99, 100).

After such pretty compliments, it seems hardly fair to criticise his descriptions any further. He seems, however, to have confined his observations rather closely in-doors, for he speaks in the same poem of "flowerless forests" as characteristic of this continent. Perhaps he did not go beyond the island of Rhode Island; and yet even there he could have found no flowerless forests, inasmuch as there are no forests at all. But so far as youthful maidens are concerned, it is just to say that Mr. Myers describes them as gracefully in England or in Spain as at Newport—witness his "Phyllis" and "Elodia."

Mr. Alfred Austin, whose elaborate tragedy, "Savonarola," we criticised some months ago, would perhaps object to being classed among the young poets, as it is his seventh volume, 'Soliloquies in Song,' which lies before us. He is less a devotee of pure beauty than Mr. Myers, and less successful in producing beauty; but there is more of mature strength, and he has decided opinions, though marked by that advanced "Jingoism" which finds little sympathy on this side of the Atlantic. His wrath against Russia in "All Hail to the Czar" now seems a piece of almost childish petulance; and his boastfulness in behalf of England—

> "Victor without a blow,
> Smilingly leaning on thy undrawn sword" (p. 123),

reads strangely since the bombardment of Alexandria. Most unintelligible of all to American ears seems the impassioned strain with which he denounces the proposed tunnel under the British Channel:

> "And can it be, when Heaven this deep moat made,
> And filled it with the ungovernable seas,
> Gave us the winds for rampart, waves for frise,
> Behind which Freedom, elsewhere if betrayed,
> Might shelter find, and flourish unafraid,
> That men who learned to lisp at English knees
> Of English fame, to pamper womanish ease
> And swell the surfeits of voracious trade
> Shall the impregnable breakers undermine,
> Take ocean in reverse, and, basely bold,
> Burrow beneath the bastions of the brine?
> Nay, England, if the citadel be sold
> For lucre thus, Tarpeia's doom be thine,
> And perish smothered in a grave of gold!"
> (pp. 44, 45).

Probably no Englishman can comprehend what an effect of petty timidity is suggested to the American mind by such shrieks of terror at the thought of opening the ordinary modern facilities of communication between England and the Continent. It seems a wonder that the alarm did not begin earlier, and that heaven and Roman history were not invoked to prevent the first steamboat from crossing those "ungovernable seas." Surely, the argument from Divine Providence would have been just as applicable at that time; though it might, indeed, be argued that the trip by steamboat from Calais to Dover would of itself add new terrors to invasion, and that no Gaul or Teuton who had ever tried it for himself would wish to bring his friends. Meanwhile, has any French poet yet taken the trouble to warn his countrymen against letting perfidious Albion be brought within reach of the French coast by tunnel?

Lest we should, however, seem to do injustice to Mr. Austin's poetical power through any want of political sympathy, we hasten to quote the very finest thing that has yet been written about George Eliot, only regretting that we cannot give every line of the poem:

> "How plain I see her now,
> The twilight tresses deepening into night,
> The brow a benediction, and the eyes,
> Seat where compassion never set, and like

That firm, fixed star which altereth not its place
While all the planets round it sink and swim,
Shone with a steady guidance. O, and a voice
Matched with whose modulations softest notes
Of dulcimer by daintiest fingers stroked,
Or zephyrs wafted over summer seas,
On summer shores subsiding, sounded harsh.
Listening whereto, steeled obduracy felt
The need to kneel, necessity to weep,
And craving to be comforted; a shrine
Of music and of incense and of flowers,
Where hearts, at length self-challenged, were content
Still to be sad and sinful, so they might
Feel that exonerating pity steal
In subtle absolution on their guilt" (pp. 101, 102).

The thick volume entitled 'Poetical Works of Alonzo Lewis' (Boston: A. Williams & Co.) recalls the memory of one whose name was long familiar as "the Lynn Bard," and who is deservedly commemorated by his son as having been a vice-president of the first anti-slavery society in Massachusetts. This is a more permanent ground of fame than that of securing a lighthouse on Egg Rock and a breakwater on Nahant Beach, with both of which good deeds Mr. Lewis is also credited; but either of the three must be pronounced a more lasting service than the authorship of these poems, although some of the anti-slavery lyrics are not without fire. The volume includes two portraits of Mr. Lewis, taken at different ages.

The pretty volume of poems by Mary Clemmer (Boston: Osgood) seems, like the volume just mentioned, to be an echo of a past generation, so distinctly does it prolong the slender strain of the Cary sisters, whose biographer Mrs. Clemmer was; and this strain no doubt still has its warm admirers, though it does not sink very deeply into the mind or heart. Mrs. Clemmer—better known, perhaps, as Mrs. Ames—has won her chief fame as a courageous and rather reckless Washington correspondent, and it is pleasant to find that one who has lived so constantly on what may be called the social war-path in that city can still have the inclination to write poetry about nature and gentle things. 'Poems of the Household,' by Margaret E. Sangster (Boston: Osgood), belongs in some degree to the same class, but the poems seem rather stronger and less self-conscious. This may connect itself in some way with the Scotch dialect, in which a few of them are written, and which always gives a certain flavor of honest feeling. 'The Wife's Manual,' being prayers, thoughts, and songs on several occasions of a matron's life, by Rev. W. Calvert (Boston: Roberts Bros.), is the reprint of an English volume, with a charming style of ornamentation on the margin of every page, this being borrowed from Queen Elizabeth's Prayer Book of 1569. The poetry is devout and simple, and is dedicated to the author's wife.

Rev. Dwight Williams, in his volume of poems (New York: Williams & Hunt), describes outdoor nature in a placid way; he has also poems to Agassiz, Irving, and Gerrit Smith; a poem on "Archie and his six-cent Testament"; and one which preserves a rather interesting account of a ruined castle, built in the woody highlands of Madison County, N. Y., by a French refugee of the last generation—popularly supposed, like all such personages, to be a Bourbon. We can find nothing so interesting as this in 'Song-Captives,' by John Albert Wilson (Boston: A. Williams & Co.). The author, whom we take to be a Unitarian clergyman, has apparently written poems in all the prominent cities of the world, from Rome to San Francisco, and shows abundant facility in rhyming, but no corresponding flow of thought. The following verses contain perhaps his boldest flight of fancy:

"BILLIARDS INTENSIFIED.

"Could I from Nature take the cue
That sets the spheres in play,
I'd send those ivories spinning through
Each other, on their table blue,
In a promiscuous way.

"And when, at last, I left my place
Amid the gaping crowd,
By power unseen shot into space,
I'd strike the pale moon in the face,
And *carom* on a cloud!" (p. 75).

It is fair to say that Mr. Wilson's publishers have prefixed to the book three letters in facsimile, from Holmes, Longfellow, and Stedman. The last-named poet commends a previous poem by Mr. Wilson; Dr. Holmes says more cautiously that he has read very little of it; and Mr. Longfellow, still more guardedly, that he wishes it success. Mr. Francis H. Williams, author of a drama called "The Princess Elizabeth," has published a poem called 'Theodora: a Christmas Pastoral' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), which is pleasing and domestic, without pretending to be anything more. Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney has had Mr. Augustus Hoppin's aid in hammering out the pure gold of Mother Goose very cleverly in 'Mother Goose for Grown Folks' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), but we must confess to preferring the gold.

Short Sayings of Great Men. By Samuel Arthur Bent. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

THE misnomer of this book, which the author's preface rather obscurely tries to justify, may easily be indulged. If only a moderate number out of the 700 names it celebrates belong to men who deserve to be styled great, on the other hand very few of the sayings it records are unworthy to be called good. When Disraeli declared that those men who reach posterity are not much more numerous than the planets, he forgot how many have already floated down to it of whom nothing is real beyond some just thought or fortunate phrase. Sometimes the personality is known of that one whose wit condensed into a proverb the wisdom of the many. Oftener the accident of belonging to a group about some striking historical event has preserved an obscure name. The death sentence of Louis XVI., for instance, proved a rare occasion for such flies to thrust themselves into amber.

Of course no ideas of sequence or quality could suggest a symmetrical plan for recording the sayings of men of the most diverse minds and states, inspired by the widest variety of situations. The alphabetical arrangement is the simplest, indeed the only practicable one; and, in following this, it is easy to be seen how really great names, giving lustre to some era, recall to the collector's mind the contemporaneous sayings of the insignificant, who have left nothing else of mark. These have accidentally helped to write history with the aid of epigrams. Their remembered words served mankind better than their forgotten deeds. So the Grand Monarque's golden day, the Reign of Terror, and times of political change in England, stimulated all men's minds to pointed sayings, illuminating history as sparks of color heighten the greatness of some memorable picture.

Naturally, in this as in any record of brilliant sayings, the palm of terseness belongs to the ancients, and that of wit to the French, while the English and Germans express the deepest thought. The seven wise men of Greece were happier than any sages before or after them, in being the first of the wise whose words were taken down. Succeeding wits and poets, long before modern days, envied those earlier minds that seemed to have exhausted original thought, leaving them only its adaptation to new occasions. *Pereant qui ante nos nostra dixerunt* is the witty complaint of many a man who would be a genius, and could only be ingenious. No wonder that more than a third part of the pearls in this collection have dropped from French lips. The alert Gallic spirit surprises resemblances among differences, the vanity of the race is always on parade, and their speech, clear and exact, never burdens the informing thought. Then, again, no modern nation has gone through such crises of passion and terror, forcing startling situations, kindling energy of acts and words. Their history wrought supreme occasions, stimulating their rare faculty of utterance to fit them. They are preëminent in the ghastly wit of the guillotine and the death-bed. With their more sober neighbors across the Channel and the Rhine, circumstance is less often the parent of wit. They touch the more sympathetic note of humor evoked by personal temperament. Rabelais, the greatest of French names in this kind, gains but one quotation. The difference between wit flashing out from the occasion, and philosophic reflection embodied in jest or humor, is illustrated by the sayings of Voltaire or Talleyraud contrasted with those of Goethe or Doctor Johnson. The former seem to speak like their own race, and to speak to them—the latter utter universal thought in words welcome to mankind.

Very few Americans contribute to this collection, and of the sayings of some among these their merit is to be short, and would be greater if they were shorter. The collector's good taste excludes the whimseys of the comic almanac. Indeed, that wretched small beer of jest known just now as American humor neither nourishes nor enlivens. On the other hand, any literature would be adorned by Franklin's proverbs or Beecher's points, as they are here recorded.

If many men have perished unsung for want of singers, still more have died unreported because newspapers came after their day. The modern great suffer in the reverse way from excess of record of their unsifted sayings. Our author notes, for instance, a good many *mots* of Beaconsfield and Bismarck which might well have been left to die with the incidents that brought them out. They illustrate gossip more than they disclose genius. Yet we would not willingly spare the latter's boast, "We are not going to Canossa," remembering the irony of the event. In general, our author's incidental notes, his dates of careers, remarks on historic puzzles, and corrections of tradition, are valuable. It is well to have Charles IX. deodorized, and Louis XIV. taken down a peg, even if we have to give up Raleigh's mantle, Belisarius's penny, Francis I.'s diamond, Charles V.'s clocks, and the Countess of Salisbury's garter. Against one obstinate error he sets himself in vain, when striving to restore its true meaning to *cui bono?* The false one, we fear, describes the attempt. Yet he need not despair of expressing the alliterative form of Voltaire's noted *canaux, canards, canaille*, which might be fairly rendered, "mobs, moats, and mallards," or "ditches, ducks, and dregs." Of pure proverbs few are given, as they are mostly *filii nullius*, almost the spontaneous growth of experience. Yet, opening quite at random, we come upon the pedigree of many a good saying ingeniously traced back to its ancestor in one of those primal maxims. Thus, "After us the deluge," in idea if not in form, was used by Tiberius, and borrowed by him from an earlier unknown. "Burning one's ships" is only adapted from facts of remote centuries. "From the sublime to the ridiculous" dates from Longinus. "No man is a hero to his valet," or the like of it, was first known in Sparta. "Speech is given to man to conceal his thoughts" is but the worse half, naturally chosen by Talleyrand, of a maxim older than the Middle Ages. That "Hell is paved with good intentions" was declared by St. Bernard. "Silence is golden" was said by a Greek poet before Carlyle invented or borrowed it. And it reads strangely to find Grant's "Let no guilty man escape" anticipated by Sixtus the Fifth.

A book so carefully studied and so neatly prepared deserves to be cleared of its few blemishes. At p. 195, the date of Elizabeth's accession is wrongly given as 1538. Several careless translations appear. For example, Catherine II. did not misapply the phrase *gagne-pain* to her kitchen affairs, but intended her bread-winning business of the Cabinet. Voltaire's *d'ailleurs*, said of Shakspere, cited at p. 248, means "moreover," not "anywhere else." Sieyès understood his own language better than to confound, as the translation does, the indicative and subjunctive moods.

This collection is superior to the ordinary compends of quotations as far as the "winged word," with its personal accent and context of life, surpasses the studied and selected excerpt. It is a casket of "jewels five words long," not merely arranged and indexed, but enriched with descriptions telling where they were mined, or rediscovered, how set and polished, when and by whom worn or bestowed.

Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon. Jahres-Supplement. 1881-82. Leipzig, 1882.

On the completion of the third edition of 'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' the publishers engaged in the rather ambitious task of issuing every year, by way of supplement, a volume uniform in shape and print with the sixteen heavy volumes of their Cyclopædia. Three of these supplements have now appeared, each comprising more than a thousand pages. They are not only valuable to all who have bought the parent work, and indeed to every possessor of a cyclopædia who can understand German, but are of great service to a very large class of scholars and readers eager to keep abreast of the time. The scope of this publication is far more comprehensive than that of 'Appletons' Annual Cyclopædia.' The latest developments in the various fields of science and in the technical arts are treated under a great number of special heads, while social and economic topics, the fine arts, literature and the transactions of learned societies, and the miscellaneous topics that happen to engage public attention, have respectively a large amount of space devoted to them. Political and military events are described at great length. Finally, each volume contains a host of new biographies and statistics, the whole having the usual alphabetical arrangement.

In the domain of natural history the leading article this year is *Darwinismus* (covering thirteen pages), from the pen of Ernst Krause, who also contributes a long article on the movement of plants. Darwin's interesting observations on earthworms are embodied in the article *Regenwürmer*. Among the contributions in the department of terrestrial physics and physiography we may cite the articles *Gebirge*, dealing with the theory of the plasticity of rocks under extraordinary pressure, and *Norddeutsches Flachland*, treating of the phenomena of glaciation presented in the lowlands of Germany. Under the head of *Elektrisches Licht* we have an interesting account of the experiments of Siemens to determine the action of the electric light upon the growth of plants; and, under *Elektrische Eisenbahn*, of the two electric railways now in successful operation in the outskirts of Berlin. The article *Berliner Stadtbahn* describes the viaduct railway which now affords rapid transit to the citizens of Berlin, and connects the railways centring there. In the article on Albania much interesting information will be found concerning the Miridites and other mountaineers of that region. Interesting to the special student of geography only are the articles on the International Geographical Congress at Venice, on the German congress held at Berlin, and on the geographical literature of the years 1880-81, which together cover thirteen pages. The space devoted to the history of the various countries would of itself almost make a little volume, and this feature of the publication is invaluable to the general reader, who, wearied and confused with the daily reports in the newspapers, is unable to obtain a clear and connected view of current events. The plan embraces more than the chronicling of events year by year under each country. Thus, in the volume before us, the article *Achal Teke*, extending to five pages, gives the whole history of the war waged by Russia against the Tekke Turkomans, beginning with the campaign of 1879. A large part of the article *Irische Landfrage* is taken up with the historical development of the land troubles in Ireland. Among special articles dealing with the statistics of commerce, we will mention those on the grain trade, on the commerce of Germany, and on the commercial navies of the world. Significant articles in the department of literature are those on Shaksperean literature, on the modern novel, on the historical and economical literature of the years 1880-81, and on historical literature in Russia since 1855. The appropriateness of the last-named article in a publication of this kind may perhaps be questioned. The article *Theater* (twelve pages) makes the round of the German and foreign stage, including the United States.

A very valuable feature in this publication is the introduction of supplementary matter, bringing down to date the more important biographical notices. The reading public of Germany, which has been utterly unable to penetrate the maze of American politics, is now, probably for the first time in an encyclopædic publication, introduced into the circle of our professional politicians. We are not used to finding even such meteors as Blaine and Conkling figuring under their own titles in German cyclopædias. What shall we say, then, to separate and full biographies of the various members of Garfield's and Arthur's Cabinets? American politics and politicians, to be sure, are here handled in a way not very inspiring to the German Republican. The untutored German mind will perhaps be puzzled at first as to what is meant by Garfield's having been nominated to the Presidency as the "dark horse," but will probably conclude that this was a nickname which had stuck to him from the time when he led his weary steeds along the tow-path.

This publication is illustrated with numerous cuts in the text, as well as with plates and maps. The large folding map inserted at the back of volume iii., showing the density of population in the German Empire, might have been compressed into a much smaller compass without impairing its usefulness.

Fifty Perfect Poems. Selected and Edited by Charles A. Dana and Rossiter Johnson. With seventy illustrations. D. Appleton & Co.

The title of this handsome volume is the subject of an apologetic preface which was much needed, but which does not leave very clear the criterion employed by the editors:

"As every art has its limitations," we are told, "in whatsoever work the imperfections are caused by these limitations alone, the artist may fairly be said to have succeeded to perfection. . . . The endeavor has been made to include in this group of poems a wide variety in kind, only demanding that each shall be perfect after its kind, and having a reasonable regard for the possibilities of illustration."

If this amounts to anything more than saying that, in the compilers' belief, the authors of the chosen poems did as well as they could under the circumstances, we fail to find any meaning in it. Its worthlessness as a so-called "principle" of selection, in the absence of any definition of the limitations of the poetic art, is obvious. What results is, that the "fifty perfect poems" are not the finest in the English language, and are not (either necessarily or in fact) the finest of their respective composers. They are simply fifty *favorite* poems of Messrs. Dana and Johnson. Moreover, one of the "poems" consists of four of Shakspere's sonnets (not his best, either), a singular sort of literary equation. Three of these, again, and six of the poems proper are all that is not to be found also in the 'Household Book of Poetry'; so that we suspect Mr. Dana of having been the silent partner in this enterprise, and that the selection, the title, and the apology for it are all Mr. Johnson's. We are confirmed in this suspicion by the heterogeneousness of the table of contents, in which Wordsworth's "Peel Castle," the "Lines to an Indian Air," "Lycidas," Gray's "Elegy," Emerson's "Each and All," and the "Ode on a Grecian Urn" hobanob with "Marco Bozzaris" and with poems by Mrs. Hemans and Buchanan Read. In fact, the misleading character of the epithet "perfect" shines in the fact that no less than ten American poets are represented. Another commentary upon it is furnished by the extensive alterations made by Mr. Edwin Arnold in the latest edition of his "He who died at Azan" ('Pearls of the Faith,' p. 188)—whether perfecting the already perfect poem, we will not attempt to decide. We may remark also the discrepancy between the reading of the title-line of this same poem in the table of contents and in the text ("Azim" by error for "Azan").

In sum, this volume contains a number of surpassing poems, enduring treasures of our tongue and race, and a greater number of less fine, down to ordinary if not mediocre. The singularity of the illustrations deserves mention. They are vignettes cut on wood, printed on Japanese paper, and delicately pasted upon the printed page, the effect being nearly that of the peculiarly French fashion of mixing etchings and letter-press. The covers, finally, are of silk, and the general effect very elegant.

Our Liberal Movement in Theology. By Joseph Henry Allen, Lecturer on Ecclesiastical History in Harvard University. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Mr. Allen's 'Fragments of Christian History' was noticed in our columns a few months ago. The gap between that volume and the present is to be filled by a volume on 'The Middle Age' which is in press already, and will be published before long. The three volumes will furnish a connected series of papers on the entire course of Christian history. Though published in quick succession, they bear no marks of haste upon their pages. The present volume, with the exception of its introductory chapter on the antecedents of New England Unitarianism, is within the scope of Mr. Allen's personal recollections, and it has, on this account, a more vivid tone than it could otherwise have. The preliminary chapter is an interesting study of English Unitarianism. This was originally a defence of Christianity on the grounds of reason against the attacks of reason. It had a double character. It was a movement of reason in sympathy with the scientific spirit, and a movement of right in sympathy with the revolutionary spirit. These original characteristics have never, at any time, been wholly absent from the course of Unitarian development. The ethical element was from the first predominant: a moral interpretation must be put on every doctrine. Arriving at New England Unitarianism, Mr. Allen distinguishes a period of growth, a period of criticism, and a

period of construction. The great name of the first period is Channing, that of the second Parker, that of the third Hedge, "the ablest, deepest, and most widely cultivated intellect that the denomination has embraced." Mr. Allen's estimate of both early and later Unitarianism will hardly be considered flattering by the most orthodox critic. He is so much afraid of running into eulogy that his tone is colder and more critical than would be excusable in one writing of his own household of faith. His co-religionists will be less pleased with him than others: they will think they had a right to expect something a little more effusive. It is as if Mr. Allen had written under the immediate influence of Emerson's essay on "The Superlative." The power of understatement finds an admirable illustration in the chapters upon Channing and Parker. It may be doubted whether the characters and functions of these two men, so different in their mental and their moral make, have ever been more justly exhibited. Especially interesting is the account of Channing's relation to the anti-slavery struggle. The weakness of Unitarianism on the emotional side was made strong in Parker's tender piety.

Mr. Allen's subsequent chapters are called "A Scientific Theology," "The Religion of Humanity," and "The Gospel of Liberalism." Though he is one of the older men among the Unitarians, these chapters represent their latest tendencies. They are scientific, undogmatic, anti-supernatural. Jesus is here a purely human person; the Bible is a purely human book. The faith in God and immortality is far less concrete and tangible than that of Theodore Parker. A return upon the deepest moral convictions of the soul is Mr. Allen's confident solution of the afflicting problem of the time. He has much increased the value of his book by an appendix containing an address by Dr. Hedge upon Dr. Bellows and Mr. Emerson. In either case the characterization is marked by an admirable sincerity and simplicity. Dr. Hedge's relation to Mr. Emerson was such that no one has a better right to speak his praise. If these words could have been spoken at his funeral, as they would have been but for the writer's illness, the services on that occasion would not have been so miserably inadequate as they were felt to be by the general public.

Knocking Round the Rockies. By Ernest Ingersoll. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1882.

Mr. Ingersoll is one of the many supernumeraries who enjoyed the hospitalities of the parties of the Hayden Survey in Colorado and Wyoming, and repaid their debt directly by "writing them up," or vicariously by the votes of their friends and relations in Congress. The author belonged to the former class, and his book, as he states in his introductory chapter, is composed of material dredged up out of the deep sea of magazines and newspaper files, to which he has been a frequent contributor during past years. This fact might be apparent to the reader from a certain want of coherency in the narrative, an airiness of style, and a happy carelessness in the statement of facts which seems a necessary characteristic of most of that hastily-written literature. His book is, nevertheless, very readable and instructive, as an account of the daily life and incidents of travel of a scientific exploration in the untrodden wilds of our American Alps could hardly fail to be. The woodcuts, moreover, mostly copies of photographs of scenes analogous to, if not always identical with, those described in the text, add very considerably to its attractiveness. It is in the main an account of campaigns in Colorado in 1874, and among the Wind River Mountains of northwest Wyoming in 1877, with, by way of digression, a graphic description of the author's loss of himself in the arid region of the Rio Dolores in southwest Colorado. For the rest, Mr. Ingersoll intersperses his narrative with the usual modicum of Western stories, together with some account of the varieties of birds observed and their habits, which is intelligently done, and of the geological structure of the country, which is not. It is a pity that, having such interesting material on hand, he could not have given time to more careful editing and in part rewriting his matter, and have submitted his technical statements to the criticism of some competent geologist, rather than have rendered immortal in print such statements as that the coal of the Rocky Mountains is of Triassic age, that green granite is a kind of orthoclase, and that placer miners find lead in the black sand in their pans, and draw it out together with the iron by means of a magnet.

The Falls of Niagara. With Supplementary Chapters on the other Famous Cataracts of the World. By George W. Holley. With illustrations. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1882.

If Mr. Holley has not said the last word upon his subject, he has at least said a little of everything. History, geology, bibliography, poetry, local incident, industrial utilization—all are discussed in a pleasant manner and with such measure of fulness as his 183 pages would allow. The scientific student will still need to go to Lyell and Tyndall; the enthusiast for the sublime must find elsewhere the data upon which Lord Dufferin's scheme of an "International Park" is based; but to that large and liberal-purchasing public which is made up of bridal tourists eager to perpetuate the emotions of that interesting epoch, and of English travellers whose American journey extends from New York to Niagara and back, the volume will be an acceptable and elegant memorial. The mechanical execution of the work is irreproachable, except that the cover is symbolical almost to a fantastic degree, and that the illustrations fall short of that exquisite beauty to which the latest school of American engravers have accustomed our pampered eyes. We may fairly complain of the scanty notice paid to Sam Patch, a heroic character who has already become to most minds more legendary than William Tell. Nor do we find, in the collection of incidents of the lower river, any allusion to the Morgan tragedy, which set all New York by the ears only half a century ago. The absence of an index, too, is a fault which deprives the work of an important part of its intrinsic value.

The dedication is to the memory of two heroes—one a plain man, Joel R. Robinson, who might in early days have passed into mythology as the *genius loci*; the other, the noble Peter B. Porter, whose family has almost "owned the Falls," as a young lady member of it is said to have maintained long ago, with vivacious audacity, at an English dinner-table, and who fell at the head of his regiment at Cold Harbor.

Molinos the Quietist. By John Bigelow. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1882. 8vo, pp. 127.

Readers of 'John Inglesant' will be grateful to Mr. Bigelow for this timely study, which tells briefly and clearly who Molinos was, what he taught, and why he was silenced. This historical view does not differ materially from that of the romance; Mr. Shorthouse has laid before his readers the main truths in regard to the matter, and so just and sagacious are the comments that he places in the mouth of his hero, that Mr. Bigelow has copied them at length in an appendix to his last chapter. Another appendix contains some of the most important documents, including the bull of condemnation of Pope Innocent XI.

Two remarks are naturally suggested by this melancholy story. The first is, the sagacity and persistency with which the Church of Rome maintains its authority—its fundamental principle, that *obedience* is the first and most requisite virtue; consistency being a matter of little account. Mr. Bigelow illustrates this by the comparison he draws (p. 98) between the treatment of Molinos and that of earlier mystics who occupied essentially the same position. The second is in respect to the charges of immorality made against him, and their plausible foundation in the doctrine of Quietism. They are exactly the same that were made against the early Christians, and we suppose rest upon as good authority; the fact being that whoever rejects the established and accepted foundation of morality exposes himself to just such suspicions and charges. But Quietism was more than this: it was at bottom Antinomianism, and Antinomianism is exposed to dangers and temptations from which a mere rejection of formal religion is free. In this point of view Molinos provoked a comparison not with the early Christians, but with the Anabaptists of Luther's time.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

The Children's Christmas. James Pott.
Warner, Anna. The Light of the Morning. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 35 cents.
Wedgwood, H. Contested Etymologies in the Dictionary of the Rev. W. W. Skeat. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
When Papa Comes Home: The Story of Tip, Tap, Toe. Macmillan & Co. $1 25.
Willis, R. S. Pen and Lute. Detroit: Thorndike Nourse.
Wilson, A. Chapters on Evolution. With 250 illustrations. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2 50.
Woodberry, G. E. A History of Wood Engraving. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. $3 50.
Yeatman, Lavinia P. Edith: a Poem in Four Parts. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 11, 1883.

The Week.

THE attention of the President ought to be again directed to Mr. Frank Hatton, the First Assistant Postmaster-General, who has become editor of the *National Republican*, and is making use of the Post-office to push the circulation of that precious sheet. He has prepared a highly-commendatory lithographed puff of it, addressed to the United States postmasters, a copy of which he has sent to each Republican member of the House, asking him to sign it. His paper has steadily opposed the Star-route prosecutions, and abused the prosecuting officers, supported all the leading abuses which have brought discredit on the party, and lately announced that the Commissioners to be appointed under the Civil-Service Reform Bill would sell the offices to the candidates. A more shameless or disreputable sheet of a political kind does not exist. That it should be edited by a United States officer, and that he should be using the Post-office to canvass for it, is a great scandal. The President knows now full well what kind of persons these Post-office politicians are, and he will doubtless before long take Mr. Hatton's case in hand. The editorship is clearly as much as that officer can attend to.

General Butler, who, we see, is being put in nomination by some of his friends in Boston as the Democratic candidate for the Presidency, would do well to remember that it is not enough nowadays, as he and they possibly suppose, that a candidate should be able to carry his own State, unless it happens to be the State of New York. The relative strength of the parties just now is such that New York, with her large electoral vote, is almost certain to hold the decision in her hands, and the result of the last State election is surely sufficient warning to all whom it may concern that there is not the smallest use in coming here from any part of the country, like the wag in Macaulay's story who deceived the Brahmin with a mangey dog, and trying to persuade the voters that he is a fine sheep, fit for sacrifice to the gods. There has been for many years much talk about the corruption of New York politics, owing to the influence of the great cities on State contests in off years; but we believe there is no State in the Union which can be counted on with more certainty to stand no humbug when really important issues are at stake. It has shown this on many occasions during the past thirty years, and, if we may judge from Mr. Folger's fate, which contains an awful example, is now less prepared to stand it than ever. Any one, therefore, who supposes he can bring a shady candidate here in 1884 and whip the devil round the stump with fine phrases, will do well to inquire diligently between now and then.

The story of repudiation in Tennessee is now an old one. After long and troublesome discussions and much agitation, the State had come to an agreement with its creditors, according to which the latter were to have a little over 60 per cent. of the amount due them. But this scaling down did not yet satisfy a large portion of the Democratic party of Tennessee. At their last State Convention they repudiated the agreement, and the position taken by the Convention was endorsed by a considerable majority at the polls last November. But no new laws on the subject had been passed, so that when the interest on the reduced debt fell due the old arrangement was still in force. But when the creditors called for their interest, the State Treasurer, Mr. Polk, refused payment, on the significant ground that the people (as represented by the Democratic State Convention and the majority at the recent election) "were opposed to the money being appropriated in that way." But now it turns out that the State Treasurer saw fit to appropriate the money of the people in another way, by putting it into his own pocket. It has been discovered that he is a defaulter to the amount of at least $400,000, and both branches of the Legislature have passed a resolution authorizing the attachment of all of Mr. Polk's available assets. The repudiators of Tennessee would not pay their creditors, and there seems to be some poetic justice in the fact that, in spite of this, they got rid of their money through the very agent who refused to pay interest on the State debt because the people did not want to squander their money in that way.

The alliance of the Republicans with Mahone bids fair to bear some singularly sweet fruit. It has been reported that President Arthur, at the solicitation of General Grant, whose ideas about the qualifications necessary for judicial functions have always been very remarkable, was willing to appoint Colonel Mosby to a United States District Judgeship in Virginia, but that Mr. Mahone tried to put in his veto, and that thereupon the friendship between him and President Arthur came to a sudden end forever. All this is emphatically denied by Mr. Mahone himself, who says that his relations with the President are as cordial as they have ever been, and it is stated by persons in his confidence that if Mr. Mahone should really insist upon the appointment to the Judgeship of a man favored by him, he could have it. Upon the same authority it is stated that Mr. Mahone intends to make his power felt when the election of a new President *pro tempore* in the place of Senator Davis, whose term expires on the 4th of March, and the reorganization of the Senate as to its committees and officers come up. Mr. Mahone will then insist that only persons agreeable to him be put in the Senate offices, his principal point being that Mr. Gorham must be made Secretary of the Senate; and, in case the Republican Senators refuse to accept his terms, he threatens to throw his vote with the Democrats, and to turn the organization of the Senate over to them. If this report of Mr. Mahone's intentions is confirmed—and it does not seem at all improbable—the Republicans of the Senate will find themselves confronted by a nice alternative. The understanding is that Senator Edmunds is to succeed Mr. Davis in the chair of the Senate. The election of Mr. Edmunds to that place would meet with universal commendation. But suppose, when the time comes, that Mr. Mahone coolly informs the Republican Senators that they will have to make Mr. Gorham Secretary of the Senate, or he will defeat Mr. Edmunds and turn over the organization of the Senate to the Democrats—what then? The Republicans will have reason to remember the predictions of those who warned them that an alliance with so unscrupulous a politician as Mahone would, whatever temporary advantages it might secure, finally result in bankruptcy of character and fatal disgrace.

The public have watched with curious interest the "reform" of the tariff instituted by the Committee of Ways and Means, whose revision of the Tariff Commission report has resulted in producing decidedly the most disgraceful scheme of duties on imports that the country has yet seen. Their last effort has been a paring down of the free list. Take the case of borax as an example of their work. This article is now admitted free of duty. The Committee recommend that it be taxed ten cents per pound. Why? Because a deposit of borax has been discovered on the Pacific Coast. So it appears that the consumers of borax would have been better off by ten cents per pound if no such discovery had ever been made. So long as this deposit of borax remained mercifully hidden from view we were allowed to get our supplies at a fair price—that is, at the cost of production and transportation—but as soon as somebody finds borax within the limits of this great republic, we must all contribute our pennies to give him an increased profit in his business. This is not a solitary instance of the application of the principle which seeks to punish the nation for its possession of great natural resources—the copper tariff is perhaps the most conspicuous case of the kind—but it is the latest, the most ridiculous, the most lamentable.

The Democrats will some day wish that the opposition to the Civil-Service Reform Bill which expressed itself in the House of Representatives had not all come from the Democratic side, and that of those voting against the bill there had not been as many as forty Democrats to six Republicans and one Greenbacker, and that of those voting for the bill there had been more than 50 Democrats against 100 Republicans. In the Presidential canvass of 1884 they will feel the necessity of showing that they are, and always have been, as much in favor of civil-service reform as anybody, or rather more so. These figures are disagreeable, but it is to be hoped that in the meantime they will lose no opportunity to strengthen their case.

A review of the State legislation of the past year on the liquor question, recently made by Mr. Henry Hitchcock, of St. Louis, before the Missouri State Bar Association, contains some very suggestive and interesting facts. During the year 1881, legislation intended to restrain or prohibit the sale of liquor has taken place in six States, differing very widely in social conditions—viz., Kentucky, Mississippi, South Carolina, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Iowa. In Iowa it took the form of a constitutional amendment, absolutely prohibiting the manufacture or sale within the State of any intoxicating liquor whatever. One of the courts has, however, pronounced the amendment invalid because it was not submitted to the popular vote in proper form, and the question is still under appeal. In Kentucky, the legislation has taken the curious form of special acts prohibiting or providing for the regulation of the sale of liquor in particular counties or districts, apparently in satisfaction of the prevailing sentiment on the subject in each locality. Some of these acts, too, show that in some localities the state of opinion which once called for such legislation has changed, for they repeal the prohibitory laws now in force in these localities. In Mississippi things have taken a similar course. The sale of liquor is prohibited in fifty different towns, and within five miles thereof. One act prohibits it in all the towns of a particular county except one, and in another permits the sale of malt liquors only. Another act relieves from the operation of the law which prohibited the sale of liquor within seven miles of two specified churches, "that portion of territory lying north of Strong River and east of Pearl River." In South Carolina we find a similar series of special acts prohibiting liquor-dealing in certain localities, and one general one, providing for a local vote in any town, city, or village, on the demand of one-third of the legal voters, to decide by a majority whether there shall be "license" or "no license," but exempting domestic wine sold by the gallon from the jurisdiction of the local majority.

In Massachusetts, the existing license law has been made more stringent. In Connecticut, the question of license or no license was remitted to a majority vote at town meetings, and liquor-dealers were made punishable for selling to habitual drunkards, minors, or intoxicated persons, besides being made liable in civil damages for injuries committed by men made drunk on their premises. In Texas, the local-option law already in force was slightly amended. In Ohio, the so-called "Pond Law" endeavored to evade the constitutional prohibition of licenses, by imposing a heavy special tax on liquor-dealers, but the Supreme Court pronounced it unconstitutional. Another act closed on Sundays all "places" in which liquor was sold or exposed for sale on other days, but the difficulties of enforcing it have been found so great that it remains a dead letter. This increasing tendency to legislate about the liquor traffic in various parts of the Union may of course have several different interpretations put upon it, but there can be no doubt as to its indicating increasing public contempt and condemnation of excessive drinking, which, whatever the efficacy or inefficacy of liquor laws, must result in promoting temperance. In England the spread of popular education has already exerted a marked influence on the yield of the liquor taxes, which now constitute about forty per cent. of the revenue, or about $155,000,000.

The Dukes-Nutt homicide in Pennsylvania continues to give great comfort at the South. Most of the leading papers have gleeful editorial articles on it, as showing that the North cannot fairly reproach the South with its business and social homicides. Considering that until this occurred they had to base their *tu quoque* on the Webster murder in 1848, and the Sickles case in 1859, and the daughter-whipping case in Western New York a few years ago, and the child sacrifice by the crazy Massachusetts fanatics two or three years ago, the relief it must give is easy to understand. But it can only be temporary relief at best. It will not bear reflection among candid men at the South, who have seen whole families destroyed in their own neighborhoods by the vendetta. Moreover, there must be dozens of "difficulties" brewing in Southern towns at this moment, which will result in street and office homicides before the end of March, and wipe out all remembrance of the Dukes-Nutt affair. We say this mainly in answer to that excellent paper the Atlanta *Constitution*, which also has felt obliged to publish a Dukes-Nutt *tu quoque*, and apparently reaches the droll conclusion that one unpunished business or social homicide is as good proof of social or political demoralization as twenty or any number, and that when you say to a community, "Why have you for a century allowed your business men and farmers to shoot each other 'on sight' with impunity?" it can always close your mouth by answering, that "one gentleman lately murdered another in a scuffle in your section, and is now out on bail."

The editor of the Opelika (Ala.) *Times* makes two somewhat mournful announcements in his issue of December 22. Our readers know what terrible troubles in the way of street fighting there have been in that beautiful little town, and how they resulted in the death, among many, of "Mr. Maloney," a noted barkeeper of the place, who, according to a local eulogist, though "forced by circumstances into a profession not at all in accordance with his wishes," was, nevertheless, "a polite, obliging, courteous gentleman, a noble, affectionate friend, and an upright, honorable citizen." Anyhow Mr. Maloney is dead, and that as a polite, obliging gentleman, reluctant to keep a bar, death must have been very welcome to him, may fairly be inferred from the following excuse of the editor of the *Times*:

> "We are this week late with this issue of our paper. We have the best excuse for that of any editor or proprietor on God's green earth.
>
> "First—The printers are afraid to come to the city on account of the belligerent situation of affairs.
>
> "Second—That the printers in our office are not expected to work at night in front of windows exposed to the rabble who have been shooting upon the streets after dark.
>
> "Third—The firing into the editor's house will not intimidate him from telling the truth and expose all their dirty transactions."

After reading the above one is fully prepared for another announcement which appears in the same number:

> "Our inclination is to publish a full sheet; but our printers, who have been faithful and patient through the city troubles, wish a little recreation of a few days, so we will publish nothing but an advertising sheet next week."

No wonder the printers "need a little recreation," as the strain on their nerves must have been terrible. But if editorial and printing work in Opelika is attended with such fearful excitement, what must Mr. Maloney's last day have been at the head of one of the leading bars of the place, to which "the boys" came for refreshments, when out of ammunition or weary with shooting? No wonder the local poet says in his obituary verses:

> "He has gone from this strange world of ours,
> No more to mingle its thorns with its flowers."

A very "strange world" it was, indeed, for which Mr. Maloney mixed the drinks.

The Alabama Legislature has repealed the charter of Opelika, and given the government to a Commission and to the Sheriff, but order has not yet been restored. Since the new régime went into force there has been a terrible homicide of Mr. John Adams, "than whom," says the Memphis *Avalanche*, "no better or more widely-respected man lived in East Alabama." Mr. Adams lately had occasion, however, to chastise two brothers, bearing (for Opelika) the singular name of "the Loves," "about some trifling matter," says the Columbus (Ga.) *Times*,

> "in which Adams, no weapons being used, chastised these renowned veterans severely and drove them from the scene of conflict with his good right arm, the weapon that is good enough at all times for the brave and honorable man. Yesterday *Adams, who was intoxicated and really in a condition of helplessness*, happened to go into a house where the Loves had purposely stationed themselves, and upon the pretence that Adams had been seeking them they waited deliberately until he approached as near as they desired and shot him down in cold blood. Adams, at the time of the shooting, *was irresponsible and totally unable to harm* any one or defend himself."

It is deplorable that so well-known and widely-respected a man as Mr. Adams should have approached the Loves in a state of beastly drunkenness, as he must have been aware that his chastisement had not mended their manners or elevated their character. "The brutal story," adds the Columbus (Ga.) *Times*, "does not end here." Of course it does not. The next instalment of this one is, that the Loves had a justice of the peace named Gorman waiting near by with bail-bonds ready, who promptly admitted them to bail while Mr. Adams lay writhing in his death agony on the sidewalk. The *Times*, therefore, justly observes that "it would seem hard to say whether life is safest on the streets of Opelika or in her judicial temples." We should say, observing the situation from this distance, that it was about an even thing. Life, anyhow, is certainly not safe in Justice Gorman's "temple," as long as the Loves are hanging round the altar. "Every one," it is said, "is desirous of leaving the town." This is the true remedy for the whole trouble. Let every man put his family on his mules and leave, with his shotgun, his pistol, and his knife, and let Justice Gorman have the whole place for a "temple of justice," and play poker in it with the Loves.

Three of the Swiss Cantons which a few years ago abolished capital punishment have restored it. They find that nothing but death will deter manslayers from slaying. The old argument which one hears with such curious frequency, that hanging does not put a stop to murder, fallacious as it is, does not seem to have its fallacy brought home to some people except by trying to put a stop to murder by imprisonment for long terms. When they find that this is still further from stopping murder, the great but simple truth dawns on them, that no punishment prevents all crime, and that the object of punishment is always to diminish the amount of crime, and that if it does this it is efficacious, even if much crime is still committed. Probably the worst enemy of the opponents of capital punishment is the pardoning power. As long as Governors and Presidents can pardon, imprisonment for long terms will never have much terror for murderers, because it leaves hope still active. If those who dislike hanging are wise, they will couple with the abolition of it a constitutional prohibition of pardons for murderers, except on clear proof of innocence, or, in other words, on proof that they were wrongfully convicted.

The "Mountain Evangelist" Barnes, who has been curing people of diseases by putting a little olive oil on their foreheads, and giving them his blessing, has failed in the case of Mr. Bunting, the Superintentent of the Christian Home for Intemperate Men, in a way which is well calculated to discredit his whole system. Mr. Bunting is afflicted with rheumatism, and was somewhat sceptical about the Mountain Evangelist's miraculous power, but, nevertheless, submitted to the anointing, on receiving the Evangelist's assurance that faith on his (Mr. Bunting's) part was not necessary. He was thereupon cured of his inflammatory rheumatism, which had kept him nine weeks in bed, for he got up and walked about. But in a day or two he was down with the gout, and is now as badly off as ever. This looks as if the Mountain Evangelist was not able to cope with more than one form of disease at a time, and could not take in all the ailments included under what the doctors call a particular "diathesis." Gout and rheumatism are undoubtedly cognate diseases, and a doctor who relieves one by giving you the other is entitled to no credit. One does not need a Mountain Evangelist to do this; there are plenty of practitioners down on the plains quite equal to it. We feel warranted in assuring Mr. Barnes, too, that if there was any real virtue in his system, Talmage would long ago have resorted to it, and would by this time have made disease rather scarce along this coast.

One of the charges made by M. Léon Say in his late well-known attack on the administration of the French finances was that the recently-created village schools were, in a large number of cases, unnecessarily costly and "palatial." The subject has come up again in a debate in the Assembly over a bill requiring each commune to establish a school not only in its chief village, but in every hamlet more than three miles from it having twenty children fit to go to school. The cost of this will be $140,000,000, of which the communes are to find $60,000,000, and the State $80,000,000. The bill has been violently attacked on the ground that the Government cannot in the present state of the finances afford any such outlay; but it was explained that it would be distributed over three years, and that, whatever else might suffer, schools should be provided for. Jules Ferry, the author of the School Law, intervened in the debate to show, in answer to M. Léon Say, that the "palatial" school-houses, numbering over 19,000, which had been erected between 1870 and 1882, had not cost on an average over $2,600 each, which called forth the remark that they cost less than parsonages, and M. Ferry added that they cost much less than churches —a village church often costing $8,000. He then went on to avow that the Government had turned the local pride and ambition of the communes, which forty years ago went into church-building, in the direction of school-building, and was now bound to encourage the tendency. There will be 40,000 new school-houses erected within the next ten years under this law, which is compulsory. There can be no doubt that the effect of this educational movement, both on the generation which establishes the schools and the generation which is taught in them, will be very destructive to the influence of the clergy, and is intended so to be by the present Government. It takes no pains to conceal the fact that the movement is intended to be anti-clerical, and to substitute for whatever interest the peasantry still take in the Church an interest in the schools and school questions, both by compelling them to build schools, and to send their children to them after they are built.

What does this interest of the peasantry in the Church now amount to? It is very hard to say. How very little reliance can be placed on the observation of travellers in this matter, is shown by the great mistake made by the European press as to the effect of the crusade undertaken by the Government two years ago against the unauthorized religious orders. It was predicted almost unanimously by the English and German press that it would shock the peasants and alienate them from the Republic. If any reliance can be placed on a popular vote as an indication of popular sentiment, however, the elections which followed soon after, and gave the Republicans an overwhelming majority, showed that the country people rather enjoyed seeing the monks and nuns roughly handled or dislodged. The modified opinion of the English press now called forth by recent attempts of the Legislature to cut down ecclesiastical salaries and allowances is that, although the peasant does not go to church himself, and does not like the curé, he likes to have him kept by the state to marry him, and baptize his children, and bury him, and furnish worship for his wife and daughters on Sunday, and that no government which attempts to rob him of these privileges can stand. But it is very doubtful whether this is not as great a mistake as the other. For anything that is known to the contrary, it is not rash to say that if the Republic maintains itself during the next ten or twenty years, a gradual diversion of the ecclesiastical stipends and allowances now paid by the state from the clergy to the schoolmasters and school-houses, with hearty popular approval, is among the possibilities if not the probabilities. We have clearly, in spite of all the examination they have undergone since 1790, not yet got to the bottom of the French character and French views of life here and hereafter, as found in the country districts. Paris is pretty well known, but who really knows the French provinces?

The French are having a fresh illustration of the proverb that misfortunes do not come singly. The death of Gambetta has been followed by that of General Chanzy, so that they lose within one week the only two men who came out of the campaign against the Germans with any real credit. General Chanzy was the only soldier who had acquired or retained the popular confidence at the close of the war by services in the open field. There were one or two defenders of fortresses, now dead, whom the war gave a certain fame, but to Chanzy belonged the merit of resisting obstinately and retiring in good order to fight again. This he did on the Loire, when opposed to Prince Frederic Charles and General von der Tann, the Bavarian. Under him there were no panics or *débandades*, though the weather was frightful, his men raw levies in the main, and his supplies very deficient. He came on the scene, too, luckily for him, when the French had got so used to terrible defeats and military misconduct that they were satisfied with any general who did not despair and who did not allow his forces to be captured. If France had been involved in any European complication since 1871, General Chanzy would have had the chief command by common consent. He was the only man in high command in whom the public believed as a strategist. He leaves behind hardly anybody in whose military talents it has much confidence except the Marquis de Gallifet, and he is only a cavalry leader. So that Chanzy's death is likely to aggravate that self-distrust which, for the first time since the Hundred Years' War, seems to have become a French national trait.

The failure of the Municipal Bank of Sapozhok in Russia is not a financial event of much importance, but it is worth telegraphing, because it shows the remarkable progress made by the Russians in the art of financing. Indeed, judging by this failure, they are now abreast of the foremost nations of the world in this field of art. In some respects New Jersey cannot hold a candle to them. The Bank of Sapozhok has failed for some millions of rubles in a town of 3,000 inhabitants, and has only twenty-nine rubles in assets. Who is the cashier or president among us who can equal this? There is a courage of a very high order in leaving twenty-nine rubles in the safe. Weaker men would have left four or five hundred, or probably have only failed for one million. No wonder that European opinion inclines to the belief, after this failure, that the Russian municipal banking system is unsound. It certainly does seem as if there were some grounds for this apparently harsh view.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 3, 1883, to TUESDAY, January 9, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE House of Representatives passed the Pendleton Civil-Service Reform Bill on Thursday, without amendment, by a vote of 155 to 47. There was scarcely any debate, the bill being passed thirty minutes after the previous question was called. Six Republicans, forty Democrats, and one Greenbacker voted in the negative. The quick way in which the bill was passed caused great surprise, even in the House itself. The way in which it was done was this: Mr. Kasson was about to submit the report of the committee on the bill, and asked in behalf of the committee that the House should finish the bill that week. Mr. Cox, of New York, then rose and said that he regarded the Shipping Bill as quite as important as the Civil-Service Bill. In order to save a long discussion, therefore, and in view of the fact that the Pendleton bill had been very thoroughly discussed in the Senate, he proposed that the question be now put upon its passage without debate. This motion took the House by surprise, but was in accord with the spirit of the moment, and the bill was thereupon passed.

In the House on Thursday the Army Appropriation Bill was passed. On Friday the District of Columbia Appropriation Bill was passed. On Saturday the Shipping Bill was taken up, and Mr. Cox delivered a carefully-prepared speech in favor of free ships. The debate on the bill was continued on Monday.

In the Senate on Wednesday Mr. Logan finished his speech against the Fitz-John Porter Relief Bill. Messrs. Sewell and McPherson spoke in favor of the bill. No vote was reached. On Thursday, by unanimous consent, the West Point Appropriation Bill was taken up and passed. It was then agreed that the Porter Bill should be set down for further consideration on Thursday next, and that the vote on its passage should be taken at 2 o'clock on that day. The Bonded Whiskey Bill was then taken up and passed by a vote of 23 to 20. This is a bill to extend for two years the payment of the tax on about 85,000,000 gallons of whiskey which certain distillers have manufactured in advance of the demands of consumers. On Friday the Presidential Succession Bill was taken up, and Messrs. Hoar and Garland made speeches in favor of it. The debate on this bill was continued on Saturday and Monday. Mr. Edmunds spoke in favor of recommitting it. On Tuesday it was passed, with amendments, by a vote of 40 to 13. It provides that in case of the removal, resignation, or inability of the President and Vice-President, the succession shall lie in the Secretaries of State, Treasury, War, Attorney-General, Postmaster-General, Secretary of the Navy, Interior, respectively, until other provision can be made for filling the vacancy. There is no definition of "inability."

A communication from the Secretary of the Navy was laid before the Senate on Thursday, containing recommendations for the construction of a steel cruiser of about 4,000 tons displacement, to cost, it is estimated, $1,576,854; three steel cruisers of about 2,500 tons displacement, to cost each $1,031,225; one iron despatch-boat or fast clipper of about 1,500 tons displacement, to cost $460,000; and one cruising torpedo-boat, to cost $38,000.

The Attorney-General has rendered an opinion to the Secretary of the Treasury that Chinese laborers desiring to return to their native land from other foreign lands cannot be transported across the territory of the United States without violating the act of Congress unless the persons mentioned were in the United States on November 17, 1880, or came there within ninety days after the passage of the act. The Treasury Department will hereafter be guided by this ruling. The opinion of the Attorney-General given to the State Department on this matter is said to be exactly the reverse of the above.

Messrs. Ames, Spofford, and Baird have made a report on the public documents printed by the Government, and the haphazard manner in which they are distributed. The number of documents printed by authority of the Forty-sixth Congress reached the enormous aggregate of 2,324,254 copies; while for the first session of the present Congress the aggregate was 1,354,947 copies. The Committee were "deeply impressed with the lack of system and economy in the distribution of these documents." They found that "nearly all documents, whatever may be their cost or value, are distributed by from two to four agencies," and concluded that, "to no small extent, documents are sent in duplicate and triplicate to the same parties." They therefore repeat the recommendation, which for half-a-dozen years has been urged upon Congress, that all public documents shall be distributed through a single agency. The Committee express the opinion that the number of public documents printed may be materially diminished without detriment. It appears that, of the "usual number" (1,900 copies) of all documents, about one-half are delivered in an unbound form, "most of which are doubtless ultimately sold as waste paper."

General Butler was inaugurated Governor of Massachusetts on Thursday. There was a great crowd in attendance. His message was very long, and was received with great "applause and laughter." He objects to making the payment of the poll tax a necessary qualification for voting, considering it an abridgment of the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States, and therefore in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment of the Federal Constitution. He favors the extension of the suffrage to women, beginning with municipal elections, but proposes first to take a vote of the women to see if they want the suffrage. He attacks the militia organization and the "reformatory, correctional, and pauper institutions" of the State, and shows that the management of the latter is expensive and faulty; recommends that one-third of the paid officials of the State be dispensed with and the salaries of the remainder cut down one-half; and attacks the system of public education in Massachusetts. He thinks the teachers receive too much pay, and that too much money is devoted to teaching the higher branches and to special departments of instruction, while the rudiments of learning do not receive proper attention. He finds fault with almost everything connected with the government of the Commonwealth.

At a dinner in Boston to celebrate the anniversary of the battle of New Orleans on Monday night, Gov. B. F. Butler was presented as a Presidential candidate in 1884 by Chairman French of the Democratic State Committee, and his claims were supported by ex-Governor Sprague, of Rhode Island, and ex-Governor Plaisted, of Maine.

The Connecticut Legislature settled the black-ballot controversy on Wednesday as soon as it had met, by passing a bill making valid all illegal ballots cast, without reference to political parties, and declaring Mr. Waller and the other officers elected. Governor Waller's message recommends the passage of a law providing that no contribution of money shall be made by any candidate for office, for election purposes, and that before taking office the person elected shall make an oath that he has not violated the statute; favors civil-service reform; suggests the expediency of conferring upon women in Connecticut the same public rights that they have in New York and Massachusetts; recommends the passage of a law requiring taxpayers to report to the assessors all the property owned by them, and opposes constitutional prohibition of liquor-selling.

Governor Foster, of Ohio, in his message to the Legislature, recommends the submission to the people of a prohibition constitutional amendment. Referring to the question of taxing the liquor traffic, the Governor says: "I am clearly of the opinion that a simple law taxing the traffic at a uniform rate throughout the State, and making the premises wherein or whereupon the business is conducted liable for the tax, is clearly constitutional and will be found popular with our people, can be easily executed, and that it will act as a practical, effective, and satisfactory measure of restraint."

Governor Cullom's message was presented to the Illinois Legislature on Friday. Of 5,000 insane persons only 2,000 are provided for in State institutions. The Legislature is asked to give this fact consideration. The estimated amount necessary to be raised by taxation for State uses for the next two years is $3,681,000; for public schools, $2,000,000. He recommends legislation in the interest of permanent roads, and for the revision of the Criminal Code and Practice Acts, especially the jury law. He also recommends a constitutional amendment, giving the Executive power to veto single items in appropriation bills.

The message of the Governor of Florida shows a full treasury and an excellent financial condition, and recommends the reduction of the State tax.

The Republican members of the Michigan Legislature, to the number of fifty-seven, assembled in caucus Thursday evening to nominate a candidate for United States Senator. On the first informal ballot Senator Ferry received forty-six votes and there were ten scattering. On the formal ballot he received fifty to six scattering. The nomination was then made unanimous. Twenty-four Republicans did not attend the caucus, and declare themselves not bound by the proceedings.

On Thursday the Tennessee Legislature adopted a resolution suspending payment of the January interest on the State debt.

It was announced on Friday evening that Marshal T. Polk, State Treasurer of Tennessee, was a defaulter to the amount of about $400,000. A year ago Polk succeeded in defeating a resolution providing for an investigation into the affairs of his office. On Thursday last both branches of the Legislature appointed a committee to examine the books of the State officers. On Friday the committee reported that they had information from some of the Treasurer's bondsmen that the condition of the Treasury was such that they felt justified in recommending that the workings of the Treasury be stopped until an examination could be had. Polk left Nashville on the previous Wednesday, and on Tuesday he was arrested in Texas, near the Mexican border. His bond as Treasurer was for $100,000.

The funeral of Mr. Elisha H. Allen, late Minister from the Sandwich Islands, took place in Washington on Wednesday. The President and members of the Cabinet were present, and the Senate and House Committee on Foreign Affairs attended in a body. All of the Foreign Legations were represented.

The United States Steamer *Alaska* has been ordered to proceed to Honolulu, to be there at the time of King Kalakaua's coronation. The *Lackawanna*, now at Honolulu, will remain there, and it is expected that the *Wachusett* will be ordered there. The principal naval powers will send war ships to Honolulu. The avowed object is to pay proper courtesy, but it is understood that the real object is to protect foreign interests in case of trouble, which may arise from opposition to the extravagant arrangements for the coronation. A rumor of a possible revolution is in circulation.

On Monday a letter written by Mr. John A. Walsh, an important witness in the Star-route trial, to the President, was given to the press. The letter is in reference to the Star-route prosecutions. Mr. Walsh says he sent the letter to the President about three weeks ago, and has received no reply. He states his belief in the strength of the testimony against

Senator Kellogg, and criticises the manner in which the cases have been prosecuted.

The monthly statement of Comptroller Campbell shows that the funded debt of the city of New York on January 1, less the amount in the sinking fund for its redemption, was $96,141,948, a reduction during 1882 of $2,159,000. Stocks and bonds were issued during the year, exclusive of revenue bonds, to the amount of $4,468,000, which sum was added to the debt, making the total expenditures of the city government during the year (including the appropriations by the Board of Apportionment) $33,880,000. Of the bonds issued more than $3,000,000 were for expenditures by the Public Works Department, making the total sum used by that Department for the year 1882 reach nearly $6,000,000.

It is estimated that there are at least 10,000 looms and probably 200,000 spindles now idle in the cotton and woollen mills of Philadelphia and vicinity in consequence of the continued depression in the trade.

FOREIGN.

The funeral of Gambetta took place on Saturday, and was the greatest demonstration of the kind ever seen in France. Over 300,000 people followed the remains to their temporary resting-place at Père-la-Chaise. The whole city was draped in mourning, and business entirely suspended. At 10:30 o'clock the funeral procession started. The pall-bearers were the Ministers of the Interior and War, the President of the Chamber and Vice-President of the Senate, representatives of the electors of Belleville and of the bar of Paris, and the Mayor of Cahors, the birthplace of Gambetta. The coffin was placed on a magnificent funeral car covered with wreaths and flowers. In front of the car was a platform borne by twelve men, on which was a colossal bust of Gambetta, surrounded with flowers arranged to represent the national colors of France. Preceding this were three chariots richly decorated, carrying the crowns and garlands sent by the different cities and towns of France as offerings of respect to the memory of the dead statesman. All the military bands of Paris contributed to the music to which the solemn march was made. The procession was the largest ever seen in Paris, and when the coffin reached Père-la-Chaise some of the deputations in the rear were still waiting to leave the Palais Bourbon, from which the procession started, but perfect order was maintained and there were no serious breaks in the line. When the coffin had been placed at the entrance of the cemetery M. Devès, Minister of Justice, made a short address on behalf of the Government. He was followed by other speakers. All day Sunday and Monday great crowds visited the tomb and numerous speeches were made. The French Royalist papers of Sunday described the proceedings at the funeral as theatrical and insincere, and the extreme Radical press declared that the people were absent from the funeral. The Republican journals unanimously testify to the grave, calm, and patriotic demeanor of the populace during the funeral, and express the hope that the events of the week will produce concord among the Republicans, and that the sentiments of unity uttered in the funeral orations will last longer than the flowers on Gambetta's tomb. It has been decided that the interment shall take place at Nice, Gambetta's father having refused to allow the body to be interred at Paris. The Government has informed the father of Gambetta that if he insists upon the removal of the body to Nice, the seals placed on Gambetta's papers at Ville d'Avray will be taken off before consent is given for the removal of the body.

A despatch from Berlin says that Germany will ignore the demonstrations at Gambetta's funeral, and avoid everything likely to excite French public opinion. The *Norddeutsche Zeitung*, the organ of Prince Bismarck, deprecates exaggerated opinions concerning the effect of M. Gambetta's death. It says Germany, like France, neither desires nor fears a war.

The funeral of General Chanzy took place at Châlons on Monday. Prince Orloff, the Russian Ambassador, General Billot, Minister Fallières, Marshal MacMahon, and many other distinguished men were present. Salvoes of artillery were fired at the opening and closing of the services. Several short addresses were delivered, after which troops belonging to all branches of the service marched past the entrance of the Cathedral where the body lay.

The trial of the Anarchists was begun before the Correctional Tribunal at Lyons on Monday. The approaches to the court were guarded by troops and gendarmes. All the prisoners interrogated admitted carrying on the Socialist propaganda by speeches and writings, but denied the charge of conspiracy. They disavowed any complicity in the recent explosions in a restaurant at Montceau.

Prince Krapotkine refuses to employ counsel, and defends himself. The charge brought against him of being a contriver of Anarchist plots has been dropped, and he is being tried under a law of the Empire making Communism punishable by imprisonment for five years. There is no jury, but three judges are trying the case. The defendant is perfectly frank and defiant.

At a Cabinet Council on Thursday Señor Camacho, Spanish Minister of Finance, submitted a report in which he declared that the period of deficits had come to an end. The only change he proposed in the budget for 1883 was the suppression of all items of expenditure not indispensable.

At the Council held on Saturday to discuss the budget, with a view of reducing taxes and at the same time increasing the revenue, Señor Camacho proposed the sale of the state forest lands on the mountains, valued at $8,000,000, in order to provide funds to pay, during the term of eight years, the increased interest on the public debt, beginning in July. Señor Albareda strongly opposed the proposal, and, being unable to agree, both he and Señor Camacho tendered their resignation from the Ministry. On Sunday the Ministers met again, and, after four hours' deliberation, an agreement being impracticable, they resolved to resign in a body. The crisis was unexpected and caused a great sensation. The sittings of the Cortes were suspended during its continuance. Señor Sagasta was invited to form a new Cabinet, which he did. It is as follows: Señor Sagasta, Premier; Gen. Martinez Campos, Minister of War; Señor Guzon, Minister of the Interior; Señor Armijo, Minister of Foreign Affairs; Señor Giron, Minister of Justice; Señor Cuesto, Minister of Finance; Admiral Arias, Minister of Marine; Señor Arce, Minister of the Colonies, and Señor Gamazo, Minister of Public Works.

The floods in Europe have been increasing, and great damage to property caused. On Thursday there were 3,000 persons reported homeless at Ludwigshafen, 2,000 at Manheim, and 2,000 at Worms. On Friday a Berlin despatch said that the inundations were taking the form of a great public catastrophe, and the distress was increasing hourly, although the military and civil authorities were making the greatest efforts to alleviate the suffering. In France the rivers Saône and Doube inundated several villages. Dikes and dams on the large rivers in Germany and Austria were washed away, and railroad communication stopped. On Friday the Rhine and its tributaries began to fall. In the Reichstag, on Tuesday, Prince Bismarck announced that the Emperor had granted $150,000 out of the Imperial Treasury as relief for the sufferers by the flood. Its distribution was immediately provided for. A house-to-house collection is to be started throughout the Empire. The Prussian Government has granted £25,000, and the Government of Hesse has given the same amount. The subscriptions in Prussia have reached £175,000, and large sums are arriving from England and America.

The Frankfort *Gazette*, on receipt of 33,000 marks from New York, says: "These gifts furnish a fresh and happy proof that the Germans who have found a new home in America are not lost to the old Fatherland, but have ever warm and active sympathy in Germany's fortunes and also in her mishaps."

It is officially announced that Mr. Gladstone's medical adviser reports that he is suffering from overwork and needs rest. He has, therefore, abandoned his proposed visit to Midlothian.

Delaney was found guilty on Wednesday of conspiracy to murder Judge Lawson, and was sentenced to ten years' penal servitude. A number of outrages have been reported from Ireland during the week. A priest in Donegal telegraphed to the London *Daily News* on Thursday that he had accompanied Mr. Trevelyan on a tour of inspection in the parish of Glencolumbkill, and that they visited twenty families and found not a morsel of food in any house. Returns from Carrick-on-Shannon show that a larger number of farmers, with holdings of from one to twenty acres, are absolutely without stock or food. The Chief Commissioner of the Dublin Police has resigned. Mr. Leamy, member of Parliament for Waterford, and Mr. O'Brien, editor of the *United Ireland*, who is the Nationalist candidate for the seat in the House of Commons for Mallow, addressed a large meeting of the Mallow electors on Saturday. A letter from Archbishop Croke was read at the meeting endorsing the candidature of the "fearless and uncompromising editor of the *United Ireland*." A despatch from Dublin on Saturday said that at a private inquiry held at Dublin Castle the authorities obtained most important information, as a result of which there would be at least four prosecutions for perjury.

The Dublin *Freeman's Journal* says that the applications under the Arrears Act, the time for receiving which terminated at the end of December, affect 130,000 holdings, and that if they were all granted it would involve the payment of £800,000 by the state to the landlords.

At a meeting of the Committee of the Irish National League on Wednesday it was announced that £300 had been received since the last meeting, and that 100 new branches of the League had been formed. The total of the receipts since the formation of the League is £1,200. The total number of branches of the League is 300. The receipts reported to-day include £50 from the New Zealand branch.

The returns issued by the Board of Trade show that during the month of December British imports increased by £2,100,000, as compared with the same month last year, while the exports for the same month show a decrease of £2,000,000.

The Inman Line steamer *City of Brussels*, which sailed from New York on December 28, was run down in the English Channel on Sunday morning, near Liverpool, by the *Kirby Hall*, from Glasgow. A dense fog prevailed. The bow of the *Kirby Hall* struck the starboard bow of the *City of Brussels* with great force, cutting her down to the water's edge and almost half through. About twenty minutes after the collision the *City of Brussels* sank. All the passengers but two, who were steerage passengers, were saved. Eight of the crew were lost, including Second Officer Young. All accounts bear testimony to the coolness and courage of the captain and crew.

The members of the American expedition sent to the Cape of Good Hope to take observations of the transit of Venus have arrived at Plymouth, England, on their way to the United States. They report that they obtained two good observations of the internal contact, and took 236 photographs, over 200 of which can be measured.

The body of John Howard Payne, author of "Home, Sweet Home," was shipped from Tunis for the United States on Friday.

"THIS PARTICULAR MEASURE" PASSED AT LAST.

THE passage of the Pendleton Bill in both houses is, all things considered, one of the most remarkable phenomena of recent times. Even six months ago we presume there were few if any in the United States who thought such a result possible for years to come, if ever. It is due, as we remarked some weeks ago, it must be confessed, only partly to the friends of reform. The friends of the abuse have contributed to it largely by their defiant attitude, and by the apparently Providential blindness with which they furnished the reformers with illustrations and proofs. In our day simple preaching is rarely sufficient to move large masses of men unless accompanied by striking examples, and these examples the spoilsmen during the past year have supplied, with a profusion and recklessness never before witnessed. Part, and a large part, of Thursday's triumph is, therefore, due to Mr. Hubbell and the Republican Congressional Committee.

Some people will probably be surprised that the Bill should have been passed in the House, where it was supposed it would meet with most opposition, almost without discussion. But there is really nothing surprising about it. In the first place it must be remembered that the opponents of civil-service reform have never debated the matter at all. In Congress they have always treated it with contemptuous silence. At conventions they got rid of it by commending it in the platform in vague generalities. In speeches and newspaper articles they disposed of it by ridiculing its advocates as "theorists," "doctrinaires," or "millennarians," and by calling it "foolishness," "snivel," "craze," and "monarchical," and showing that, owing to certain peculiarities of human nature which they never described minutely, governmental administration could not be improved or made in any respect different from what it is in this country. In other countries—England, France, or Germany—it might, but not in this. We could improve everything else—elections, legislators, legislation, railroads, canals, life-insurance, houses, agriculture and manufactures, food, clothing, schools, courts of law, and churches, the Army, the Navy, and the Merchant Marine, but not our civil service. By some mysterious dispensation of Providence, Americans had in one century reached the limit of the possible in the matter of the proper conduct of public business.

In the second place, the friends of the spoils system, even if disposed to discuss, had really no argument on the merits of the case which would bear presentation. What the reformers asked could only be denied by appeals to motives and passions so base that even the lowest demagogues did not like to make such appeals often. For what the reformers asked for was simply that the business of the Government should be conducted on the principles and through the instrumentalities on which the business of private individuals has been conducted in all civilized countries since they became civilized. They asked, in short, that the American people should, in the conduct of its affairs, reward and promote merit, recognize the value of experience, show respect for honesty and diligence, and refuse to allow any man to justify negligence or ignorance in the discharge of his duty by pleading industry and capacity in something else. It is by attention to these things that the race progresses in the arts and in morality. If American citizens disregarded them in their private affairs, the nation would go back to savagery. Nobody can, therefore, argue against them, though he may deride or misrepresent them.

If it be asked what is the use of referring to the unpleasant side of the agitation now that the triumph of the reform is assured, we answer that it is not quite assured; that large numbers of Congressmen undoubtedly voted for the bill under the influence of the terror inspired by the late election; and that large numbers of politicians have acquiesced in its passage simply because they hope to see it share the fate of the law of 1853 instituting pass examinations, and become a farce or a dead letter in actual practice. It will therefore be the duty of the friends of the measure to see that it is faithfully executed, without evasion, perversion, or negligence. It must be watched over until it has become imbedded in our political habits, and the old race of politicians who were bred in the spoils system has been thinned out by death and retirement. President Arthur, we have no doubt, will do his part in carrying it out, but he has little more than two years to serve. His successor may be a man who will see in it nothing but a Republican device to cheat Democrats of their well-earned rewards, or a weak man ill able to resist the pressure of old friends and patrons. In either case constant vigilance will be necessary, until all trace of the notion that the public offices are "spoils" or prey has disappeared from the public mind.

The bill is the first retreating step on the downward road on which our administration entered when in 1820 the term of certain offices was limited to four years. That was a turning-point in our administrative history. The rapid growth of the Government business had by that time begun to reveal defects and shortcomings in the simple system which during the first forty years had sufficed for its transaction. What was then called for was improved organization, increased checks, and more elaborate and stringent discipline. What was done was to prepare the principal offices to become stakes in the new game of "politics," which was at that time invented, and which, after being brought to greater and greater perfection, finally produced the bosses, the packed conventions, and the assessments, and the rest of the system against which the people has at last revolted. We have in truth begun a process which ought to have been begun just sixty years ago. But it is only begun, and must be watched to completion.

It is reported from Washington that the passage of the bill excites great interest in the Government departments. The heads of bureaus and divisions are very glad to be relieved of the pressure brought to bear upon them in behalf of political or personal favorites by members of Congress, but they almost unanimously condemn that provision of the bill which makes promotion dependent upon competitive examination. Their reason is that no outside commission could know, or could ascertain by any kind of examination, the ability and fitness of a candidate for promotion as well as the head of the division in which he has served. This objection is in many cases well founded. A competitive examination of the ordinary sort may not always furnish as trustworthy a means to bring out the merits of a candidate for promotion as the experience and judgment of his immediate superior, who, during a considerable period of time, has watched his performances. If, therefore, that judgment could be depended upon to be entirely unbiassed by favoritism or outside influence, it would be decidedly preferable to competitive examination.

But can it be so depended upon? In this respect we might appeal to the experience of the heads of bureaus and divisions themselves. They may be sincerely desirous of grading the clerks who work under them strictly according to merit, and of recommending only those for promotion who are the most deserving. But have they always been permitted to carry out that desire? Have they not, when promotions were to be made, frequently been set upon by members of Congress or other influential politicians with the most urgent requests, if not absolute demands, that this or that man, whatever his working record, should be promoted because he had done good service for the party, or because he belonged to an influential family? And have not promotions been frequently ordered because it was thought necessary to oblige such and such an influential member of Congress? And would not the faithful bureau chief or head of a division have been very glad to entrench himself behind some civil-service regulation making promotion dependent upon some test of merit, and thus enabling him to repel the urgency of the powerful politician with the authority of the law? Would he not, too, have been thankful for having some such shield as an obligatory competitive examination for his own protection? It is scarcely necessary to add that there have been chiefs of bureaus and of divisions of a different way of thinking—men who rather delighted in using their power for purposes of favoritism and to make themselves strong with persons of influence by doing their bidding, and who certainly ought to be restrained by some imperative regulation.

There is no doubt that as long as any chance for favoritism in making appointments and promotions exists, and as long as the traditional habit of seeking office through political influence and of bestowing office as a political reward or bribe survives, candidates for promotion will first think of going to their "influence" to get recommendations, and the "influence" will come to the chief of the department to demand the promotion of the favorite for reasons with which the interest of the service has nothing to do. A barrier must therefore be built up for the protection of the service to exclude political influence and favoritism, and that barrier must be maintained until our political habits are so changed that influence and pressure in the matter of appointments and promotions are no longer to be feared. This will

require some time. Perhaps the present generation of political managers and Congressional spoils-brokers will first have to drop out. They will, however, drop out quickly if the spirit of the reform bill passed last week leavens our politics as it should.

When that point is reached, chiefs of bureaus and divisions may be intrusted with much more direct influence in the matter of promotions than the competitive system leaves to them. But in the meantime wisdom may be gathered by experience, and methods may be discovered to identify the competitive examination with the record of merit. In some branches of the service, where there is great sameness in the character of the work, as, for instance, in the Pension Office, the comparative efficiency of clerks may be ascertained with almost mathematical certainty, and promotions may be made according to the periodic record of performance, which is, in fact, the most trustworthy kind of competition. It was so under the last Administration, and, we understand, a similar rule has been tried under this. It will rest with the Civil-Service Commission to adapt the system in this respect to the peculiar requirements of the service in its various branches, and some experimenting may be desirable. But there is no doubt the establishment of some competitive test as to promotions, which will exclude favoritism of every kind, is at present indispensable for the protection of the very bureau and division chiefs who think that the competitive system is not as trustworthy as their own discretion would be.

REPUDIATION AND DEFALCATION.

Some of the Republican Congressmen who were interviewed by the *Herald* on Saturday have been tracing a connection between the repudiation agitation of the last six or seven years in Tennessee and the late defalcation of Mr. Polk, the State Treasurer. It is of course impossible to prove any such connection, but there is abundant reason for believing it highly probable. The defalcation and flight of an officer so highly placed as a State Treasurer are happily of rare occurrence. In fact, we can recall no case in which one of similar rank has stolen the funds committed to his care, except during the Tweed régime in this city and the carpet-bag rule at the South. South Carolina suffered in a similar way from the Moses-Scott-Parker gang. But it must be admitted that the management of State and city finances at the South by the native whites has on the whole been very honest. Before the war it was extremely good. Since the war, what with poverty and the feeling that the obligations contracted by the carpet-bag governments were not morally binding on the taxpayers, there has been considerable relaxation of the old spirit of integrity in the administration of the public finances

In no State, however, has this gone so far as in Tennessee. Virginia follows close behind; but in Virginia the scaling or readjusting movement is largely the work of black Republicans, combined with Democratic converts like Mahone, who are hungry for a share in Federal patronage, or, as they call it, "have their faces turned toward the morning." In Tennessee, on the other hand, the Readjusters are mainly pure white Democrats, who care nothing about "the morning." Moreover, their State is one of the richest in the Union. Unlike Virginia, it has an unexhausted soil, a growing population, and immense resources in coal and iron. There is no reason, moral or material, which will bear examination for a moment, why the State should not pay its debts precisely as the holders of its bonds originally expected them to be paid. Still less reason is there why the State should not pay in accordance with some one of its later readjustments. The peculiarity of its dealings with its creditors has been, however, that thus far they have found it impossible to get any compromise into which they were forced carried out. No sooner have they agreed to it than they have found that the debtor wanted something more favorable. In fact, we doubt if there is anything in financial history more shameful than the negotiations of this great State with the holders of its obligations, largely issued in return for money which has been used to make railroads.

Now, it is not possible for the discussions attending these negotiations to go on in a civilized State for several years without sapping the moral sense of everybody engaged in them. When a whole community goes to work to find reasons for not paying debts which no power on earth can force it to pay unless it pleases, and which it is quite able to pay if it chooses, it is sure to inflict considerable damage on many of the scruples by which good faith between man and man in the ordinary transactions of life is supported. Such discussions are apt to be like the arguments which the *Lord Chancellor* addresses to himself in Gilbert's opera, "Iolanthe," in order to convince himself that he is a proper person to marry one of the wards of his court. The creditor is sure to get the worst of it, no matter from what point of view the debtor looks at the debt. The doctrine, too, that a debt ought not to be paid, if it is disagreeable or inconvenient to the debtor to pay it—on which the whole case of the Tennesseean Readjusters rests—cannot be preached very long about the public obligations without spreading abroad the notion that it is not wholly inapplicable to private obligations also. A State bondholder cannot be painted for years at a time as an extortioner simply because he has lent his savings, confiding in the promises of the Legislature, without some of the odium overtaking people who lend money to individuals, confiding in *their* promises.

Treasurer Polk began taking the public money during one of the intervals passed by the Government in backing out of one of the State bargains with the bondholders. The reason why he had so much money in his hands was that the State majority had ordered a new experiment in repudiation. During all this time he was surrounded by an atmosphere of dishonesty, and quibble, and evasion, and was daily listening to arguments which shook the very foundations of social morality. So that it is not at all improbable that the excuse that he is said to have finally made for not promptly paying the coupons—"that the people did not wish the money to be appropriated in that way"—had really a strong lodgment in his own mind, and helped to overcome his scruples about appropriating it to his own use. The people had at the polls directed another breach of faith with the State creditors, and the only reason why it had not been carried out was that the Legislature had neglected to provide for it by a statute. Under these circumstances Polk probably worked himself into the belief that he was just as much, or nearly as much, entitled to it as the bondholders. He lent, it is said, a considerable amount to private friends, who, we may be sure, are to a man in favor of the frequent "readjustment" if not total repudiation of the public debt.

THE PERJURY SCARE.

Some attention has been attracted in England to the question whether the crime of perjury is on the increase, by the evidence given in the trial of a lawyer named Levy, who seems to have carried on a regular business in subornation. The case shows that testimony of a certain sort can be had in London very easily and very cheaply. Levy appears to have been able to get all the witnesses he wanted for about $5 if the case was won, and half as much if it was lost. This, at least, was the rate where testimony was wanted on the subject of a "cart accident"—*i. e.*, where damages are claimed for injury caused by negligence in driving. On the trial, too, all the witnesses confessed the facts, and admitted that their evidence was a "pack of lies." They were regularly "coached" to stand cross-examination, and seem to have regarded their employment in the light of an ordinary business transaction.

According to the London *Spectator*, these revelations are very "depressing," because "such cases are, in the opinion of experienced men, growing frightfully frequent." No statistics are to be had on the subject, but there is said to be "a distinct falling off in the old awe of the witness-box," which is attributed by "experienced men" to the decay of the "old fear of hell," and to the discovery by the lower classes that punishment for perjury is rare and difficult. The matter is of just as much interest in New York as in London. The same causes are in operation. There is the same decay of the fear of hell, the same infrequency in the punishment of perjury, and the same belief that perjured evidence plays an important and increasing part in the courts in deciding cases.

As to the remedy, the *Spectator* says that the only thing to do is "to simplify and strengthen the law against perjury," but admits that it does not know precisely how this ought to be done. It suggests making the punishment more certain by punishing "deliberate lying" in court by summary process before a magistrate—*i. e.*, depriving the accused of the right to trial by jury. We are precluded from trying any such experiment here by the fact that the criminal has a constitutional right to jury-trial, and we fancy that it will be a very long time before an English magis-

trate is invested with a power so easily liable to abuse as the right to punish summarily for telling lies. Lying, it must be remembered, is always done with the intent to deceive, and therefore the discrimination of a "deliberate" from an ordinary lie would be a matter of nicety. The late Mr. Greeley used to speak of "lying knowingly, wilfully, and with naked intent to deceive," and this seemed, on first hearing of it, like a horrible kind of falsehood; yet, on examination, it turned out to be simply lying. A lie, of course, may be more or less deliberate—*i. e.*, the amount of premeditation may be different in different cases—but a lie which is cooked up on the spur of the moment may be just as dangerous to society as a lie which has been thought over for a month.

If it were really a fact that perjury is spreading all over the world, and that there were no adequate means of preventing it by law, it would be a very serious matter. There are, however, one or two points of a reassuring nature connected with the subject which in most discussions of it are overlooked. That the decline in the "dread of hell" has much to do in promoting perjury we very much doubt. The argument is, of course, that in an "age of faith" the witness has before him both the dread of hell and the dread of the penitentiary; in such an age as ours, more and more witnesses have only the penitentiary. Consequently, a strong inducement to tell the truth is wanting. The absence of statistics as to whether the modern perjurer is or is not a believer in hell, makes it dangerous to be dogmatic about him; but we are inclined to think that few lawyers who are in the habit of trying "accident cases" would say that the class of witnesses that they most dread are agnostics. The testimony in these cases—and it is in them that we most often hear of perjury as spreading—is of what may be called a very casual kind, and we fancy this is the reason why they always have and always will offer a tempting field to the perjurer and suborner. An accident collects a chance crowd, and causes excitement and confusion, in which every one's attention is riveted upon what is taking place rather than upon what his neighbor is doing; and if a man is willing to swear that he saw the whole thing from near-by, and is tolerably well "coached" in his story, it is the most difficult thing in the world to disprove the truth of what he says. Consequently such cases are the suborner's and perjurer's opportunity. Now, we cannot prove, though we believe it to be the case, that the class of witnesses used for this purpose is in the main ignorant and superstitious, and, in fact, just that class among which fears of all kinds are most rife; but certainly, if perjury were spreading as the fear of hell declines, we should expect to find the same phenomenon displayed in at least as marked a way in a higher class. But we do not hear of the spread of perjury displaying itself in commercial litigation, or in will cases, or among witnesses belonging to the learned professions or possessing a college education. In criminal cases there is always believed to be a great deal of perjury, but here again the witnesses who get up "alibis" and other devices for saving their friends from justice represent a part of the community on which religion and superstition commonly have a good deal of hold.

Of course, it may be said that enlightened people do not commit perjury because, though they may not believe in hell fire, enlightenment brings into play other considerations—such as a sense of honor, public spirit, and so on—which among the unenlightened do not count for so much. But this only shows how cautious we should be in jumping at the conclusion that there is a "spread" of perjury for which we need new laws, merely because the belief in hell is not what it was. And did the belief in hell ever prevent perjury? How much efficacy a belief in fire and brimstone had we cannot now tell; but, we must remember, there were ways of expiating the most deadly sins which the Church always held out to the repentant, and the fact that there was a chance of repentance and salvation from hell open must have always given a hard-pressed witness a comfortable feeling about the consequences of a deliberate lie. The dread of hell was no doubt a deterrent; but the fact that you might be saved from hell through a mercy which you could always count upon if you sincerely repented, must have prevented it from being the powerful deterrent it is often now represented.

It must be remembered, too, that if the decline in the belief in hell is causing a spread of perjury, it must be causing a spread of crime generally. Hell-fire was used to prevent people not only from perjuring themselves, but from murdering, robbing, embezzling, and, in fact, from wickedness generally, and if the decay in the belief in it causes an increase in one crime, it ought to do so in all, and if we need a revision of the laws as to one, we must need a revision as to all. If punishment for crime were based on the expectation that the criminal would have before his eyes a penalty in another world, plus that provided by the Legislature, clearly any decline in a belief in future punishments ought to be accompanied by a thorough overhauling of the criminal code. But this is a view of the subject which is, we believe, seldom advanced.

RECENT MINISTERIAL CHANGES.

LONDON, December 20.

THE changes in Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet which were so long expected have come at last. They are not yet completed, but two important results have been made known—the resignation by Mr. Gladstone himself of one office, and the admission of Lord Derby to another.

Since the formation of his Government in April, 1880, Mr. Gladstone has, in addition to the post of First Lord of the Treasury, which we call in common speech that of Prime Minister, held the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer, although this is practically the Ministry of Finance, and therefore one of the most important places in our administration. It is, owing to departmental arrangements, not necessarily a place of great labor, and thus Mr. Gladstone, whose powers of work have seemed scarcely affected by his age, was able to discharge its duties in addition to those of chief of the Ministry and leader of the House of Commons. For some time past, however, it was understood that he desired to hand it over to some one who could devote more undivided attention to it, and therefore make more of it. Mr. Childers was recommended as his successor by two opposite reasons. The first was his long administrative experience and familiarity with financial matters—an experience which began in one of our Australian colonies, where he was Chancellor of the Exchequer before he ever thought of embarking in English politics. Mr. Gladstone is well known to entertain a high opinion of his practical talents, and has always selected him for the most responsible posts. His other claim arises from the exertions he made as Secretary of the War Department in organizing the Egyptian expedition—exertions which largely contributed to its success, but told heavily on his health. A month ago he was obliged to leave London and seek rest at the seaside. This misfortune, encountered in the public service, gave him a fair claim to some lighter work than that of the War Office, and accordingly he takes the Chancellorship of the Exchequer. The main political significance of the change seems to lie in this, that it discountenances the rumor that extensive alterations in our financial system are at hand. It was supposed, from hints thrown out by Mr. Gladstone, that the Succession Duties, particularly as they affect land, would be rearranged, and the revenue so much increased thereby that other taxes might be remitted. Some even hoped that Mr. Gladstone might resume his old plans of extinguishing the income tax, although the cost of the Afghan and South African wars of the late Government, followed by that of the Egyptian expedition, had thrown back the hopes of a great surplus, while the ordinary public expenditure shows an irresistible tendency to grow. If any such extensive financial reforms were in contemplation, Mr. Gladstone himself, with his unrivalled gifts of combination and exposition, would, no doubt, have been the person to frame and to state them, and he would have retained the Exchequer until he had done so. It may, therefore, be assumed, especially considering the state of Mr. Childers's health, that we shall have quiet and unambitious finance for some little time to come.

The appointment of Mr. Childers left the War Office vacant, and it has been delivered to Lord Hartington, hitherto Secretary for India. Thus the Indian Secretaryship had to be allotted. It was given to Lord Kimberley, hitherto Secretary for the Colonies, while the Colonial Office, in its turn left vacant, has been filled up by the appointment of Lord Derby. The total result, therefore, of all these shiftings is that Mr. Childers, Lord Hartington, and Lord Kimberley, all of them old Ministers, have got new offices, while Lord Derby comes in from outside to join the Ministry. It was at first expected, and indeed had apparently been arranged, that he should be Secretary for India. He had filled this great post once before in the Ministry of his father, the late Lord Derby, and was believed to like it. But some obstacle was discovered, and, instead of his succeeding Lord Hartington, he went to the Colonies, while Lord Kimberley took the India Office. What this obstacle was is at present matter for gossip and conjecture. Some say that he cannot take India because he was a member of the Beaconsfield Ministry when it had serious difficulties with Russia over Afghan affairs; others, because he is supposed to be too pronouncedly non-annexationist in India; others, because he has recently expressed opinions unfavorable to an English protectorate of Egypt. Probably the true reason is something quite different, and may have come out before these lines reach you.

He is the only statesman in the front rank who has of late years changed his colors from Tory to Liberal. For a long time before his resignation of the Foreign Office in 1878, he had been a member, and an important member, of every Tory Government, first under his father, then under Mr. Disraeli. Now he is a Secretary

of State in a Liberal, and some would say a Radical, Government. Yet he incurs, and has incurred since he first avowed himself a Whig in 1880, very few of those reproaches which are usually levelled at a politician who changes sides. This is certainly owing to no gentleness in our Conservative press, nor to any tenderness for him individually. Its cause seems to lie in the fact that he was all along, even when a Tory Minister, understood to be quite as much a Whig as a Tory in his sentiments. Having been brought out in the political world by his father, the leader of the Tory party, he served as an officer in its ranks, and no one blamed him for doing so, since he never had the air of saying what he did not believe and could not honestly say. There is a kind of Conservatism which does not substantially differ from a kind of Liberalism; and, just as there are Liberals who might as fairly be called progressive and unprejudiced Conservatives, so there are Tories who might be called cautious and moderate Whigs. Such an one was Lord Derby. He was quite free from the passion and prejudice which mark one type of Toryism, as the reckless thirst for change marks one type of Radicalism. People often predicted that he would some day be found in the Liberal ranks, and some even sought to make him the head of a middle party—a coalition which was to draw in Sir Stafford Northcote and Mr. W. H. Smith from the Tory side, Lord Hartington, Lord Granville, and Mr. Goschen from the Liberal. However, Lord Derby might never have quitted the allies of his youth but for the warlike line which Lord Beaconsfield took up in 1878, when Russia had overpowered Turkey and was supposed (in England) to be on the eve of seizing Constantinople. Lord Derby did all in his power to check what he regarded (and what, as the event showed, the majority of the English people regarded) as a dangerous policy. He became, therefore, an object of aversion to the hotter spirits among the Tories, who intrigued and manœuvred to get him out of office and so take the drag off the coach-wheel. Their object was attained by his resignation in March, 1878, and the sense that he was then intrigued against and otherwise not quite fairly treated by members of his own party has contributed to justify, in the eyes of the world, his subsequent conduct in quitting his former standard and in now taking office under Mr. Gladstone. No one accuses him of any unworthy motive; it would, indeed, be the more absurd to do so since he would have been quite as prominent and powerful a personage in the Tory camp as he now will be in the Liberal.

His accession to the Government is regarded as an important event, for he unites four considerable sources of influence—rank, wealth, ability, experience. He obtained office when still very young, was immediately found equal to its responsibilities, and has ever since had a post, and a great one, when the Tories have been in power. He has thus a large knowledge of the methods of public business and the matters it is concerned with, as well as of the personnel of our political world. His talents are not brilliant, but they are everything else—they are as great as any talents can be which it is impossible to describe by that name. He is industrious, careful, penetrating; he gets to the bottom of every question, he faces every difficulty; he can carry a large mass of facts in his mind, dispose them in their proper order, draw the reasonable and natural conclusions from them. So cool and fair a judgment is probably not to be found in any other of our public men. Its only fault is, that coolness passes into coldness. Carefully removing sentimental considerations from his own mind, he is apt to underestimate their influence on others, and to treat men a little too purely as reasoning and reasonable beings who will obey the promptings of an enlightened self-interest. To the oratorical gifts and graces of his father he makes no claim; yet he is a weighty and effective speaker—effective by the very plainness of the form into which he puts his thoughts, without imagination, without passion, without wit, without even fluency, but perfectly lucid, perfectly candid, perfectly rational. Some one has said that common sense rises in him to genius; and, indeed, as stated by him it has much the same influence. He never says a foolish thing; and, when you have listened to a speech from him, you feel as if nothing more that was worth saying remained to be said upon the subject. Such a man does not excite the enthusiasm of the masses. He is not what you call "magnetic," either toward individuals or toward bodies of men. But he acquires the confidence of the sober and quiet people, who think he will not ever go far astray, and feel safe while they are in his company. And he is prized as a colleague, not only on account of his administrative capacity and this confidence which he inspires, but because he is so valuable a critic. Any measure, any line of policy, which can stand the touchstone of his criticism, may be safely launched into the world. Nor is it superfluous to add that his public life has been, in spite of this change in his political allegiance, straightforward and consistent, with no concealments or tergiversations such as may be charged on some others of our leading politicians. The defect which his censors find in him is one that naturally springs from a carefully-balanced judgment and an unemotional nature. It is a tendency to hesitation, to compromise, to take middle courses even when they are not logical, but merely postpone a decision. It would occupy too long to examine the course of his policy as Foreign Minister, on which this criticism bases itself; but the criticism deserves to be mentioned as the side on which he has been attacked both by strong Conservatives and by strong Liberals.

Most people seem now agreed in thinking that Mr. Gladstone has got in him a valuable ally, whose adhesion will add stability to the Government. The Tories regret him, because he exercised great influence over moderate and moneyed men, people who like to think that nothing unexpected, nothing sensational, will be attempted either at home or abroad. Such people, who are mostly Conservatives practically, if not nominally, had never the same confidence in Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry after Lord Derby left it. On the other hand, both wings of the Liberal party welcome him. The moderate Liberals regard him as an ally against Radicalism, a champion of the rights of property, an opponent of all sweeping legislation. They think he will be a powerful countervailing influence in the Cabinet to Mr. Chamberlain, who is at present the *bête noire* of "moderate men"; they expect henceforth steady, quiet, solid, humdrum legislation, which they need not fear as they have feared the example of Mr. Gladstone's Irish Church and Irish Land Acts. They conceive that if Lord Derby had supposed Mr. Gladstone likely to adopt revolutionary courses, he would not have joined him; and that having joined, he will, if necessary, hold him back. All these forecasts, if they be well founded, ought to make the other, the advanced wing of the Liberal party, rather cold in their welcome. They desire those things which the moderates look to Lord Derby to prevent. But they seem on the whole very little alarmed. Some of them, being strong non-interventionists, and anti-annexationists, are pleased to have in Lord Derby a recruit whose opinions are thoroughly sound on these points; who, in particular, desires that we should clear out of Egypt as soon as possible, and leave the country to itself "whenever the Khedive can stand alone." The question of Egypt being that which for the moment most presses on us, and on which Mr. Gladstone is conjectured to have not come to a positive conclusion, Lord Derby's view upon it has no doubt a special importance, and all the more from his having previously held the seals of the Foreign Office. Besides this, however, the Radicals have so much faith in Mr. Gladstone and his control of his own Cabinet that they do not much care who comes in or who goes out. The Prime Minister is sound, and the Prime Minister is the Government. If he thinks a large measure of local self-government for Ireland desirable, or a comprehensive reform of the English land-laws, or a bold redistribution of seats, we shall (they hold) have these measures whether or not Lord Derby feels inclined to throw cold water on them. Feeling this assurance, they do not fear Lord Derby's Whiggishness, and they are glad to have a well-known and powerful name, a voice to which the country listens, on their side.

There is, however, another view perceptible among the Liberals. Some of the more advanced men regard his admission to the Cabinet with disquietude. They insist that Mr. Gladstone will not, and indeed cannot, remain very long in power. He is seventy-three years of age; he has intimated that his time of active political work is nearly over. When he goes, the Cabinet will no longer be the same thing. The moderate and the advanced element in it may possibly struggle for supremacy. In such a struggle Lord Derby would be a strong force on the moderate side, and might give a direction to the Ministerial policy which the Radicals could not approve. Hitherto, though he has been influential in the country, he has had no claim to the deference of the Liberal party. Once a Liberal Minister, he will have acquired such a claim; and when questions arise which divide the party, his weight will be cast into the moderate scale, and perhaps carry with it Liberals who might otherwise have followed leaders of a bolder temper. These critics, therefore, insist that some politician of a radical type should be taken into the Cabinet to counterbalance Lord Derby, and name Sir Charles Dilke as the right man. Even apart from Lord Derby's admission, it has been understood for some time past that Sir Charles will soon receive a Cabinet office, and every one agrees that the ability and diligence he has shown as Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs more than justify such a promotion. But it has not yet been announced what particular post he is to receive. Y.

ANOTHER VIEW OF LORD DERBY.

LONDON, December 21, 1882.

LORD DERBY'S entrance into the Ministry is an event deserving notice. It suggests two questions. The one is of immediate, though transitory, interest; the other involves considerations of lasting political importance.

First. Will Lord Derby's accession to office strengthen the Cabinet?

All the best authorities—men who agree in nothing else, such as the editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette* and the editor of the *St. James's Gazette*—concur in answering this inquiry with an unhesitating affirmative. It was not till to-day, or at earliest three or four days ago, that I saw any signs, in the articles of the daily press or in the speeches of politicians, of any doubt whatever that his Lordship's admission to the Government was an unmixed gain to the Liberal party. Yet those who are sceptical as to the gain to Liberalism from a close alliance with the

recent convert from Conservatism, may urge strong, not to say cogent, reasons in support of their scepticism. Did I venture to trust my own judgment in opposition to the authoritative deliverances of men who are far better qualified than I am to form an opinion on the politics of the day, I should with little hesitation express my conviction that Lord Derby would in any event add little to, and might under conceivable circumstances detract a good deal from, the weight, the influence, and the power of the Government which he has joined, and of the party to whose opinions he has now for the first time avowedly subscribed. My reasons for this opinion may be easily made clear to your readers.

A statesman who joins a government which he has long opposed can be of service to his new allies in three ways, and in three ways only: He may conciliate the opponents of the Ministry; he may add new heart to the flagging zeal of the Ministry's supporters; he may bring to the deliberations of his colleagues a vast stock of political wisdom, of administrative skill, or of statesmanlike boldness. In which of these ways will Lord Derby strengthen the Cabinet? He will not conciliate the Opposition. Tories will hate him as a deserter; Jingoes will feel no confidence whatever in a politician whose doctrines of foreign policy and (what is of more consequence) whose whole sentiment in regard to international questions square much more closely with the convictions of Mr. Bright than with the acts of Mr. Gladstone. Nor will Conservatives feel his Lordship's presence in the Ministry any guarantee against plans which Tories denounce as confiscation or spoliation. Lord Derby is, it may be said, both a great landowner, a political economist of what may be termed the most orthodox economical school, and a zealous adherent (if a man so cool can be called zealous about anything) of the dogma of *laissez-faire* While he is in the Cabinet, Conservatives may feel sure that there will be no further ground to complain of attacks on property. Unfortunately, all that can be said of Lord Derby might have been said with equal, if not with greater, truth of the Duke of Argyll. He, too, is a rigid economist after the straitest sect of economical orthodoxy; he, too, is a great landowner; he, too, is opposed to all schemes which have the slightest appearance of interfering with the rights of property. Yet the Duke's having a seat in the Cabinet was no real protection against assaults or inroads upon the right of landlords to do what they like with their own.

It is impossible that Lord Derby should exert as much authority among his colleagues as did the Duke of Argyll. His Grace could always add force to the opinions he espoused by a threat of resignation in the event of his colleagues refusing to adopt his views of justice or of expediency. Resignation is a weapon which cannot be used by Lord Derby. One act of even legitimate change of principles is, in the judgment of the public, as much as can in general be allowed to a statesman of weight. There is in England no toleration for reconversions. To resign would be, in the case of Lord Derby, equivalent to political suicide. His Lordship will not resign, and he is too sensible a man to threaten his colleagues with a resignation which will never take place until Lord Derby is prepared to retire not only from the Ministry, but also from public life. A man of iron will would feel it difficult, in Lord Derby's peculiar position, to coerce or check his Ministerial colleagues; but Lord Derby is not a man of iron will, and he is subordinate to a leader who, whatever his faults, has never been accused of failing in resolution to have his own way. As long as Mr. Gladstone holds the reins of the state coach, he and no other will determine both at what pace and in what direction it shall be driven. Conservatives who object not only to the rate at which we are advancing along the path of democratic progress, but to going along that path at all, will not feel that matters are much improved because, while Mr. Gladstone acts as coachman, handles the whip, and directs the journey, Lord Derby lolls as footman in the hind seat and occasionally suggests the propriety of putting on the drag.

His Lordship's presence in the Cabinet will neither soothe nor reassure the Tories. Is there any reason for supposing that his accession to the Ministry will hearten up the vigorous Liberals whose support is the true source of the strength possessed by the Ministry? The effect of Lord Derby's conversion to Liberalism has been discounted long ago. His name has never had, and probably never will have, any wide popularity. It is not a word to conjure with. The Whigs, who justly trust Lord Hartington, cannot feel any particular confidence in the converted Conservative leader. The Radicals, who on isolated points are in sympathy with his Lordship, know that he is and must be opposed to any extensive schemes of constructive legislation, or to any large innovations or reforms in the tenure of land, or in the laws which in any way affect property. The man whose main power consists in discovering sensible reasons for doing nothing, is not likely to excite the enthusiasm of reformers who think that there is a great deal still to be done in the way of social and political reform.

Is there, then, any reason to suppose that, though Lord Derby can neither conciliate opponents nor arouse the enthusiasm of friends, he can contribute to a cabinet which embraces talent of various kinds a great accession of wisdom, insight, and character? He will certainly bring with him a whole lot of sensible maxims; he will also bring a signal capacity for showing the difficulties besetting any conceivable course of action proposed to him for his acceptance. That he will bring with him any other qualities of great worth, I find it difficult to believe. Of the practical resource of men like Peel he has never shown any trace whatever. Even his admirers would hardly credit him with insight into the character or sympathy with the feelings of his countrymen. He has not one of the gifts which made Palmerston the hero of the middle classes. Nor, lastly, does his career give the least proof of decision, of boldness, of that indescribable quality which influences the world far more than talent or intellect, and which, for want of a better term, we may call character. Till the moment when Lord Derby left Lord Beaconsfield's Government, he had on all occasions followed the guidance or misguidance of his leader; he had not avoided any one of the errors into which Lord Beaconsfield led his party. Lord Derby may have greater talents than I give him credit for, but one may pretty safely assert that he is not the man to add force of will or strength of character to a Cabinet containing Mr. Gladstone and Lord Hartington.

After all, the best way of determining whether Lord Derby will bring additional strength to the Government, is to consider whether the Cabinet would or would not have gained by his presence from the day when Mr. Gladstone succeeded Lord Beaconsfield. He would not, we may feel sure, have been able to promote the policy of the Land Act; the real question is, whether the mere suggestion of an inroad on freedom of contract and the rights of property would not have driven him from the Government. It is scarcely conceivable that a man of his temperament could have aided the stroke of statesmanship which has been abused under the name of the Kilmainham Treaty, but which was in reality a vigorous, and in the main successful, attempt to substitute in the government of Ireland the rule of strict law for a system of ineffective despotism. Can it even be imagined that Lord Derby's criticisms and hesitations would have been of any service when the question of the moment was whether the authority of the Khedive should or should not be supported by force of arms? At that crisis he would of necessity either have followed the example of Mr. Bright, or have given a feeble acquiescence to acts which he could not heartily approve or consistently defend. If we look at the past, it is nearly as certain as anything can be which must from the nature of things be matter of conjecture, that had Lord Derby formed part of the Ministry during the last three years, his counsels, if they had produced any effect at all, would have diminished the vigor without changing the course of Mr. Gladstone's policy; they would, that is to say, have taken from the Premier's action the energy which, in spite of difficulties of opposition and of mistakes, has insured the success and preserved the popularity of the Government. If we look at the future, we may therefore with plausibility conclude that, if Lord Derby's advice has weight with his colleagues, its effect will be to introduce into the action of the Ministry a new source of weakness. The worth of his maxims will hardly equal the damage entailed on the Government by the defects of his temperament.

Secondly. Is not Lord Derby's entrance into the Cabinet a curious comment or satire on the alleged advent of democratic government in England?

His Lordship has been till lately the defender of Conservative causes and the advocate of Conservative interests; he is among the wealthiest of a wealthy aristocracy; he is a capitalist with all the prejudices or principles of a rich manufacturer; he is a political economist of the strictest school; his habit is on all occasions to denounce cant and rant; he is, in short, as far as the public can judge, a man of a cold, professorial turn of mind, who uses his dialectical powers in analyzing and exposing all popular democratic or socialistic delusions. Such a man ought, according to many notions current among Conservatives or educated Liberals, to be all but ostracised by the democracy. The plain fact is, that the Liberal party, supported as that party is by all the democrats of England, considers Lord Derby's conversion to Liberalism as a signal triumph to be celebrated with exultation which exceeds the bounds of decency and of wisdom. Grant that, as is perhaps the case, Liberal politicians, together with their opponents, overrate the advantage of Lord Derby's coöperation. Still, it is quite incredible that a whole body of politicians should utterly mistake the feeling of the classes by whom the Liberals are kept in power.

Two conclusions appear, therefore, all but inevitably to follow from the welcome given to his Lordship on his coming over to the Liberals. The first is, that the English democrats, who, with all their voting power, have never, if my memory does not deceive me, sent more than four workingmen to Parliament, genuinely like a lord, and prefer to find their leaders among men of rank and property. This feeling, which betrays a close affinity to snobbishness, has no particular claim to admiration, but its existence is a political fact of first-rate importance. The second conclusion is, that a wide suffrage does not involve the existence of a democratic constitution, and still less involves the existence of a democratic society or of a democratic spirit. Property, wealth, and social position, and all the things that go therewith, are still and will, it may be anticipated, long be the forces which,

on the whole, rule England. It is more than possible that within the next fifty years, or within a much shorter period, universal suffrage, or even republican institutions, may be established in the United Kingdom; but in so far as it is possible to anticipate the future from a study of the past, there is the strongest possibility, I had almost said probability, that during any period for which it is worth while for a statesman to look forward, wealth, rank, and position will have in Great Britain at least as much weight and influence as any good or wise man of whatever party would wish, for the sake of mankind, to see attached to the mere gifts of fortune. It will need much more than a change in the forms of the Constitution to produce a condition of things under which English Liberals will not think that the cause of Liberalism is strengthened and honored by the political conversion of some Lord Derby of his day.

A. V. Dicey.

THE RESTORATION OF THE DUCAL PALACE.*

Venice, November, 1882.

Venice is still disfigured in her fairest part by the hoardings around her principal monuments. The presence of these unsightly screens is the less patiently to be borne in that they mean permanent injury to the precious works of art which they now disfigure and partly conceal. When the screens come away, the Ducal Palace will be a less valuable building than before they were put up—permanently injured, and that in a perfectly measurable way, by the substitution of modern copies for ancient originals of some of its most precious sculptures. St. Mark's Church, already so great a sufferer, will have lost still more of its charm. The little loggia at the foot of the great tower (now wholly concealed) will not be much the worse, indeed; but then the little loggia was never very important. Your readers have read and heard of these Venetian restorations and of the controversy concerning them, and yet it does not appear that any account of what is actually doing has reached them. The literature of the subject is considerable in quantity already, but it appears to consist chiefly of vituperation on one side and sneers on the other. Perhaps this is not to be wondered at, but assuredly it is all less interesting to far-away people who cannot well come to Venice this year, but who care for her lovely art, than would be some brief description of the mischief that has been done and is doing. There may be a melancholy pleasure in hearing how it seems to one on the spot, and even how the Piazza and the Piazzetta look, this lowering, cloudy, rainy autumn of 1882.

Their aspect was seasonable enough on the 28th of October. One would have thought that he had left floods at least behind him in the flat country along the Adige, the Brenta, and the Canal Bianco; can the very level of the salt sea be raised by autumn rains? But whoever, at about nine o'clock on the stormy morning above named, passed through the porches at the west end of the Piazza, found everything afloat beyond the raised stylobate upon which he himself was standing. Two feet of water, shallowing to ten inches or so where the pavement was crowned up, covered all the square—the pillared porches of St. Mark's and the arcades of the north side, where the Caffè Quadri is rising out of the flood. A lively surf beat against the steps where the southern and western arcades stand on higher ground. The doves of the Piazza, like their progenitor of old, found no rest for the soles of their feet in their ordinary feeding-ground. Boats were plying busily, for there was no footway open to those who might wish to cross to the Merceria or to visit their drowned shops along the north side of the square—no footway, at least, except to bare feet and legs. That way remained, and the boatmen used it; for perhaps there was more pulling and pushing of boats by waders than either rowing or poling. Was it rain? were the drains choked, and had all that water fallen from the clouds in one night? Old Venetians, who knew what sirocco and spring tides could do when they worked together, and had seen the same phenomenon before, though rarely, knew better than that. But the new-comer may have found a fresh surprise awaiting him when he turned the corner into the Piazzetta. Does everybody know how the land lies? The Piazza is an oblong, lying east and west, nearly 600 feet long; the Piazzetta makes an L with it, and stretches southward 300 feet to the water's edge, where is the chief harbor of Venice. And here, along the quay, the sea was coming ashore bodily, in waves that broke sharply at the stone sea-wall. Salt spray mingled with the rain that drove across the square. A wooden foot-bridge of planks laid on horses had been established the whole length of the quay, from the steps of the old Library of St. Mark to the bridge that crosses the little canal beyond the palace and leads to the Riva degli Schiavoni; and on this bridge tottering citizens, with umbrellas that held too much wind for their holders' comfort, were making what way they could. Parts of another bridge outside of this seemed to have been put in place by the boatmen for the sake of access to their gondolas and barchettas; but this construction was tottering under the shocks of wind and sea. It was only as the stranger came back to the great square, with its salt lake and the people punting about in it so tranquilly, that he realized that Venice was an amphibious city, safely based upon piles and anchored in hydraulic cement, not to be set off her balance by a few feet more of salt water.

For those few hours, at least, the workmen who have made a marble-yard of the lower arcades of the Ducal Palace were put to rout. They were merrily at work again a few hours later. And this is how the palace presents itself to its ardent admirers: A screen of planking hides its base along the whole Piazzetta side and one-third of the water side. Above this are seen the six water-front capitals of the lower arcade, whose shafts are concealed behind it, and three in like manner on the Piazzetta side. The great corner column is wholly boxed in with a sort of pavilion, roofed over and lighted with glazed sash. The remaining columns on the Piazzetta are also wholly concealed, as the screen is higher there. And, finally, at the northern end of the Piazzetta front, and occupying one-third of its length, a vast scaffolding is reared against the walls, concealing both the upper and the lower arcades, and even a part of the checkered marble wall above. This great scaffolding turns the corner, too, and covers the little north face, and reaches the Porta della Carta.

Is it not safe to assume that photographs of this building are within every one's reach? The topography, the distribution of the building and its surroundings may need explanation, if allusion is to be made to them; but these two Gothic façades? The photograph-sellers on the Piazza could tell us how many photographs of these they have sold to Americans during the past twenty-five years. Let the reader, then, look at the first photograph, woodcut, Turner vignette, or Venetian water-color which comes in his way, and there will be manifest to him an open arcade on the level of the pavement. Eighteen columns on the water-front, nineteen on the Piazzetta front, or thirty-six in all, as the corner column counts twice. The capitals of these columns are famous, and rightly so. The great corner capital is an immense and elaborate work of art, worthy of the most prominent place in the richest building of the richest city of the Middle Ages. The work upon it is estimated at six years, for the sculpture alone; the block itself is about three feet high, and nearly five feet in diameter where it is greatest; the sculpture is designed to be seen by eyes only from six to ten feet distant, and is executed in white Istrian stone. The loveliest leafage invests it, and, mingled with the soft plant-forms, and emerging from their convolutions, eight figures or groups crown the eight faces of the capital, setting forth the astrological doctrine of the stars, and their influence over men. This, in its place and with its old surroundings, is the very ideal of Southern Gothic sculpture, in that respect unequalled in Italy, the best single piece of work for comparison with the sculptures of Chartres and of Reims.

Only less important than this are the three capitals which come next to it on the Piazzetta side, and two of those near it on the water-front—Nos. 16, 17, 19, 20, and 21, if you count as Selvatico and Ruskin do in their analyses, and as every one ought to count, beginning at the extreme east end of the water-front, so that the corner column becomes No. 18, and the most northerly one on the Piazzetta side No. 36. No. 19, then, is devoted to the glorification of the sculptor's art by eight busy little workmen, all employed upon delicate pieces of work: a Gothic capital, a row of little arches, which Zanotto thinks a cornice and Ruskin a row of windows, a nearly completed statue. Three of these, at least, have the indication of aureoles around their heads, and saints' names inscribed above. Two, at least, are crowned. One of the quaintest and most unexpected things about the palace is the insertion in this capital of little pieces of colored marble, porphyry, and serpentine, as part of the work under the sculptors' hands. No. 20 is less elaborate—a splendid simple design, with heads of beasts, each holding in its jaws its chosen prey. No. 21 is, again, one of the most elaborate, eight of the chief trades and occupations—smith and carpenter, shoemaker and farmer—about their avocations. Also on the water-front, No. 17 has, amid its leafage, the philosophers and sages; the Aristotle, poring over his open book, with forked beard and strongly-marked, thoughtful face, in a hat which looks like a study of a petasus (wherever the fourteenth-century sculptor found the model of one), is a wonder of concentrated design. The world may be searched in vain for more perfect decorative work than these capitals. The loss to the world, therefore, can be estimated, now that they are finally taken away, for genteel confinement in a museum-prison, from the place intended for them by their designers. The loss to all art-lovers of the future, who will have to study the palace *without* so many of its details, and who will be compelled to make inquiry as to which capitals are original and which are modern imitations, who will have to look at the building itself with allowance always made for what it has lost, and then go to a museum somewhere to see the sculptures of which it has been deprived—all this remains, and will remain, however inevitable was the taking out of these stones.

For all the capitals we have specially mentioned have been removed and their places supplied by copies. The repairs began on the quay front, six years ago, at the sixth capital east of the corner of the Piazzetta, No. 13. From that point along both fronts to the point nearest

* [This letter was written before that on "Venice Revisited" in No. 910 of the *Nation* (by another correspondent) had reached Mr. Sturgis.—Ed. Nation.]

St. Mark's at the north end, all that is to be made new has been already done or is now doing. And we find that of the twenty-four capitals of the lower arcade included in this extent of front, eight have been taken out and replaced by copies. There is a long story told about the new corner capital, its first sculptor, a Roman, and his disappointment and death. It has been in its place for three years, and carrying the whole weight of the angle of the palace. Its second sculptor, a Venetian, is busy at it, with plenty of work still before him. Beside him, relieved from the weight it had borne for five hundred years, the old capital is set upon a high pedestal which raises it to its old level. The sculptor works from casts of parts of this original capital, the original itself visible also to him, at a distance of from four to nine feet. The other new ones are completed, and the other originals stowed away in a store-room on the ground-floor of the palace, awaiting the decision as to their permanent place of deposit.

In the upper arcade, from the point where the work began to the north end, are, of course, forty-seven columns. The capitals of these, only less important as works of art, and only less effective in design, than their unrivalled mates below, have never been fully studied or described in any work known to the writer. In some of them emblematic or religious symbolism lurks, awaiting interpretation. Seventeen of them are now taken out and replaced by copies, some of these already stained in imitation of that black crust which invests white marble and limestone in Venice. One, however, of these new capitals is said to have been put in its place several years before the present repairs were begun. Many of the shafts are new, but the replacing of these little affects the building, as they have no sculptured or other ornament, beyond a delicate necking of leafage in some and a mere cable moulding in others. Many new stones have been inserted in the great arches of the lower arcade and in the cornice or stylobate above it, upon which the columns of the upper arcade are supported. Whole lengths of the frieze of square rosettes which forms part of this cornice have been renewed. Columns, and especially bases of the upper arcade, have been replaced to a great extent. But all this, sad enough to see, taken by itself, is of so little moment compared with the loss of the great capitals, that one looks at it with a sense of relief—"Not much harm done here!"

Now, what means have we of judging of the propriety—that is to say, of the absolute necessity—of all this? Was the palace in actual danger of falling, or at least of ruin to its beautiful and famous façades? It is clear that no defacement of a capital would justify its being taken out, and that no injury of whatever nature to any piece of decoration could be sufficient reason for replacing it by a copy. But if a piece of stone on which a whole bay of the building rests is indeed so shaken and split as to be untrustworthy, then, indeed, it must be replaced by another piece of stone, and the only question that remains open is, whether the new stone should be carved in imitation of the old one. In the upper arcade, and to be seen of all persons who can obtain permission to visit these screened-off domains of the workmen—a permission readily granted—is kept the corner-piece of the stylobate which carries the second row of columns, and the base resting on it of the corner column of this second row. The solid stone is split through and through, lengthwise and across, with clefts that run, some vertically and some diagonally, from top to bottom. The circular base of the column is rent into fifteen separate pieces, and many of these clefts are continuous through the cornice below, while others meet and cross one another in the heart of the stone, so that pieces of irregular shape and of less than a pound weight can be lifted out. The engineer in charge, Signor Forcellini, has assured the writer that it was found in this state, precisely, when the shaft was lifted from it, and the sheet of lead—forced out of shape and squeezed on one side out from the joint—had been removed. The sculptor of the great corner capital below, Signor Zanardi, has given the same assurance, adding that he was present when the base was first exposed to light, and also that the column before its removal was out of the vertical and the lead joint-plate projecting in a ragged way. The original corner capital of the lower arcade can be seen of all Venice (as it stands beside its substitute) to be split through and through by a great, irregular cleft, running generally from top to bottom, but not vertical. The other original capitals, in the store-room where they are, so far as they can be examined, are found to be all split in one or another direction, and some of them even into many pieces. The taken-out pieces of stone from the arches and stylobate have not been preserved, except in a few cases, but casts were made and can be seen of some of the most defective pieces of wall—casts made before the masonry was disturbed, with the view of answering just such questions as our present one.

The repairs are being prosecuted very slowly, as the Government allows only 200,000 lire a year for both the palace and St. Mark's Church, and the city gives very little—probably the same amount. Of the small sum available, a notable part goes to the shoring-up of the building, which is done in the most elaborate and thorough way. A large model of the whole system of support is to be seen in the palace, and a part of the wall (namely, where the great scaffolding is, above mentioned) is now held up in a corresponding manner; the arches of the lower arcade, those of the upper arcade, the circles of the tracery above, and the wall of the main story of the palace, high over all, being all separately supported. The very many capitals, bases, shafts, voussoirs, pieces of stylobate that have been removed and replaced, have all been successfully handled. Not a crack or defect appears in any part of the work. The new stone seems to be of excellent quality—the sculptors assert, much harder than the old, though probably they are not assured of that; and one is left with the conviction that, from the engineer's point of view, all that has been done was absolutely essential to the safety of the whole structure.

From the engineer's point of view? Yes! for from the art-lover's point of view, from the archæologist's point of view, only the one capital or base actually threatening to crumble away—only the one voussoir actually seen to be yielding—ought ever to be condemned. No "complete repairs," no thoroughgoing restoration, making all safe for centuries to come, ought ever to be dreamed of. Repairs should be *en permanence* in every important ancient building; a trustworthy engineer should always be on the watch, and the timbers for shoring up and for support always ready. Is it evident that a certain stone must go, or cause ruin? To work, then, and take it out, and replace it! but stop there, and put away your apparatus until the evil hour strikes again. But from the engineer's point of view the building needs extensive repairs to make it safe: conscientious examination decides which parts can be left untouched and which need to be made new; the work shall be done as thoroughly and as cheaply as possible, and the building warranted for another term of centuries. This view is tenable, under the supposition that the new sculptures are, in a way, the equivalents of the originals: but this is a supposition that cannot be admitted for a moment.

R. Sturgis.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have to-day stopped my subscription to the *Nation*, on account of your persistent and malicious misrepresentation of Southern people. If continued, I think you may quite certainly count on losing many another, as well as this one. Old Subscriber.

Richmond, Va., Jan. 1.

[From the Louisville (Ky.) *Courier-Journal*.]

"The announcement that the State Treasurer of Tennessee, M. T. Polk, has absconded, will cause general sorrow and surprise.

. . . . . .

"This defalcation is another blow at the prosperity of Tennessee. It is not unexampled, unfortunately; it does not exhibit a state of society differing in any respect from that which prevails in Illinois, Ohio, New York, or Pennsylvania. Yet its effect on the public mind in Tennessee will be widespread and unhappy.

"Mr. Polk is not a carpet-bagger nor a Republican; he is 'to the manner born,' and a Democrat. If he had killed a man in heat and passion, or if he had coldly assassinated him, the effect would have been different, and his condemnation much less certain. In the Southern States we can find it in our hearts to forgive a murderer, but the crime of theft we punish more rigidly, when we catch a thief."

[From the Charleston (S. C.) *News and Courier*.]

"In the opinion of the Springfield *Republican*, what Missouri and all of the Southern and Western States need is 'a finer degree of courage' than that which is required to pull the revolver and blaze away—the courage in public officers and magistrates to make complaints against dangerous characters and require them to furnish bonds for good behavior; or to bring them to trial after the commitment of crime and carry out the procedure to conviction, sentence, and punishment. It says: 'The courage to do this in an orderly and deliberate manner, and without fear or favor, seems to be very much lacking in those parts of the country. As a civic virtue, it is worth about three times as much as the puerile anger which gets up a lynching, or the fussy bravado which arranges a duel.'

"There is a good deal of truth in all this; but we cannot expect public officers and magistrates to exhibit this 'finer degree of courage' until the general public shall have manifested it. In the *News and Courier* on Wednesday there was an account of a murderous conflict between two prominent citizens of Shreveport, La., in which one man was killed and the other was badly wounded. There was an account also of a shooting affray at Clayton, Texas, in which one man was mortally wounded and two others were wounded severely. In the *News and Courier* on Thursday there was an account of a street fight at Baird, Texas, in which both the combatants were instantly killed. The probabilities are that some stupid misunderstanding, or hasty word, or innocent misrepresentation was at the bottom of every one of these fights. Where there was a substantial grievance, the probabilities are that it was one that could, or should, have been redressed in the courts of the land. The 'finer degree of courage' which is needed in the South is that which shows itself by a flat-footed refusal to regard the pistol or the knife as the arbiter of right and wrong, and which looks to the machinery and means which organized society has provided to cure and to atone for any wrong that may be done, and any injury that may be sustained. It is not a rule without its exception, of course, but it is evident that our civilization would be no lower than it is, if the law were constantly regarded as the protector and avenger of private right and wrong, as it is regarded in European countries which have reached a very high place in the scale of civilization."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The term of my subscription ends to-day. I send enclosed three dollars for the

coming year. I take this opportunity to thank you for the manly way in which you have rebuked that foul spirit in the South. Your words are true. I lived there fourteen years of my manhood. I know what you say is true. May God make you an instrument of good to the whole country. I say this on the eve of threescore years.—Sincerely yours, G. S.

MISSOULA, MONTANA, Dec. 28, 1882.

THE *NATION* AND PROHIBITION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* is so vigorous and persistent an enemy to "low civilization" and bad laws, that I am prompted to inquire—if the question has your approval—the cause of what has appeared to me a curious anomaly: I mean the *Nation's* apathetic attitude toward one of the greatest social questions of the day, the problem of how to deal with intemperance. To the *Nation* more than to any other influence—more than to nearly all other influences combined, I believe—we shall owe the reform of our national civil service, which now, at last, seems to be drawing near. It was the pioneer in this field of reform long back in the days of Mr. Jenckes, when the whole subject was a laughing-stock to "practical" politicians, and ignored alike by the intelligent voter and the rank and file. Through good and evil report, through popular indifference and the hostility of politicians, it has labored with a force and iteration truly admirable to educate public sentiment up to the point of demanding a prohibition by law of the pernicious methods of civil appointment which have been so corrupting an influence in American political life. More recently, with an energy and pertinacity which almost seems to defeat its object by excessive zeal, it has been attacking the spurious chivalry at the South which tolerates duelling and homicide as a remedy for personal offences, and which, it argues with perfect truth, is a survival from a lower state of civilization.

In the same spirit, and looking toward the same object, the elevation of the type of American civilization, are some very forcible paragraphs in the last number of the *Nation* on the recent tragedy in Cincinnati in which an actress lost her life. In the course of its comments on that occurrence, it says:

"It is the old passion which made mediæval Christians enjoy judicial tortures and heretic-burning so much, and made hangings at Tyburn and public whippings and prize-fights so delightful to an English mob. In short, it is a brutal passion, a relic of the old animal from which we sprang, which the advance of civilization has much diminished, but *which we ought, as far as law can do it, to put out of sight altogether.*"

Now, if it is right to put out of sight by law an exhibition the tendencies of which are brutalizing to the spectators, and from which there results occasional loss of life, but in which all the risks of demoralization and accident and loss of life are voluntarily assumed by both the actors and the spectators, in the name of conscience, why is it not a thousand-fold more imperative, "as far as law can do it, to put out of sight altogether" the thousands of groggeries in the country, every one of which is not only an evidence and a cause of "low civilization," but a menace to the lives and peace and comfort of hundreds of innocent citizens? What special cogent reason is there that the law should place its ban altogether upon dangerous and brutal sports, upon gambling, upon disreputable houses, upon indecent exposure, upon concealed weapons, and yet license to ply its baleful trade the saloon which does more a hundred-fold than all these agencies together to endanger life, happiness, and refined civilization? A single poor woman may not be permitted to earn a meagre living by allowing an apple to be shot from her head because such a practice may finally terminate in her death, besides corrupting the delicate morals of the refined companies that assemble to see such an amusement; but daily and nightly throughout the whole land, in every crowded city and in every hamlet, any number of men and women may drink themselves into a state of violent, murderous delirium, and kill or maim or terrify hundreds of innocent victims, and thousands of virtuous dram-sellers may be willing accessories! Not altogether, however, without hearing from the law. The raving sot shall be locked up in a cell till he sleeps off his debauch, and if he has murdered or wounded a woman or a child, or a boon companion, the majesty of the law shall be vindicated in his trial for the crime, and his probable acquittal on the ground of his *non-compos* condition; and the enterprising publican who plied him with the maddening draught shall go scot free, having duly paid the paternal Government a license for this very privilege of manufacturing criminals. And the admiring public and the estate of the victim, if he or she left any, shall be allowed to pay the costs of the arrest, the trial, and the acquittal of the poor vagabond, or his life-long support in jail and the maintenance of his family, as the case may be.

Is there not a preposterous want of logic and common sense and common humanity in our present method of dealing with the liquor traffic? We admit—how can we help it?—its dangerous and destructive tendencies, and seek to restrict them by partial prohibition, by allowing only those who pay a license to sell; by closing the saloons on Sundays and on election days; and having thus admitted the morality, the constitutionality, and the expediency of prohibition, and bound ourselves in conscience by the admission, we still allow the deadly traffic full sway, under the law, in its war against all the best interests of society. But, it is said, a certain amount of intemperance is inevitable; temperance advocates are so fanatical, so remiss in endeavoring to enforce the restrictive laws we have; total prohibition has not been a success where tried—it leads to underhand drinking and selling. Grant it all, though it is only true in a degree: does it follow, therefore, that there shall be no attempt by the press to educate public sentiment against the liquor traffic, and to have recorded each advance of the public conscience in laws of increasing stringency, till it is practically extinguished?

Did the *Nation* reason thus about civil-service reform? Years back the sentiment on that subject was very low; wholesome precedents from the earlier days of the Republic, that had had the force of law, were utterly disregarded; advocates of an improved service were lukewarm and often injudicious; and a certain amount of administrative inefficiency and corruption is inevitable in the nature of things. Therefore, the *Nation* argued, by its uniform practice, the greater need of earnestness and unflagging zeal and effort to overcome all these obstacles. The day of fruition of its noble labor, so patiently pursued through long years, is dawning, and the country will reap unnumbered blessings from it. Will not the *Nation* now lend the weight of its great influence to the education of the people up to that stage of civilization and self-sacrifice (for there is a small measure of sacrifice required in giving up a certain amount of innocent indulgence and social enjoyment) which will lead to the prohibition by law of a traffic which is certainly as fatal to true progress as was the African slave trade, or as is the opium trade in China, or homicidal "chivalry," or dangerous theatricals? Or, if not, will it not gratify the curiosity of many readers by giving its reasons, which doubtless are good and sufficient ones, for its not taking an earnest and aggressive attitude, as seems so consonant with its character, on this grave question?

LAWRENCE TURNBULL.

BALTIMORE, December 11, 1882.

[There is no analogy between the civil-service reform agitation and the prohibitory agitation. The one simply sought to have the business of the Government transacted in the same manner and under the same rules and restrictions as the business of individuals—which latter is based, in all its processes, on the experience of the human race since the dawn of civilization. The prohibitory agitation seeks to prevent by law the consumption of an article of drink which has been in daily use, in one form or another, from the earliest period and in all countries, and by nearly every distinguished member of the human family, which the great majority of the human race now use, and which the great majority of its moralists and legislators and teachers either still approve of or do not sharply condemn. An attempt to abolish a practice of this kind by law, not on the ground that it is evil *per se* in every case, but on the ground that in a large number of cases it tends to evil; not on the ground that no man can drink wine without injury, but that some men are sure to be hurt by it—is an undertaking which has no chance of success, in our opinion, without the support of a popular condemnation of drinking so strong that, if it existed, laws against drinking would hardly be necessary. To enforce such a law with any police we now have at command, or any American community would submit to, would be impossible; and we agree with Burke in thinking that in politics what is not practicable is neither wise nor right. No greater evil can overtake a community, in our mind, than the habit of passing laws, which nobody expects to see executed, simply as an expression of feeling. The law should be kept sacredly for execution, and not for expression; it ought to be a command to be obeyed, not a yearning, or an aspiration, or a piece of advice. The proper place for these things is the pulpit, the press, and the platform. Through these the excessive use of alcoholic drinks is rapidly diminishing. Within a generation, it has ceased among the better-educated classes in England and this country. It is now rapidly diminishing, through the same agencies, in England among the working classes. We expect to see it diminish in the same way here, and in many parts of the country it is diminishing. We are, however, by no means opposed to all legislation on the subject: we are in favor of as much as public opinion will execute, directed against excessive drinking, or temptations to excessive drinking, and think legislatures ought to follow public opinion up with regulatory laws. In such communities as can bear a good license law, we would have one. In such as can bear a prohibitory law—we know of none such as yet—we would have one; but we think that whenever any community really can bear a prohibitory law, the drunkards will be such a small and despised class, and the social culture so high, that it will probably seem childish to pass an act forbidding people to have wine in their houses.—ED. NATION.]

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF ATHENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The strictures by W. J. S. upon the Archæological Society of Athens, published in the *Nation* of January 4, are certainly founded on fact; but it would perhaps be more useful to press them upon the attention of the Greek Government and upon that of the management of the Society, than to publish them in a foreign journal without giving the Society credit for the considerable good which it has accomplished. In 1881, not a year of unusual activity, the Society expended, in round numbers, $10,000 upon museums in Athens and in the provinces, upon excavations, and upon the purchase, repair, and publication of antiquities of all kinds. The museums, and the collections of antiquities in the Polytechnic at Athens, all in charge of the Society, are highly creditable, and in some departments unrivalled. The arrangement of these collections is in general good, although they are still, in most departments, without an adequate published catalogue. Such a catalogue is in preparation, under the direction of the Society. The museums are free to all; for the collections in the Polytechnic a small entrance fee is charged. The Society is now conducting excavations of considerable importance at Epidauros and at Eleusis; and its Πραμτιμά, published yearly, constitute nearly always an important contribution to archæological knowledge. As an example, it is sufficient to refer to the volume of the Πραμτιμά which treats of the Erechtheion.

The northern and eastern slopes of the Acropolis, which are still, as W. J. S. says, almost entirely unexcavated, present certainly a very important field for investigation, although probably far less important than the other slopes which have been excavated; and this investigation ought to receive immediate attention. But these slopes, at least near the base of the Acropolis, are as yet but little encroached upon except by hovels of "squatters," which can be removed at the pleasure of the authorities.

The direction of the Society is in the hands of men of acknowledged superiority, such as Kastorches, Koumanoudes, Evstratiades, and Mylonas; and it is certainly actuated by the most earnest desire to promote the study of Hellenic archæology, and to protect Greek antiquities from the vandalism of ignorant Greeks, which is only surpassed by that of ignorant foreign visitors. These facts render it the more difficult to explain the narrow action of the Society heretofore in the matter of opposing foreign exploration upon modern Hellenic territory. With the spirit that inspired the law forbidding the exportation of antiquities, it is impossible not to feel some sympathy; although, as W. J. S. says, the machinery for the enforcement of this law is so inadequate that it fails in great part of its intended effect. Greece is still a much newer country than even our own; but she possesses a large class of highly educated men who, influenced by commendable pride in the antiquity of their country, brought forward this law with the hope that it would keep in Greece those monuments of that antiquity which remained after foreign spoliations committed under Turkish domination.

The condition of many of the Greek provincial museums, especially of those of Olympia and Delos, is certainly unworthy of the priceless treasures stored in them; but it is less the will to remedy this state of things that is wanting to the Society than the necessary resources, where there is so much to do. These treasures are the world's inheritance, not that of Greece only; and contributions from abroad for the better housing of them would be received with gratitude in Athens.

No excuse can be offered for official venality and political jobbery; these blots are, however, neither peculiar to Greece nor of darker dye there than in other civilized countries which enjoy a large measure of individual freedom. It is painful to read of the insult and annoyance heaped upon M. Reinach by the authorities in Delos, as a reward for his splendid work there. Happily, the French school is a Government institution; and France has not yet lost the habit of protecting her representatives abroad.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

A Member of the Archæological Society of Athens.

Cottage Lawn, Yonkers, N. Y., Jan. 5, 1883.

LOUIS AGASSIZ AT NEUCHATEL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The city of Neuchâtel has just celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of the foundation of its Natural History Society. On the 6th of December, 1832, under the leadership of L. Agassiz, a small group of six scientific men met to found this society. Agassiz was then only twenty-five years old. He came from Paris, where he had studied with Cuvier and Humboldt, and the small city of Neuchâtel, which had then scarcely 6,000 inhabitants, by a rare good fortune which does the greatest credit to the wisdom and liberality of its citizens, acquired this young naturalist, full of enthusiasm, of learning far beyond his years, and of a prodigious activity for work for the propagation of science such as few people are gifted with.

First Secretary of the Society of Natural History of Neuchâtel, Agassiz "multiplied himself" for the communication of memoirs, correspondence, and publications. Everything had to be done; and everything was done as though by magic, under the inspiration of the young savant. During the fourteen years of his stay at Neuchâtel, Agassiz produced 'Les Poissons fossiles,' in itself a work sufficient to immortalize a scientist; then came the fresh-water fishes, living and fossil echinoderms, fossil mollusca, the 'Nomenclator Zoölogicus,' the 'Bibliographia Zoölogiæ et Geologiæ,' the translations of Sowerby, of Buckland; and, as if all this were nothing, he lavished his instruction on pupils, of whom several afterward became celebrated, such as Frederik von Tschudi, Armand Gressly, Édouard Desor, Karl Vogt, Franck de Pourtalès, Charles Girard, etc. Above all, Agassiz created the theory of the extension of the ancient glaciers—"the Glacial Epoch," "the Great Ice Age."

The orator of the day, Prof. Louis Favre, while recounting the history of the Society of Natural History during the fifty years of its existence, recalled all these works of Agassiz's, and how much of its life and prosperity the Society owed him. All are proud to do justice, on this their fiftieth anniversary, to the qualities and the wonderful scientific value of their founder. Especially when the orator spoke of the "glacial theory" did he interest all his hearers. Venetz, of the Valais, had shown the transportation by glaciers of the enormous erratic boulders which lie all along the valley of the Upper Rhone, and first had the idea of the glacier as the conveyer and carrier of these colossal masses. Then his friend De Charpentier, of Bex, pushing the first idea a step forward, extended the glacier of the Rhone over the Lake of Geneva, over the Canton de Vaud, and stopped it at the Jura. Then Agassiz came in, convinced by De Charpentier that the theory of the ancient extension of glaciers and of the transportation of boulders by ice was based on irrefutable observations; he went further, and at a meeting of the Helvetian Society of Natural Sciences at Neuchâtel, on July 24, 1837, over which he presided, in his opening speech he declared "that there had been a time when glaciers covered the whole area of the Alps, and extended far beyond; that there had been in Europe a period of great cold, a 'Great Ice Age,' when the mammoths lived."

It was a great revolution in science. These words on the existence of a "Glacial Epoch" raised a tremendous tempest. His adversaries present at the meeting were Leopold von Buch and Élie de Beaumont, two of the greatest geologists of the first half of this century, and the greatest advocates of the currents of mud and the transportation of erratic blocks by geological floods of prodigious and incalculable force. Endless discussions followed, but the Rubicon was crossed, and it was at Neuchâtel that first dawned the idea of this "Great Glacial Epoch," which, little by little, by means of the accumulation of observations in almost all points of the globe, has confirmed the view of the President of the Helvetian Society of Natural Sciences of 1837.

It was Agassiz himself who discovered the traces of ancient glaciers in Scotland, in England, and later in all the eastern part of North America, from New York and Halifax to the northwestern extremity of Lake Superior. Then ancient glaciers were found in the Vosges, in the Jura, in Auvergne, the Morvan, the Hartz, the Black Forest, the Carpathians, the Balkans, the Pyrenees, the Sierra Nevada of Grenada, the Atlas of Marocco and Algeria, the Upper Niger, Abyssinia, Lebanon, Ararat, the Caucasus, the Ural, Scandinavia and Finland, the Taurus, the Himalaya, the Altaï, the mountains round Lake Baïkal, Kamtchatka, the Aleutians, Kurile Islands, Yezo, and the northern port of Nipon in Japan, New Zealand, Kerguelen, the Strait of Magellan and the south of Chili (L. Agassiz), in the vicinity of Rio Janeiro (Dom Pedro II. and L. Agassiz), in the Andes of Bolivia, of Peru, of Eucador, of Colombia, in the Sierra Nevada of Santa Martha, in Nicaragua, in the south of Alta California, the Sierra Nevada of California, in Colorado, Nevada, and Utah, on the Upper Missouri and Upper Columbia Rivers, Washington Territory, British Columbia, Alaska, and the Arctic regions (Greenland, Iceland, Jan-Mayen, Cherry Island, Spitzbergen, Nova-Zemlia, Franz-Joseph's Land, New Siberia Islands, and the Arctic American Archipelago); and at last Agassiz had the happiness before dying of seeing his theory of a "Glacial Epoch" accepted by all—even by some of his most constant adversaries, like Sir Roderick Murchison, who wrote to him in 1863 excusing his long opposition. It was but justice. Agassiz, by a stroke of genius, had seen and seized with a single glance a whole period in the history of the earth—a period till then entirely unknown to all; and, regardless of opposition, he had bravely proclaimed it before the scientific world, certain beforehand that this idea must prevail.

The Glacier of the Aar, the theatre of Agassiz's observations; his famous "Hôtel des Neuchâtelois"; the polished and striated rocks of Landeron, the "Pierre-à-Bot," etc., were not forgotten in the celebration of the fiftieth anniversary; the localities, as well as the men and their studies, were reviewed, and figured in the speeches, banquets, and visits to the Museum. Nothing was forgotten; Neuchâtel celebrated on this occasion a past of scientific works such as few cities possess. A city which so honors science deserves the prosperity which has crowned its efforts, and given it great celebrity not only in Switzerland, but also in the whole world.

Jules Marcou.

Cambridge, Mass., January 3, 1883.

MR. MARSH ON THE WORD "LOVELY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The combination of vast learning and a tenacious memory with wonderful accuracy and perfect good taste have given to the philological dicta of the late Mr. George P. Marsh the very highest authority. Consequently, if he has happened to make a slip, it is important that it should be pointed out. In his 'Lectures on the Origin and History of the English Language,' in a note to Lecture xii., he says:

"Every generation, every year almost, has its pet words, etc., . . . originating now in some accidental circumstance, now in some theory, early association, habit, or caprice of a favorite writer, which, for the time, constitute unsightly excrescences upon the body of speech, but finally drop off and are forgotten. To take single words. . . . The epithet *lovely* can fitly be used only of *beings* capable of exciting by their moral and physical perfections the passion of love, and at the same time of reciprocating it. That only is *lovely* which is both lovable and loving. In the affectation and exaggeration which so often characterize the phraseology of polite society, this unhappy word was seized upon and generalized in its application, and it soon became the one epithet of commendation in young ladies' seminaries and similar circles, where it was and is applied indiscriminately to all pleasing material objects from a piece of plum-cake to a Gothic cathedral. Ruskin unluckily adopted this schoolgirl triviality, and by the popularity of his writings has made it almost universal, thereby degrading, vulgarizing, and depriving of its true significance one of the noblest words in the English language."

Now, whatever one's personal preference in the use of words may be, this cannot alter the facts of the English language. I fully share with Mr. Marsh his repugnance to the indiscriminate use of the word; but when he says that "the epithet *lovely* can fitly be used only of *beings*," I must differ. Here are a few instances that prove the contrary: "Whatsoever things are pure, whatsoever things are lovely," etc. (Phil. iv. 8); "For nothing lovelier can be found in woman than to study household good" ('Par. Lost,' b. ix., l. 332); "Two lovely berries moulded on one stem" ("Midsummer Night's Dream," Act iii., sc. 2); "Richard, that sweet, lovely rose" ("I. Henry IV.," Act i., sc. 3); "Loveliest of lovely things are they on earth that soonest pass away" (Bryant, "Scene on the Banks of the Hudson").

Another philological suggestion occurs to me. The merits of Worcester's Dictionary are universally appreciated, but the circumstance that it was edited exclusively by American scholars shows itself, I think, in the following definition: "*Lay of the land*, the features or the relative position of the parts of any land or place." This use of the word "lay" I believe to be purely American, and that it would never be heard in England. However, I do not find "lie" in this sense quoted in any English dictionary, except the new edition of Ogilvie, and there no examples are quoted. I have noted the following: Green's 'Making of England,' chap. iii., note 49, "I have been guided in tracing these boundaries by the *lie* of the ground itself"; Freeman's 'Subject and Neighbour Lands of Venice,' page 312, "The *lie* of the city and its haven is truly a sight to be studied."

Yours very truly, H. W. H.

Boston, December 24, 1882.

Notes.

A. C. Armstrong & Son will publish during the year 'The Introduction to Christian Theology,' by the late Prof. Henry B. Smith, edited by Prof. W. S. Karr, of Hartford Seminary.

Moses King, Cambridge, has in press 'The Concord Lectures,' comprising outlines of all the lectures at the Concord Summer School of Philosophy in 1882, and one lecture in full (by Professor Garman, of Amherst). The publication has the approval of the Faculty and the concurrence of the lecturers. Biographical footnotes concerning the latter are promised.

The second or prose volume of Prof. James Baldwin's 'English Literature' will be published early next month by John E. Potter & Co., Philadelphia.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce for the new year volume 2 of Colonel Williams's 'History of the Negro Race in America, 1800–1880'; Part second and last of 'The American Citizen's Manual,' by Worthington C. Ford; 'The Woman Question in Europe'—a series of essays prepared by representative women and edited by Theodore Stanton; 'The History of the Jesuits,' from the German of Theodore Griesinger, in 2 vols., 8vo; 'The Golden Chersonese,' by Isabella Bird; and 'Shaftesbury and Hutcheson,' as vol. 5 of the "English Philosophers" series.

The same house has brought out a uniform edition, in five volumes, of the works of "Barry Gray," a name already well forgotten, though the latest volume was copyrighted in 1871. The vapid contents of this collection are past comment; but the illustrations of 'My Married Life at Hillside' we recognize as having been produced by a process now entirely out of vogue, we believe, and to that extent they are curiosities.

In the third edition of her 'Pennsylvania Dutch' (Lippincott), Mrs. Phebe Earle Gibbons includes chapters on the Scranton miners, and even on England and Ireland, so that the book needs and gets a supplementary title—"and Other Essays." Though the later themes have no connection with the earlier, the treatment of them will be found interesting. Mrs. Gibbons has an inquiring mind and a shrewd observation, and her reports of foreign travel are fresh and individual. For its main object, this work proves to have a permanent value.

The *Athenæum* states that the first instalment of the English Dictionary, edited by Dr. Murray, will be published early in February. In the same paper Mr. Leslie Stephen unfolds the plan of his 'Biographia Britannica.' He will shortly issue lists of names intended for insertion, and a few specimen lives.

Of the three publications of the English Dialect Society for the past year, two belong in Series C (Original Glossaries), and one in Series D (Miscellaneous). Mrs. E. L. Chamberlain furnishes an excellent 'Glossary of West Worcestershire Words,' preceded by a list of popular remedies and other superstitions. Similar ones are recorded in the Rev. Hilderic Friend's 'Glossary of Devonshire Plant Names.' For example, "it is unlucky to transplant parsley." This superstition we met with only the other day in a negro farm-hand on the Eastern Shore of Maryland. Mr. Friend is sometimes apparently over-confident in his etymologies, but his collection is very valuable. Master Fitzherbert's 'Book of Husbandry' is very entertaining reading. It is reprinted from the edition of 1534, and edited with notes and a glossary by W. W. Skeat. In his introduction Mr. Skeat shows pretty conclusively that the author is none other than Sir Anthony Fitzherbert, the law-writer. Besides the ordinary affairs of the farm, Master Fitzherbert has chapters on conduct, the duties of husband and wife, etc., which reflect the spirit of the time. In particular, the cares which he prescribes for the woman ("What warkes a wyfe shulde do in generall"), "ut te diabolus inveniat occupatam," make a formidable array. The quaint and archaic character of the text we need not dwell upon. The vocabulary is a considerable addition to those already issued by the Dialect Society (Trübner & Co.).

D. Appleton & Co. have issued the second volume of their very taking Parchment edition of Shakspere's Works. The four plays included are "The Comedy of Errors," "Much Ado About Nothing," "Love's Labour's Lost," and "Midsummer Night's Dream."

Trübner & Co., 57 Ludgate Hill, London, begin publishing this month a new illustrated monthly magazine, conducted by Paul N. Hasluck, entitled *Amateur Mechanics*. Each issue will contain at least four full-page lithographs of practical working drawings, besides thirty-two pages of letter-press.

The *Living Age*, Boston, enters this month upon its 156th volume.

Life is the title of a new weekly comic paper issued at 1155 Broadway by John Ames Mitchell and Edward S. Martin. It is, by evolution, an offspring of the *Harvard Lampoon*, whose most genuine designer, Mr. F. G. Attwood, is here represented by a cartoon and by some clever initial letters and head-pieces. The drawings and the fun are much above the average of the *Lampoon*, and would be respectable anywhere. Mr. W. L. Alden and Mr. G. T. Lanigan make their mark in the opening number, which is well printed. Is there adequate support for a decorous and monochromatic *Puck?*

Hereafter the *Critic* is to be issued every week, instead of fortnightly, as heretofore.

In the *Library Journal* for December Mr. Frank S. Dobbins has an interesting communication for the guidance of those who wish to purchase Japanese sketch-books. A list of these is given, with their by no means dear prices, along with the titles of numerous books on the language and arts of the country, and directions for procuring them by mail.

The *Journal* of the Military Service Institution of the United States publishes the prize essay on "Improvements in the Art of War," during the past twenty years, and their probable effect upon future military operations. The Board of Award consisted of Generals McClellan, McDowell, and Fry, and they were unanimous in placing the essay of Lieutenant-Colonel Lazelle, Commandant of Cadets at West Point, at the head of the list of competitors. Colonel Lazelle has given a clear and valuable résumé of the approved changes which have been made in cannon and small arms, in naval and seacoast defences, in the equipment and use of cavalry, and in the construction and use of entrenchments by armies in the field. In a second part he groups the actual and probable changes in the tactics and general manœuvres of troops brought about by the improved weapons and the greatly increased range of firearms of all kinds. The limits of an essay have forced a condensation of material and the brief statement of results rather than the full discussion of the topics presented. We have, therefore, an excellent bird's-eye view of the subject, not so long as to deter the general reader from its perusal, yet full enough to make a useful synopsis for the professional soldier.

The January number of the *Magazine of American History* has for its leading article a discussion of the resting-place of the bones of Columbus, by Dr. John G. Shea, who decides in favor of the Santo Domingo pretensions. Mr. H. B. Adams concludes his discursive chat about "Plymouth Rock Restored"; and there is a sketch of the life of Sir Thomas West, third Lord De la Warr, accompanied by the first engraving ever made after his portrait at Buckhurst Park.

A tentative list of William Penn's letters relating to the settlement of his grant between the time he received it and his return to England

(1681–1684) is given in No. 23 of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of American History*. The same number contains a census of Pittsburgh in 1761, copied from MSS. in the British Museum by Mr. G. D. Scull; and some very interesting original letters and extracts from the journal of Wm. Plumer, jr., 1822–29. These are striking contemporary evidence as to John Quincy Adams's independence in disregard of his highest ambition, and as to his share in originating the "Monroe Doctrine."

The Providence Library's *Monthly Reference Lists* closes its second volume with a double number, which will usefully guide the students of our tariff legislation, as well as those interested in reading about the transits of Venus. The volume is provided with table of contents and index, and Mr. Foster relates the development of this unique publication, and promises occasional increase in size and other improvements.

From the fifteenth annual report of the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology, at Cambridge, it appears that there is a good prospect of resuming explorations, though the fund for that purpose has not yet reached the desired amount. Besides his own report, Mr. F. W. Putnam fills nearly one-half of the pamphlet with notes on the copper objects from North and South America in the Museum, which are illustrated.

Vol. I. of the Transactions of the Linnæan Society of New York is the best printed and altogether the handsomest work of the kind we have seen in this country, where learned bodies seem to be too often satisfied to have their proceedings printed without regard to excellence of mechanical execution. Its beautiful appearance is doubtless due to the zeal and liberality of Mr. L. S. Foster, the publisher, who is also the present Recording Secretary of the Society, and who contributes the frontispiece, a portrait of Linnæus, from an old engraving in his possession. More than half of the volume is occupied by Dr. C. H. Merriam's Vertebrates of the Adirondack region, which admirable paper, after a general introduction, treats the mammalia through the order Carnivora. Mr. William Dutcher discusses the winter residence of the fish crow on the northern border of its area of distribution, and Mr. E. P. Bicknell reviews the summer birds of the Catskills, with prefatory remarks on the faunal and floral features of that region. The Society is a very young one, having been founded in 1878, but would appear from this first showing of results to be a flourishing and promising organization.

N. W. Ayer & Son, Philadelphia, send us their 'American Newspaper Annual' for 1882. It is a well-arranged and well-printed volume, containing all the essential facts and statistics which should enable an advertiser to acquaint himself with the worth of advertising mediums and with the character of their patrons. The descriptions of States and counties are equivalent to a gazetteer; even their political complexion is noted.

Under the appropriate title of 'Un Écolier américain,' Mme. Th. Bentzon has put forth a French adaptation of Mr. T. B. Aldrich's 'Story of a Bad Boy.' It is published in Paris by Hetzel (New York: F. W. Christern).

The latest American additions to the Tauchnitz series are Mr. Howells's 'A Modern Instance' and Mark Twain's 'Mississippi Sketches.'

M. Théodore de Banville has recently published a most entertaining and characteristic volume called 'Mes Souvenirs' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern), and containing twenty-four short essays on the chief celebrities of France with whom he has come in contact during his long literary life. Among the more important chapters are those on Hugo, Balzac, Dumas, Gautier, and Baudelaire. Among the most amusing are the sketches of Scribe, of *Robert Macaire*, and of Nestor Roqueplan.

In defending the memory of Mgr. de Belzunce the Abbé Jauffret, of Marseilles, made certain attacks upon the Congregation of the Oratory which Father Ingold, of the Oratory, replied to in the *Bulletin Critique*. The controversy is not of much importance, and we allude to it only to mention the fact that all the Marseilles papers, anti-clerical as well as clerical, unite in defending the Marseillais Abbé against the Parisian Oratorian. That the provincial affinity should be stronger than the anti-religious affinity, that the impulse to defend a townsman should be more powerful than the impulse to cry, How these Christians hate one another—is not what we should have expected.

Le Livre for December opens with an amusing appreciation, by Champfleury, of the bibliographical worth of the stamp placed by circulating libraries upon certain productions of the Romantic era. M. Blondel also gossips pleasantly, with many personal anecdotes, about the tools of the writer—his pen, penknife, and eraser. William Beckford, his works, and particularly his 'Vathek,' are the subject of an article by H. S. Ashbee, entitled, "Englishmen who have Written in French," which will repay reading. In the miscellany we find mention of a tablet recently set up by the city authorities of Paris at No. 6 Rue du Mont-Thabor, to commemorate the fact that the poet Alfred de Musset died there May 2, 1857. Also, of an extant autograph agreement between Lamartine and Michel Lévy, concerning the sale of the former's 'Toussaint Louverture,' in which it was provided that Lamartine, should he become President of the Republic, might prohibit or suspend the sale, on reimbursing MM. Michel Lévy frères for their payments to him. The sole illustration of this number is a colored print after a binding for 'Faust,' by Amand.

We have received from the house of Henninger in Heilbronn a copy of 'Anmerkungen zu Macaulay's History of England,' by Dr. R. Thum. It is intended for the study of English, rather than of history, and the notes are rather linguistic than historical. It is a striking proof of the capacity of a modern language to serve as a basis of minute linguistic study, that we have here 154 octavo pages devoted to the elucidation of a little over a page of the author; and the notes are for the most part instructive even to English or Americans, although rather overloaded with citations of parallel and illustrative passages. We notice that, on page 137, Macaulay is called "der grösste Geschichtsschreiber dieses Jahrhunderts."

In a letter to the Cologne *Gazette*, a few weeks ago, Paul Lindau protested against the absurd custom, prevalent among German stage managers, of purchasing new plays from popular French playwrights before they know anything at all about them. As much as 6,000 francs are often paid by managers who have never seen the manuscript; sometimes when as yet nothing has been written but the title. When received, these plays are not seldom found to be worthless, and are not produced at all, or, if produced, result in a fiasco. Some of the leading managers —Hülsen, of Berlin; Perfall, of Munich; and Dingelstedt, of Vienna—have never encouraged this custom, but there was a rumor that Wilbrandt, Dingelstedt's successor at Vienna, was not so scrupulous. We notice, however, in a Vienna paper, an account of a meeting of the directors of the Burg Theatre, at which it was resolved that in future no French piece should be purchased before the manuscript had been examined. The new rule is to be applied for the first time to Sardou's "Fédora."

The sixteenth annual Exhibition of the American Water-Color Society will open at the National Academy of Design on January 29, and close on February 24.

Mr. Charles Lanman, 3035 West P Street, Washington, D. C., sends out a list of 350 sketches of American scenery which he has made, and which he offers to reproduce in oils, in portfolios of ten (or fewer) each, as subscribers may designate their preference.

—One name in the death-roll of 1882 is sufficient to give it a hardly surpassable lustre. But if science lost in Darwin the greatest light of the century, it could ill afford to miss also the promise of Francis Balfour and the younger Draper, or the good work of John W. Draper and Zöllner in astronomy, Fried. Wöhler in chemistry, Hermann Schlagintweit in geology, Luigi Palmieri (of the Vesuvius station) in seismography, and Wyville Thomson (of the *Challenger*) in deep-sea exploration. Garibaldi, again, is a military reputation of the first magnitude, but Skobeleff, too, has been blotted out before his time, with his Central Asian confrère General Kaufmann, with Ducrot and De Cissey in France, with G. K. Warren and J. G. Barnard and Silas Casey, and their political fellow-soldiers Kilpatrick and Hurlbut, in our own country. Gone, too, is Sir William Palisser, inventor of guns and projectiles. Longfellow, already admitted to the English Pantheon, and Emerson together make a splendid vacancy among the poets; but Dante Rossetti, with his double art, D. F. McCarthy, Gottfried Kinkel, Bishop Moe, and half-forgotten Barbier (of the "Iambes"), must also be commemorated. Scholarship had its shining losses, too: George P. Marsh, and the Orientalists, E. H. Palmer, John Muir, and Ernst Haas. Pusey's is the greatest name in the list of theologians; but here belong also J. J. Herzog, Bruno Bauer, and our three Unitarian divines, Henry W. Bellows, whose monument is the Sanitary Commission, Samuel Johnson, the historian of Eastern religions and author of many favorite hymns, and Orville Dewey. Trollope we shall miss, among the novelists, and Auerbach, who went sorrowing to his grave over the *Judenhetze;* but W. Harrison Ainsworth had fairly outlived his reputation. So had Mme. Céleste, the danseuse and actress, one of the few losses of the stage; and perhaps Adelaide Phillipps had passed her prime as an operatic singer.

—The sovereigns and rulers of mankind have at least mostly escaped with their lives during the past year; nor, with the notable exception of Gambetta, has death been busy with the upper walk of statesmen. Lanza, perhaps, would stand next in importance. Of American politicians, the superfluous veteran Thurlow Weed was the most famous, and we may enumerate, besides, ex-Governor C. C. Washburn, Horace Maynard, Clarkson Potter, Senator "Ben." Hill, and E. W. Stoughton, unless we choose to rank the latter rather among lawyers than among "visiting statesmen." But he would have no proper place alongside of Richard H. Dana and Theophilus Parsons. Political Economy mourns two capital representatives in Prof. Stanley Jevons and P. G. F. Le Play, in addition to the much-respected Prof. T. Cliffe Leslie. The industrial and mechanic arts have suffered in the taking off of Scott Russell, builder of the *Great Eastern* and of the iron dome of the Vienna Exposition; and still more of our own Alexander Holley. Art was bereft of one of its best critics, Charles Blanc, of William Miller, one of Turner's engravers and (what is curious) a Friend, and of H. K. Browne, the "Phiz" of Dickens's earlier illustrated works. Arthur Gilman will be remembered not only as an able

architect, but also as the promoter, if not the suggester, of the great extension of Boston westward. Henry James was perhaps too much of a metaphysician to be classed among the littérateurs; Francis George Shaw too much of a philanthropist, in spite of his translations from Mme. Sand and Zschokke. Henry Giles will long be associated with a bygone phase of the lyceum system. The Navy has fared better than the Army: Rear-Admiral John Rodgers and Admiral Pothuau are the chief figures wanting. But Commander De Long's fate may be longer spoken of than their achievements, as may the romantic experience of another Arctic explorer, Isaac I. Hayes. Two historians shall conclude our summary: François Alphonse Wey, best known outside France by his sumptuous work on Rome, and Louis Blanc, whose obituary is fresh in every one's mind.

—The last number of the Παρνασσός brings fresh evidence that the exploration of the Acropolis of Athens—although this is probably the best known, as it is the most famous site of antiquity—is still far from complete. The Athenian Archæological Society undertook last month excavations before the foundations of the small museum on the Acropolis, for the purpose of clearing away the rubbish collected there. In the course of the work have been found many antiquities worthy of notice, among them inscriptions, fragments of sculptures, a few vases of great elegance, and bronze figurines, of which one, in particular, possesses much artistic merit. A few weeks ago, there came to light on the north side of the museum, where the stratum of modern accumulation is thickest, a fine archaic marble statuette of Hera or Aphrodite. The height of the figure, which is broken in four pieces, is eighty-one centimetres. It stands facing the spectator, upon a base three centimetres high, which retains still the leaden fastenings that once attached it to its pedestal. The right hand is broken away; the left held an object, now missing—probably a bird. The goddess wears a στεφανή upon her head, and her hair, as usual in early work, is arranged in formal ringlets on the forehead. The figure preserves fairly brilliant traces of artificial coloring upon different parts of the drapery and ornaments, and also upon the eyes, hair, and sandals. In particular, there can be distinguished an ornamental meander in color upon the broad middle fold of the close-fitting χιτών. The expression of the face is characterized by the archaic hardness. Beside this statuette there was found another, of Parian marble, also representing a draped female figure, but only twenty centimetres high, and a colossal arm of Parian marble, of which the artificial coloring is well preserved.

—In a letter published in the *Bulletin Critique*, J. B. de Rossi mentions the unprecedented discovery at Pompeii of a Biblical fresco. He says that when he first heard of it he experienced an instinctive feeling of incredulity, but investigations on the spot showed him that it was genuine, that it was Biblical, and that its presence could be accounted for. It is an unmistakable Judgment of Solomon, but with as little of Oriental character in the costume or other accessories as there was of Greek or Roman in the actors who played the classical dramas of Racine and Corneille. Moreover, the figures are caricatures, with enormous heads and the lower part of the body dwindling to frogs' legs. This made it unlikely that the house where it was found was that of a Jew, who would not thus have ridiculed his faith; yet how could a pagan have ordered or conceived such a painting, the Greeks and Romans being so utterly ignorant as they were of Jewish history and legend? The neighboring fresco, however, explains the enigma. It is a Nile scene, with pigmies in burlesque attitudes, and crocodiles ready to devour them. This points for the ownership of the house, not indeed to Jews, but to Alexandrian Greeks. Rich Alexandrians appear to have affected Pompeii, since Nile scenes are common there; and Alexandrian Greeks were not at all unlikely to be acquainted with the Septuagint version of the Hebrew Scriptures.

—While the Russian high seats of learning, including the Universities of Kazan, St. Petersburg, and Kharkov, are again attracting public attention by riotous demonstrations of discontent, it is interesting to glance at the intellectual food which the Government prescribes for the students, and the regulations to which it subjects the press in general, in order to prevent the growth of seditious sentiments among learners and readers. We have before us the sixth edition of the late Professor Solovyeff's 'School Manual of Russian History,' published in St. Petersburg during the most liberal period of the reign of Alexander II. We are curious to know in what manner that renowned historian is allowed to speak of the death of Grand Duke Alexis, the son of Peter the Great, who, as everybody knows now, was racked to death in his father's prison. The voluminous Russian histories—Ustrialoff's 'Peter the Great,' for instance—no longer hide this terrible fact; but the 'School Manual' dares to say no more than that "the Czarevitch died in his dungeon." And what does this school-book tell us about the demise of Peter III., who was murdered by the courtiers who conspired with his wife and successor, Catharine II.? On the outbreak of the rising against him, "death overtook him in the suburban palace of Ropsha." And what about the equally violent death of Paul I., who was removed to make room for Alexander I.? Amid preparations for an expedition into the heart of Asia, "death overtook the Emperor." We compare Toll's 'Encyclopædic Lexicon,' also published during the freer period of the reign of the late Czar, and find in the respective notices, that Alexis "died of a blow"; that Peter III. "died suddenly at Ropsha, in the presence of A. G. Orloff, T. S. Baryatinski, and G. N. Teploff"—the murderers being thus covertly named; and that a "sudden end" which befell Paul terminated the military enterprise. Kliushnikoff's similar publication, begun under Alexander II., and completed in 1882, informs us that Alexis "died in a fort," Peter III. "in 1762," and Paul "suddenly." The last-mentioned 'Encyclopædic Dictionary' spreads the mantle of oblivion even over royal crimes committed long before the accession of the house of Romanoff, as is shown by its totally ignoring, in the notice of Novgorod, the massacre of almost all the inhabitants of that vast city by Czar Ivan the Terrible, the most stupendous butchery ever executed by a Christian monarch. It is by suppressions of facts like these that the advisers and ministers of Alexander II. and Alexander III. have striven to exclude from the minds of the Russian youth the knowledge of atrocious deeds done by Russian princes, and all idea of Russian regicide—with what effect, Nihilism, organized regicide, and the terrible 13th of March, 1881, have shown. Yet the Tolstoi of Alexander III. continues to practise as Minister of the Interior what he practised as Minister of Education before the assassination of Alexander II.; and the official preservation of darkness in schools continues to have its counterpart in student plottings in the dark, followed by "sudden deaths."

—M. Georges Perrot, in a paper read before the Académie des Inscriptions, brings forward a puzzling problem for scholars, to decipher the inscriptions of the Hittites, neither the language nor the alphabet being known—indeed, no one being sure that all the inscriptions are in the same language. A discussion of these inscriptions, and of all the Hittite monuments, has been published in the seventh volume of the Transactions of the London Society of Biblical Archæology (pp. 248-308), and M. Perrot intends to issue, as a supplement to this thesaurus, all the Hittite seals known, eighteen in number. Here is a work in which the inventive American ought to shine; but hitherto the persevering German has succeeded better with such problems, possibly helped therein by practice in deciphering the difficult characters of his own language. The Hittites, by the way, were at one time a powerful people that one would have expected to leave more track behind; their dominion extended from the Ægean Sea to the Euphrates, and from the Black Sea to Egypt. But constant wars against the Egyptians and afterward against the Assyrians exhausted them, and they disappeared from history half-a-dozen centuries before our era.

—Mr. Thomas gave the first of his popular matinées at Steinway Hall on Thursday. Taking into consideration the fact that such matinées are almost for the sole benefit of ladies, gentlemen being seldom able to attend, the audience was a good one. The concert opened with Cherubini's "Water-Carrier" overture, which was played in a spirited manner by the orchestra, although with an occasional lack of smoothness, as is apt to be the case when so delicate a composition is placed at the head of a programme. All the other orchestral work, however, was excellent. The orchestra was only half as large as it is at the Philharmonic concerts, but, owing to the acoustic superiority of Steinway Hall over the Academy of Music, it was almost equally effective. Details of orchestration and thematic treatment can be followed in Steinway Hall as in no other locality in this city. The best orchestral work was in the "Tannhäuser" overture, which was superbly rendered, and in Cowen's Scandinavian Symphony, the beauties of which become more and more manifest, and which bids fair soon to rival Raff's "Im Walde" in popularity. If the scherzo and finale were equal to the first two movements, it could be placed in the front rank of recent symphonies. The first movement contains the marrow of the whole work, the themes being pregnant, well developed, and beautifully clothed in instrumental colors. It would seem as if England were about to have a promising composer. Much may yet be expected of Mr. Cowen, who is only thirty years of age, and is now at work on another symphony which will be looked forward to with interest. The concert was almost as "high-toned" as a Philharmonic performance. We regard this as a mistake. A symphony and a classical concerto are quite in place in a classical concert, but for a "popular" concert their combined weight is too great. For the last piece nothing could be more appropriate than a good Strauss waltz. Those who have seen his operettas know that Strauss is as great a master of sentiment as of rhythm. His waltzes are not mere dance movements, but embody all the coquettish and emotional by-play of the dancing couples, and for instrumentation they are unsurpassed. For our part, we should see no objection to a Strauss waltz at a Philharmonic concert; but let us at least have one in the popular series.

—Two interesting novelties appeared on the programme of the third Philharmonic Concert on Saturday evening: a new symphony by Dvořák (pronounced Dvōrshock) and Brahms's Rhapsodie for alto solo, male chorus, and orchestra, which, although not a recent work, had never before been given at these concerts. Dvořák is a Bohemian composer, forty-two

years of age, who a few years ago was almost unknown outside of his own country. Through the influence of Liszt and Brahms his works were introduced in Germany, where at present his compositions are frequently heard, especially at chamber-music concerts. An opera of his, "The Rascally Peasant," has been produced at Prague, Dresden, and Hamburg, and favorably received, while his "Stabat Mater," too, is gradually making its way into public notice. The danger which lies in the sudden discovery of a gifted composer is the same as that which attends the sudden appearance of a new lyric "star"—the danger of exaggeration. From this Dvořák has not escaped, and the consequence is that many will be disposed to expect too much from him, and consequently suffer disappointment. Every man of genius is a Bohemian, but not every Bohemian is a man of genius, is an aphorism which Dvořák does not contradict. We do not find in his works the creative power of a Rubinstein, a Bargiel, or a Saint-Saëns to stamp his works with an unmistakable individuality. Highly gifted, he doubtless is, but it seems to us that his leading trait is ability to express commonplace ideas in neat and brilliant language. The material of his symphony is not new, but it is treated with such facility that the audience is disposed to forget the matter in the manner, especially when it has the good fortune to be interpreted by such a superb orchestra as the Philharmonic. An exception to this general statement must be made in favor of the scherzo marked Furiant, which has some of the rhythmic wildness and exotic charm of Brahms's Hungarian dances. The adagio is the weakest of the four movements, while the first and last movements are marred by the slam-bang Rossinian cadences appended, which at the present day are always the sign of an inferior order of mind that has not learned the lessons taught by Chopin, Schubert, Liszt, Wagner, and Rubinstein. The Brahms Rhapsodie is a musical setting of Goethe's 'Harzreise,' depicting a friend "Who from love's fulness Drank in misanthropy only, First despised, now a despiser," etc. It is one of the best of Brahms's compositions, the general character of which can be pretty definitely described as a combination of Schumann and Wagner. The declamatory alto solo, steeped in the melancholy of expressive orchestral discords and glowing but dark tints, was well sung by Miss Henne, whose voice only lacked power to contend against her surroundings. The male chorus of the Liederkranz coped successfully with their difficult part. The remaining two numbers, Graedener's Capriccio and Beethoven's Eighth Symphony, were interpreted with a beauty of tone, a delicacy of shading, and an energetic command of rhythm worthy of the orchestra and its conductor.

FREEMAN'S AMERICAN LECTURES.

Lectures to American Audiences. By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D., Honorary Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford. I. The English People in its Three Homes. II. The Practical Bearings of General European History. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 8vo, pp. 455.

THESE lectures contain very little that is new to persons already familiar with Mr. Freeman's writings. They afford, however, an instructive example of the method by which he has exerted a more powerful influence upon his generation than perhaps any other historian who ever lived. His historical opinions are to him vital doctrines, closely bound in with the destinies of the English race. He has lost no opportunity, in these twenty years, of enforcing them by repetition, enlargement, and illustration, and in most dogmatic style; and the English-speaking people, as the result of this unwearying propagandism, have come at last to accept them in the main. These characteristics are the characteristics of the two courses of lectures contained in this volume. It must be confessed that Mr. Freeman approaches the American public somewhat in the spirit of a missionary, as if the American public had not been reading his books for twenty years. The first course is precisely adapted to an audience that had never heard of Mr. Freeman or of "the English people in their three homes." The thought is excessively diluted, but it is agreeably stated, and will prepare the neophyte very satisfactorily for the stronger meat of the second course.

This second course is altogether admirable. The reader who is already somewhat acquainted with his author will often find diffuseness even here, but for an audience of listeners nothing could be better. The subjects of the six lectures which compose it are: "Causes and their Effects," "The Democratic City" (Athens), "The Aristocratic City" (Rome), "The Ruling City and its Empire" (Rome again, with Venice and Bern), "The Elder and the Newer England," and "Rome Transplanted" (Constantinople). This last is an admirable example of what the whole series makes its aim—the application of the lessons of history to the problems of to-day. This is not saying that what Mr. Freeman has done is always well, but that it is always exceedingly well done. Mr. Freeman hates Austria and Turkey more intensely than seems to us necessary—not more intensely, perhaps, than their history would justify, but more intensely than, in the case of Austria at least, present conditions would appear to justify. Such a nation as (the so-called) Austria certainly has no real personality, as Mr. Freeman excellently shows; and we are not to ascribe to her any such sentiment as gratitude, justice, or even repentance for her long-continued oppression of subject nationalities. Yet Austria has entered on the path of constitutional reform.

Some may be inclined to take exception to Mr. Freeman's cardinal doctrine—the identity of the English race in its three homes. The Norman Conquest in its second home, the enormous Irish and German emigration in its third home—to say nothing of the not inconsiderable infusion of Scandinavian, Slav, and Romance elements—appear to have wholly destroyed the homogeneousness of the race and made it in the highest degree mixed. For the matter of that, philologists are careful to explain that, when two languages are shown to have a genetic connection, it does not necessarily follow that the people who speak them are kin to each other. Nobody can tell how mixed the English people may have been even in their first home in Jutland; and in Britain we have little doubt that there was a much larger survival of the native population than Mr. Freeman would have us understand. But, if "blood is thicker than water," there is something thicker even than blood—kinship in thought and sentiment, the inheritance of civilization. For example: we are glad to have the mythology and legend of our Teutonic ancestors made more familiar to us, and we do not undervalue the light they throw upon our ways of thought, and especially our institutions. But, after all, our relationship to the old Teutons is chiefly that of blood—the Greeks are the ancestors of our civilization; the 'Iliad' will always be nearer to people of the English race than the 'Nibelungen Lied,' and Zeus and Athena than Odin and Thor. We do not hesitate, therefore, to agree with Mr. Freeman that, with all the heterogeneous elements which are mingled in our nationality, we are still English by virtue of inherited memories, associations, language, and institutions, as well as blood.

Mr. Freeman's comments and criticisms upon our political machinery and methods are always sagacious and worthy of consideration; whether in praise or blame, they are always made in a friendly and sympathetic spirit. We note here the interesting remarks, page 379, which serve to enforce Mr. Gamaliel Bradford's favorite theme—the desirability of allowing Cabinet officers a seat in one of the houses of Congress. Those of our people who are in the habit of regarding the constitution of our Senate as unequal and unjust to the large States, will find here cogent reasons (*e.g.*, pp. 270 and 392) in favor of this arrangement, as well on historical grounds as on grounds of permanent expediency. And this leads us to speak of Mr. Freeman as a political historian, which we should call his favorite rôle. His remarks upon political and constitutional questions are always full of instruction; nevertheless, we should say that he belongs to a class of writers whose tendency it is to exaggerate the importance of *machinery*—of constitutional forms—as much as writers of the school of Herbert Spencer are inclined to undervalue it. This is illustrated on page 328, where he points out, as has often been done before, the fatal defect of the Roman constitution in wanting the principle of representation. No doubt this was a serious—we may call it a fatal—defect; but, if we look the situation squarely in the face, can we think that even representation could have saved the Roman republic? Whom was it to represent? We are not disposed to overstate the corruption of ancient Rome. There has been more than one period in Christian times when society was as bad as it appears to have been in Rome; and such times of social decay often seem to have the power of exciting a reaction against their own foulness. But there was a disease in the Roman state far more deadly than the anarchical constitution, far more incurable than the corruption of society—that is, slavery. Roman society was founded upon slavery; and although slavery in its primitive and patriarchal form is a natural and perhaps wholesome institution, and although in all its phases there are certain virtues which it fosters and promotes, yet slavery in its *speculative* stage—which Roman slavery had reached at this period—is the deadly enemy of free institutions. A republican government requires a substantial middle class, and a middle class cannot exist in the presence of slavery. The real cause of the fall of the Roman republic was that a middle class, or free peasantry, no longer existed or could exist.

On the whole, these two lectures on Rome give an admirable sketch of the constitutional development of that city. Mr. Freeman is generally very happy in his analogies and illustrations, but we must think that he has missed the real meaning of the term *patres*, as applied to the heads of the Roman families (p. 286). He says that the name "in its origin meant no more than such plain names as *goodman*, *housefather*, and the like." But *goodman* is a neighborly term; *housefather* is a domestic title; the Roman *patres* were the heads of patriarchal groups, which they ruled with absolute authority. The association was a wholly different one, carrying with it from the first, as we suppose, that vigorous conception of authority which is so characteristic of the Romans. We find on page 330 a statement which is certainly true, but expresses only half the truth, and leaves out the most vital part: "The position of Diocletian and Constantine was one into which the position of the first Augustus gradually grew; it was one which gradually changed into the position of the last Francis." It is very true that both

of these changes were in a sense gradual; but to say only this implies that all this succession of changes was the result of a natural process of evolution. These remarks appear to fall in with the common, superficial opinion that the establishment of the Empire was the most radical change made in the Roman constitution; surely, it would be said, the change from republic to monarchy is a more fundamental one than that from limited to absolute monarchy. But the establishment of the Roman Empire was an act which lay directly in the line of the development of the Roman constitution; there was not a new principle or institution introduced—only a new combination of old principles and institutions. The reorganization by Diocletian and Constantine, on the other hand, was a fundamental change, bringing in new principles and usages *from outside*. It was not in any sense a development of purely Roman forces, but at best a development of principles introduced since the establishment of the Empire. Mr. Seeley has very well characterized one feature of it in saying that Augustus lived as a private gentleman, and Constantine as a Sultan. Now Mr. Freeman recognizes and states the fact—substance of monarchy without the form in Augustus, form without the substance in Francis II., both combined in Constantine; but he does not emphasize the point that needs emphasis. The reorganization of Diocletian and Constantine was the most important turning-point in secular history; the end of ancient history—the homogeneous development of Roman institutions having come to an end; the beginning of those forms and ideas of government which have had control throughout modern history. It is a weak point in Mr. Freeman's favorite doctrine of the continuity of history that it fails to recognize in full the momentous character of this revolution, but assumes that modern history is nothing but a continuation of ancient.

RECENT NOVELS.

A Modern Instance. A Novel. By W. D. Howells. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

Kinley Hollow. A Novel. By G. H. Hollister. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Hester Stanley at St. Mark's. By Harriet Prescott Spofford. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Three Vassar Girls Abroad. By Lizzie W. Champney. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

Towhead. By S. P. McLean. Boston: A. Williams & Co.

A Noble Name. By Claire von Glümer. Translated by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Of High Degree. By Charles Gibbon. [Harper's Franklin Square Library.]

Her Crime. [No Name Series] Roberts Bros.

Cupid, M. D. By Augustus M. Swift. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Césette. From the French of Emile Pouvillon. By Charles William Woolsey. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Life Among My Ain Folk. By William Alexander. Edinburgh: David Douglas.

Rachel's Inheritance; or, Damocles. By Margaret Veley. [Harper's Franklin Square Library.]

Rachel's Share of the Road. [Round Robin Series.] Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

All Sorts and Conditions of Men. An Impossible Story. By Walter Besant and James Rice. [Harper's Franklin Square Library.] Illustrated.

Two on a Tower. A Novel. By Thomas Hardy. [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

Mr. Howells has written a very striking novel which every one praises for its life-like fidelity to nature, and no one seems to like thoroughly. The plot and characters are drawn from ordinary New England life, of which Mr. Howells has made a most conscientious study. For any one who wishes to understand a certain aspect—and a very important aspect—of this life, there cannot be any better introduction to it than through 'A Modern Instance.' There may be found in any New England village one or more Bartley Hubbards, predestined by their natural "smartness" and want of principle to early success and popularity and also to later ruin. There are also in any New England village one or more Marcias, high-spirited and interesting girls, provided with a refinement and education which disqualify them for their ordinary, commonplace surroundings, and fill them with aspirations of a kind that doom their lives to disappointment. Such a girl as Marcia of course falls in love with such a clever young man as Bartley. He is altogether the most likely person in the place to please her fancy. All the rest follows naturally in its order. Exactly what part in the story Mr. Howells intended Marcia's jealousy to play is difficult to see, for it does not seem to contribute actively to the catastrophe. She is a devoted wife, and her jealousy is hardly tragic. It is Bartley's innate rascality, which the discerning reader is allowed to see from the outset, that makes it inevitable that the pair should go from bad to worse, until he meets his well-deserved end at the hands of the victim of a "personal paragraph."

Without attempting to analyze the causes which give the novel its disagreeable flavor—though we suggest that it is perhaps owing to the fact that every reader, however good or refined, feels in himself or herself a resemblance to some one of the common American types with which it is filled—we shall simply say that as a work of moral fiction 'A Modern Instance' is unequalled. It is a picture of the career of a rascal of the most frequent American pattern. He is neither cruel nor a slave of his passions, nor has he any desire to sacrifice others to himself. On the contrary, he is very good-natured and amiable, and likes to see everybody happy about him. But of honor or principle he has no idea whatever. In fact, for the old-fashioned notion of principle he has substituted a new idea—that of the primary importance of "smartness"—*i. e.*, of that quality which enables a man to get ahead of his fellows by short cuts, dodges, tricks and devices of all kinds that just fall short of, and easily degenerate into, crime.

'Kinley Hollow' is a novel of New England life of a by-gone time, the period being that of three generations since, when the old Puritan régime had a strong hold upon the minds and habits of the population of that part of the country. The tone of the book, however, is essentially modern, so that the grim Puritan father, who does what he can to preserve the traditions about holy living and dying prevalent in the time of Cotton Mather, strikes the reader as a rather unsubstantial and ghostly person, asphyxiated in an alien sentimental atmosphere. The hero is easily identified as belonging to a type confined to no particular country or period. He is an unmitigated and irreclaimable prig, and as such he is born, lives, loves, and even marries the heroine, who had formerly loved an unworthy rival. The rival, a depraved though clever man, first comes to a bad end, as he richly deserves, and the hero comes within an ace of being hung for his murder, and, in fact, could not possibly have escaped execution had it not been for the sudden, and to us entirely expected, arrival of a witness who is able at the last moment to exculpate him. It must not be supposed from this that 'Kinley Hollow' is an over-exciting book. It can be read by very young persons without danger to their nerves. It is, in fact, permeated by a gentle dulness which is irresistible. There is just enough of a plot to lead the reader on from page to page, and little enough of one to make it a matter of indifference how closely he attends to the minor details of its development. He can skip here and there, but he will find it out of the question, when the dulness of the tale has once thrown its spell fairly over him, to lay it down unfinished. There is an infinite quiet about the style, which produces a sort of literary nirvana in the reading.

That an author with something of a reputation to stake should let her name be attached to such a farrago of nonsense as the tale of 'Hester Stanley at St. Mark's' would have been beforehand incredible. The school at Waterways is described as "a Pandemonium, a place of yelling girls." The principal, Miss Marks, has grace and sweetness enough to win from her pupils the sobriquet of St. Mark's, but what shall be said of her wisdom, when she employs as her chief assistant a woman "who shakes a girl till her teeth chatter," and, for an escapade as harmless as creeping to a distant bed in the dormitory, administers a cold douche from the shower bath? Anything beyond a strenuous warning against such a book would be a waste of words.

'Three Vassar Girls Abroad' might suggest a fair vision of grave, sweet maidens, steadied and yet softened by the study of the humanities, setting forth on a foreign journey with an eagerness all the fresher and keener for its intelligence. Such a vision will be rudely dispelled by the sight of the pretty babyish faces upon the smart cover of the book; and a further acquaintance with the heroines will only make the reader add the adjectives, flippant and shallow. Barbara is, by her own showing, "a harum-scarum thing," with no idea of the use of *shall* and *will* (nor has the author herself, for that matter). Cecilia makes "ecclesiological pilgrimages." Maud, "who detests Latin, . . . is devoted to art. She will never marry; nobody could induce her." These are the three who, under the guidance of Maud's sister, "Mrs. Arnold, who, though their senior, was far more frivolous than any one of the girls," travel up and down France and Spain according to the exigencies of the case, the "case" being to use a sufficient number of full-page illustrations which have already done duty in well-known books. It is a reversal of the "Granger" plan of making a book, some sentences being positively dragged in to make an excuse for a picture. It is a little too much when the party are set to telling dull stories for the sake of putting in a whole set of Indian temples and palaces. The original illustrations are clever renderings of the commonplaces of travel, but to portray a young woman who quotes George Herbert ("she breathed it as a prayer") in a costume of extreme fashion and a coiffure of the last absurdity, is a sort of sacrilege for which the author is as much to blame as the artist. The book may entertain some girls of ten and twelve, who will skip the pages from the guide-book, but it has no relation whatever to genuine college life, and Vassar students, one and all, may well say, "Surely mine enemy hath done this."

No one need be at any pains to overcome the unpleasant impression produced by the title 'Towhead,' for the book only goes from bad to worse. The least of the heroine's misdeeds are clever evasions, and the worst of them would have brought ineffaceable, irretrievable disgrace. The description of a great boarding-school is meant to be recognized, but it is so clumsily, so absurdly, done, that one wonders not at the weak

points, the overstrictness of a well-meant system, but at the blindness, the hardness, which could fail so signally to understand the merits of it. As to the life in a Western college, if the tale could be proved true, it would behoove the friends of "co-education" to suppress it outright, but happily it cannot be true: it is only a medley of flippant trash. Does the unfortunate tone of this book point a moral as to the risks of a facile or an accidental success?

'A Noble Name' gives the purposes and cross-purposes of the grandchildren of the aged head of the house of Dönninghausen, a house "whose members," according to his pronouncement, "are not in the world solely to enjoy themselves, but to do their confounded duty as far as they can, and fulfil their responsibilities." There is a suspicion that the translator and not the irate old Freiherr is responsible for the peculiar description of duty. The book is little above the average, but it will not come amiss to people who must have a novel. They will find in it good and ill duly portioned out, whether as regards conduct or its rewards and punishments.

Only the inveterate novel-reader will have patience with the much-involved plot in 'Of High Degree,' the nucleus of which is the will of a certain crotchety Mr. Dottridge. There is the will as the hero supposes it to be, the will as the good heroine thinks it, the will after the idea of the bad though at last repentant heroine, and finally the real will, which only the villain of the play knows of, besides its eccentric maker. The latter was intended as a sort of beneficent "deus ex machina" who would test the character of his relatives and friends by means of the will; but unluckily for our estimate of his high-mindedness, it ends in his securing the sweet and gentle Ruth for himself. It looks a little as if the story had run away with the author himself, and carried him whither he had no intention of going.

The plot of 'Her Crime' is more than farcical, for that is at least possible. This requires us to believe that a woman can personate another woman for many months, deceiving a whole troop of hotel servants, her own friends, and even her husband. It could not detain a reader except for the curious skill with which the narrator's point of view is kept. It would seem to be the result of a happy accident, else how could it have been spent on such an absurd plot? There is a similar discrepancy between the merit of some of the dialogue and the triteness of the illustrations and anecdotes. One may expect from such a writer something better—or something worse?

'Cupid, M. D.,' may be called "a wolf in sheep's clothing," or anything else which means false pretences. It is a rather meagre sketch of the method of cure for the passion of opium-eating. Of the essentials for a novel—plot, setting, dialogue—it has *nil*. A comparison with the bright, pretty sketch by Spielhagen, 'Der Vergnügungs-Commissar,' will show what genius can do with very similar materials.

Émile Pouvillon is a new name among French writers, but his brave little shepherdess, 'Césette,' deserves a cordial welcome. It is a Phyllis and Corydon story, but a Phyllis and Corydon of the real, practical nineteenth century, not out of the gay, smiling Watteau landscape. It is as realistic as the most thoroughgoing of the school, but with that sort of realism which loves to choose the sweet and the wholesome. Life on those stony fields of Southern France is toilsome; the peasant's lot is humble and homely enough; but in it the author has found all the elements of the true pastoral. The ploughing, the hay-making, the sheep-tending, the chestnut gathering, all are so many opportunities for Love to work his spells. The peasant is hard-handed and clear-headed, but there is a tender honest heart within his breast. The young man will calculate shrewdly about his prospects in view of marriage: "'Two pistoles!' Jordi repeated reflectively; 'that's a great deal of money for one sheep.'" But in the very same moment, looking into Césette's eyes—"two liquid drops of azure blue"—he can say, "'It's true I was charmed, and charmed I will stay.'" The translation is a rare success, reproducing, in vigorous, picturesque English, much of that rapid movement which the predilection of the French for short sentences gives to their prose.

'Life Among My Ain Folk' is made up of five sketches of people of much the same class in life in Scotland as those in 'Césette.' It is a life under ruder, sterner conditions, and the impression left is most painful, even though we admire their patient endurance of the ills of their lot. Political economists would have us believe it is to the land systems of the two countries that the difference is due, and Mr. Alexander's most pathetic story, "The Sharger Laddie," is meant for an illustration of the hardship of breaking up the cotters' homes, thus driving them far from their work. Certainly the French peasant lives under a kindlier sky. There is more light, more joy in the accessories of his life.

The story of Rachel Conway will be interesting rather than pleasing to the reader, for it is an unbroken succession of "might have beens." Like the sunset she failed of when a child—"it is gone forever, and I can never know what it was like!" As to setting and details, it is carefully and evenly worked out, and the quiet coloring of the whole makes strange incidents seem only exceptional rather than unnatural. The sketch of Adam Lauriston, however, lacks distinctness, and all the more because it is not clear whether the author meant him to be an enigma, or has left him one for want of skill to solve her own riddle. Be that as it may, it is an unfortunate break in an otherwise well-constructed story that it is only from the garrulous chatter of a vulgar and a not strictly sober old woman, that Rachel discovers her misapprehension of Lauriston's early life. It is an unnecessary shock that the veil so carefully drawn by the husband should be torn aside by so coarse a hand. As mere plot, an old letter or a forgotten journal would have been better. The tone of the book is dreary, and the best consolation that can be offered is, "If you will look for what is beautiful, each day may bring you something," and the best hope is in "time." "There should be a certain lapse of time, something vague in the way of summers, and winters, and changing scenes." The only book in the story is a volume of French poems, "telling of regret, of agony, of defiance, of endurance," and the sombre tints of the picture have no relief until the last. The close is unexpected, but it may be the author's recognition of the fact that no life is all dark, that we leave Rachel, even with the doom of her family still before her, yet with the smile of a child to brighten a life of tranquil, even though qualified, content.

The second Rachel on our list is a simpler soul, without traditions or legacies to trouble her. The daughter of a railway king, wrapped in all luxury, her heart is loving and her foot and hand are ready. Out of three little sentences her character may easily be constructed. The author says of her: "She of the sheltered shady nook had a tender spot in her heart for those of the rough highway." The disappointed suitor comforts himself with the reflection: "After all, there are times when it would be exceedingly inconvenient to have an exaggerated conscience for one's household divinity." But the accepted lover, remembering how the world judges men who marry heiresses, says to himself: "It may think exactly what it pleases. She is well worth enduring that for, my peerless Ray." He is himself so much to be liked, that it is a pity there are not more such men to marry heiresses. Rachel's opportunity lies among the few workmen upon the road with whom she comes in contact; and it is in the skilful management of incidents essentially melodramatic, such as railroad strikes, shop-burnings, and the like, that the great merit of the book is shown. To use so much of them, and no more, as shall bring out the individual characteristics of the personages of the story requires a power of reserve not often found out of the foremost rank of novelists. The story is not much more than a sketch, but the firm, delicate outlines, the clear, pure color, prove a hand that might succeed in more elaborate work. It is by far the best of the "Round Robin" series. Even "The Tallahassee Girl" equals it only in parts. It has throughout that same fineness of quality which made 'Is That All?' so much the choicest of the "No Name" series.

The literary firm of Rice and Besant has been dissolved, as the novel-reading public learned with real regret some months since, by the death of Mr. Rice, and it will probably be a long time before we have such successful collaboration in English fiction as they have given us. They worked together with the same ease that is so often displayed in conjoint French authorship, and each managed to conceal perfectly his individuality. One or both of them was gifted with a sort of French vivacity of description and narration which prevented their stories from ever being dull, and one or both of them had a considerable power of humorous caricature—enough to make extravagant characters entertaining when most unreal. 'All Sorts and Conditions of Men' is by no means their best story, but a good deal of amusement may be got out of it. A young lady, who undertakes a sort of philanthropic millinery-mission, under an assumed name, in the east end of London, is the heroine, and the scene is laid, during a considerable part of the story, in an East End boarding-house, where we make the acquaintance, among other queer characters, of an American heir, who has come over to England to get his rights and be restored to his title. He and his wife, respectable citizens of Canaan City, New Hampshire, are known among their friends as Lord and Lady Davenant, but their claim to the name has not received legal recognition, owing to a difficulty in making out the chain of descent. This difficulty is never overcome, but they, like almost everybody else in the book, are taught a wholesome lesson, and kindly provided for out of the ample purse of the benevolent heroine. The story is weakened by the unnecessary amount of philanthropy which is infused into it by the authors; so far as this is concerned, the tale is, as they say, "impossible," and, while we do not object to impossibilities when they entertain us, it is difficult to make the details of a comprehensive scheme of social improvement attractive, even with the aid of extravagance. The novel is one to be skimmed through rather than read.

'Two on a Tower' is a strange mixture of love and astronomy, in which it cannot be said that either shows at its best. If the undevout astronomer is mad, the astronomer affected by love appears to be a fool, nor does the science seem to have the slightest effect in steadying the female intellect. The consequence is that Swithin St. Cleeve and Lady Constantine have a miserable time of it, and whether the gain to astronomy is really a compensation for their sufferings we cannot say, for the author does not enable us to understand distinctly how great the gain is. Mr. Hardy undoubtedly might say in reply to this criticism that it was not his object to teach any moral with regard to the relations of love

and astronomy; but then what did he write the novel for? There is an obscurity about his intentions which needs clearing up, and the critic is compelled to grope through the maze which he presents us, for a clew. Mr. Hardy, by the way, introduces in the course of the story a detective device, which is, we believe, novel. Lady Constantine's brother Louis, in order to gain a knowledge of Swithin's nocturnal movements, stretches a spider's web across his door from jamb to jamb. After a time, he finds that it is gone. The inference made by Louis is that some one has passed through the door; and such is what proves to be the case. In actual life, it might not be easy to adopt this simple plan, owing to the frequent difficulty of finding a web when wanted; but in fiction the idea is excellent, and will no doubt be made further use of.

Hours with Art and Artists. By G. W. Sheldon. D. Appleton & Co.

THIS is a showy book of average quality. It is made up of adulatory paragraphs on popular American and foreign painters, and accompanied by twelve steel and eighty-nine wood engravings in illustration of their works. There is little in these pictures of real excellence—little that shows a genuine aspiration. On the contrary, they are largely calculated to please the average uncultivated taste of the moment. The woodcut from Boughton's "Autumn," for instance, represents a stupid and expressionless young woman, in ultra "æsthetic" costume, leaning, in a meaningless way, against a garden wall, which, with the distant landscape, forms a background like those painted ones sometimes employed by photographers. The thing is without beauty of design in pose of figure, fold of drapery, or arrangement of accessory, and it by no means does justice to Mr. Boughton as an artist. Then there is an early design, by Mr. F. A. Bridgman, of an "American Circus in France," which is as utterly wanting in good qualities of art as the commonest illustrations of the illustrated weekly newspapers. Compared with such works as these, the frank and strong, though coarse and artless, realism of Detaille and De Neuville, whose designs follow, is refreshing. There is an example of the art of Toulmouche bearing characteristic likeness to a cleverly wrought fashion plate, and an overcharged steel engraving from a picture of ragged children by Doré. One or two of Fortuny's theatrical subjects are followed by a half-nude figure by Landelle, well engraved on wood by Linton. There is a thoroughly vulgar and clap-trap female figure by Beyschlag, a poor steel engraving from a truly sweet little design by E. Frère, and a feeble landscape on steel after Birket Foster. Two woodcuts by Linton, after fanciful pictures by Barth and Knuepfer respectively, are remarkable—as Mr. Linton's work usually is—for the rendering of tones; but it is a pity, we think, that Mr. Linton's artistic feeling and skill should be thrown away on such work. Again, two woodcuts after Corot, and one after Millet, show truer feeling and more earnest purpose. There is a graceless and repulsive partly nude figure by Regnault, a design by Gérôme, a cut from Couture's famous "Roman Orgie," and illustrations of the works of Meissonier, Bouguereau, Zamacoïs, Vibert, and others.

Then come examples after our younger American artists: a characterless design, called "Summer Afternoon," and a facsimile of a figure-sketch, by Beckwith; a study of an ugly male model by Thayer; three reproductions of works by Chase, of which that called "Impudence" is beyond adequate characterization for vulgarity, both of conception and treatment. The facsimiles of sketches by Winslow Homer are artlessly natural. The disgusting study of a head, by Stinger, is a thing that ought never to have been painted, and much less ought it to be shown. There are two fallacious Venetian vagaries by Gedney Bunce, two studies by J. G. Brown, a sketch by Samuel Coleman, a pretty one by Bellows; also studies by Sartain, Quartley, and Bricher; two heads of common models, and a repulsively ugly, badly-drawn, and badly-painted study by Wyatt Eaton, and sketches by Shurtleff, Smillie, and Champney. Finally, we are presented with pictures of six "æsthetic" studios—those of Mr. Humphrey Moore, Mr. Coleman, Mr. Dolph, Mr. Tiffany, Mr. R. Swain Gifford, and Mr. W. M. Chase respectively. In short, the book presents a fair illustration of what may be called the present fashionable forms of painting, both Continental and American, as interpreted by engraving on wood and steel. But it contains nothing whatever of high or sterling quality.

Studies in Early English Literature. By Emelyn W. Washburn. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THIS book is good enough in parts for one to wish it might be made good as a whole. It does not add, and it does not pretend to add, anything to what is already known; nor can it claim the merit of clear and consistent arrangement. The author, indeed, deals with special subjects designedly rather than with the general development of early English literature, which is here made to extend to the age of Elizabeth and even later. Yet, in spite of the rather fragmentary character of the treatment, a good deal of the matter is interestingly told; and in the earlier portion particularly the statements are generally to be trusted. Singularly enough, the worst failure in accuracy is in the chapter which has for its subject the greatest of early English authors. It is putting it mildly to say that the knowledge here displayed is forty years behind the times. Surely, a writer who puts down as authorities the publications of the Chaucer Society ought not to attribute to the poet at this late day the composition of 'The Testament of Love,' or repeat the fictions about his education at Cambridge and Oxford, or his imprisonment and exile. These, indeed, have now been exploded long enough to begin to be driven from those strongholds where ancient errors of this kind make their last stand—the school manuals of English literature. Nor is the author more familiar with the language and writings of Chaucer than with his life. The adverb *thries*, introduced in a quotation, is spoken of as an adjective with plural inflection. *Yaf* is given as a Saxon form for *gave;* there is a general impression among students that *geaf* is the Saxon form, and that *yaf* would be an impossible one to our earliest speech. 'The Romaunt of the Rose' is spoken of as a translation, or, rather, paraphrase. It would be difficult, it is pretty safe to say impossible, to find a poetical version in the English tongue which runs so close to the original, line for line, as does 'The Romaunt of the Rose,' whoever it was that translated it. Such statements disprove the author's assertion, in the introductory note, of inability to say anything new, as it is to be hoped, for the credit of earlier writers, do also the extraordinary remarks about the "outlandish Anglo-Norman" of Chaucer, and the "euphuism of the Court" of England in his time. These are but a few of many errors in this one chapter; but it would be most unjust to regard it as a fair specimen of the whole work. A controversial tone is given to the latter part of the book by remarks, rather foreign to the subject, on the English Church and Calvinism; but this is a matter of opinion and taste with which a reviewer has nothing to do.

Frontier Army Sketches. By James W. Steele. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1883.

THESE dozen and a half studies are, except two or three, not of the Army but are inspired by it. The author, an officer for a short time, used his perceptive faculties well, and after long years of waiting has printed these impressions of the remote Southwest. It is very well that he has done so. The literary grace is not always the highest—there are occasional passages suggesting the prosaic army mule rather than Pegasus—but he has told some things worth telling, and has told them well. His captions are not always fortunate—"Captain Jinks" is an eulogium on the average officer who is neither parodied nor represented by the doggerel prototype, and "Copper Distilled" by no means conveys the author's idea of incarnate demonism. The dialect is not always perfect, and the tales are unequal; but it is easier to cavil than to create, and few of those familiar with the scenes here sketched have a hand as graphic. Still, there are lapses from good taste, and enough that is undignified and unprofitable to compel but qualified praise of the whole.

Natural objects are well described and so are men in classes; and we particularly commend, as impressive and truthful, the account of New Mexican common life to those Congressmen who may be thinking of the admission of that Territory. New Mexico should stay out, if for a century, until colonized with blood that shall not merely dominate but shall purify, if that be possible, the native currents. It is a pity that the author did not, at least in one instance where he might as well have done so, adhere more closely to actual topography. After describing a distant view of Pike's Peak, using unconsciously ground but a few miles west from where Zebulon Pike first saw the famous mountain, he seems to confuse Bent's Old Fort with Old Fort Lyon, and by implication to transport them across the Arkansas. Chicquita's story is an invention; but then the terrestrial points of departure need not be transposed. We hope the writer may have the opportunity to remove the occasional blemishes.

On Horseback, in the School, and on the Road. By Edward L. Anderson. Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

THIS is a small book of some merit. Its best features are the defence in its introduction of the school training of both horse and rider—a defence which is quite unanswerable—and an excellent statement of the principle that successful management of the horse can be compassed only by a combination of good temper, courage, and good judgment. Mr. Anderson well says:

"It serves no good purpose to irritate a horse, as he will never yield while angry. . . . A rebuke in a harsh voice will generally suffice to correct a horse, and he will not know how to resent it. The best way to control the horse is through firmness and kindness, but timidity is worse than severity in inducing vice. . . . If upon an occasion he declines to perform some movement that is required of him, let his attention be turned to that which will please him. . . . To give up to him after a battle will confirm his obstinacy, but he will soon forget his unnoticed defiance."

As a guide to beginners of both sexes the book contains some good new points and a good restatement of old ones, but it is neither original nor striking as a whole. Its value is lessened by what may be called its *manége* jargon—an English rendering of the literary style of Baucher. For example, how is an American beginner in horsemanship to understand this: "In turning to the right or to the left, the rein of the side to which the

change of direction is to be made will be drawn toward the rider's body and the opposite heel will be pressed in to bring up the hind quarters upon the new line"? or this: "As the legs act on the forces of the croup, and as the hand directs the forces of the forehead, it will be seen that the rider can bring about a union and balance of those forces and obtain immediate and distinct control of the mare"? or this: "The approximate equilibrium must be constant, for the moment that it is lost altogether the horse becomes heavy, and one extremity or the other must drag in action"?

This is all perfectly true, and it might have been made lucid by avoiding the dialect of the riding-school, unfamiliar elsewhere, and using, as does Mr. March Phillips, in his capital 'Horse and Man,' plain, every-day English. Mr. Anderson says that the gallop is "a succession of leaps." Muybridge's photographs show this not to be the case.

Practical Hints on Camping. By Howard Henderson. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.

THIS is meant to furnish intending campers with complete directions for an outfit and how to use it. In fact, the list of requirements is so complete as to be discouraging, consisting of nearly two hundred items—or rather more, we should suppose, than would be required to start housekeeping with. However, the list is useful as one of articles to be selected from. We notice that although a pocket-flask and corkscrew are mentioned, along with a "small-sized Bible" and "whistle," nothing is said of any bottles, without which the corkscrew would certainly be superfluous. There are some good hints on the sanitary arrangements of camps, which are almost always neglected; instructions on the rod and line, evidently not from the personal experience of the writer, but perhaps all the better on that account; also, a chapter on shooting, and a very useful one on accidents and ailments, which should be in the hands or head of every one spending any time in the woods.

Eras and Characters of History. By William R. Williams. Harper & Bros. 1882.

No prefatory remark tells us how this book originated, or for what purpose it was written. But the almost equal number of pages allotted to each of its twelve divisions, and the uniformly religious tenor of its contents, strongly indicate that we have here twelve short lectures, delivered before an audience demanding edification no less than historical instruction. The characters and "eras" depicted are Nero and Paul; Titus and the Apostle John; Monasticism; Augustine and Chrysostom; Buddhism; Wyckliffe, Savonarola, and Huss; Mahometanism; the Crusades; Luther; Calvin; Knox; the Puritan and the Mystic. The sketches are animated and flavored with details of an attractive kind, the facts given require little research and often would not bear criticism, and the characterizations are far from profound. The style is correct, though not seldom unpleasantly turgid, and the tone unexceptionally devout. Those for whom it was written will read the book with delight, and admire, perhaps, no less the liberalism than the sound orthodoxy of the author, on meeting with sentences like the following: "Italy could far better afford to lose the magnificent Cathedral of Milan . . . than that it should have missed the glory and the impulse lent its literature by the great epic of Dante," or hearing him extol the beneficent activity of modern Jews, and the merits of such pagan writers of old as Virgil, Horace, and Juvenal. Readers of opposite leanings, especially those strongly tainted with heresies like the theory of evolution, will probably not proceed beyond the author's description, in the first section or lecture, of the continuance down to our times of the struggle between error and truth, as typified in Nero and St. Paul.

Libyan Vocabulary. An Essay toward Reproducing the Ancient Numidian Language out of Four Modern Tongues. By Francis William Newman, Emeritus Professor of University College, London. London: Trübner & Co. 1882. 16mo, pp. 204.

MR. NEWMAN undertakes the useful task of bringing together vocabularies of the Kabail, Shilha, Ghadamsi, and Tuarik dialects, which are scattered through various books, and not always given in intelligible form. The Libyan family (sometimes called Berber) is an interesting one, approaching in its inflections the Egyptian and the Cushite (Abyssinian), yet distinct from these, and offering several noteworthy peculiarities. Newman has carefully examined Brosselard's Dictionary, Hanoteau's Grammar, and the lists of words and grammatical information furnished by Barth, Freeman, Delaporte, and others; and, in addition to the vocabularies, he gives a comparative view of the pronouns, prepositions, adverbs, and verbal inflections. But he has done very little toward the reconstruction of the ancient tongue. The title of his book should rather be: 'A Collection of Materials to Aid in Reproducing the Ancient Numidian Language.' He seems not to be acquainted with Friedrich Müller's essay on these dialects, nor with Faidherbe's Grammar of the Zenaga. The value of the book is also somewhat impaired by the uncouth system of transcription he has adopted, which is similar to that which he employs in his 'Dictionary of Modern Arabic,' published in 1871. He is possibly right in his opinion that the Eastern languages should be written in Roman characters for the use of Western students, but he is not fortunate in his selection of equivalents; so far from confining himself to Western letters, indeed, he introduces a number of strange figures which are as hard to remember as Arabic, and much less distinctive to those who will probably be students of the Libyan dialects; and why should he represent English *sh* by *x*? Still, his collections of words are convenient, and he has taken special pains to discover the correct pronunciation of words from the reports of explorers. On page 31 occurs a statement which may be misleading: he gives the Tuarik form *yergel* or *irgel* as aorist, and remarks in a note that this answers to the Arabic and Hebrew perfect; in fact, it answers in form, and largely in meaning, to the Semitic imperfect.

Commentar zu Kant's Kritik des reinen Vernunft. Zum hundertjährigen Jubiläum derselben herausgegeben von Dr. H. Vaihinger, Privat-Docent an der Universität Strassburg. Erster Band. Stuttgart: W. Spemann. 1882. Pp. 506.

THE author is a good representative of the historical method in modern philosophy, and became favorably known six years ago by an admirable critical essay comparing and criticising the views of Hartmann, Dühring, and Lange. In the present work, although the first volume does not take us very far into the 'Critique,' the method is apparent and admirable. After sketching the Kant revival in one introduction, and the philosophical currents of Kant's time in a more special one, and commenting exhaustively on the title-page motto, dedication, and preface of the first edition, and the introductions A and B, the meaning of terms, etc., the author takes up the 'Critique' itself sectionally and topically, summing up the many controversies and developments in later systems which have grown out of the master's work. Dr. Vaihinger is perhaps less acute than Cohen, but more so than B. Erdmann, while his reading in the voluminous post-Kantian literature, which is designated with each topic, somewhat after the manner of Ueberweg, has been far wider than either. If there is any fault in the work which deserves to be named, it is that the author is often too purely objective and historical when we should like more often to hear a fuller verdict from him respecting controverted matter or interpretation. In general, his Kantism is of the orthodox kind, in that great importance is attached to the first edition, to K. Fischer's interpretations, to Hume's influence, etc. In general, it is a work which no student of Kant can afford to be without.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha, 1883. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Brayton, G. A. Defence of Samuel Gorton and the Settlers of Shawomet. [R. I. Historical Tracts, No. 17]. Providence: S. S. Rider.
Brehms Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 61, 62. B. Westermann & Co.
Browne, Irving. Law and Lawyers in Literature. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Chamberlain, Mrs. Glossary of West Worcestershire Words. London: Trübner & Co.
Dresser, C. Japan: its Architecture, Art, and Art Manufactures. London: Longmans; New York: Scribner & Welford.
Fitzherbert, Master. The Book of Husbandry. London: Trübner & Co.

WALKER'S

Political Economy.

By Francis A. Walker, President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, late Superintendent of the Census. (Volume V. of The American Science Series.) 8vo, $2 25.

President Walker's economical works on 'The Wages Question' and on 'Money,' not to speak of his great statistical Atlas of the United States, have given him a prominent position on both sides of the Atlantic. In contributing the present work to the "American Science Series," he brings to bear not only the powers shown in his former writings, but the experience of many years as teacher of political economy in the chair he occupied at Yale before accepting the presidency of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 18, 1883.

The Week.

If President Arthur intends to carry on his Administration upon civil-service reform principles, not only as to the clerks in the departments, but also as to Presidential appointments, he would do well to look after the doings of Mr. Hatton, the Assistant Postmaster-General, who manages the larger part of the Post-office "patronage." The people of Camden, Maine, are holding indignation meetings to protest against the appointment as Postmaster of Mr. W. B. Rich in the place of "the present incumbent, Alden Miller, a wounded soldier, who did not pay his party assessment." And a strong protest is going to the Senate against the confirmation of Mr. W. H. Tubbs, nominated for reappointment as Postmaster at New London, Connecticut, it being alleged that Mr. Tubbs had been guilty of some exceedingly questionable proceedings as Assistant Postmaster under his predecessor, for which he is now under criminal prosecution. The recent exposure of Mr. Hatton's methods of making postmasters all over the country serve the interests of the Stalwart organ in Washington, the *National Republican*, of which he is part owner, seems to justify the inference that under Mr. Hatton's administration appointments and reappointments of postmasters will depend not only on a satisfactory answer to the question whether the candidate will be an active party worker and pay his assessments, but also whether he will be an efficient agent for Mr. Hatton's newspaper.

The St. Louis *Republican* publishes an extract from a letter addressed by General Sherman to a friend in that city, in which the General declares that "no earthly consideration will induce him to embitter the remainder of his life by holding out the least prospect that any possible combination of circumstances or events will make him a Presidential candidate." The General then goes on to say:

"There are plenty of good men able and willing to undertake the office—abler than I profess to be, and with as much patriotism. The President at best is but a figurehead. Congress is the real power in this Government, and any President who undertakes to stamp his individuality will find himself tied hand and foot by laws. I ask you to assert with emphasis that you know my unalterable determination, and that it will be idle to appeal to me. The country is perfectly safe, and no amount of party clamor can seriously disturb its harmony or prosperity."

This is eminently sensible talk. General Sherman has won a military reputation and a popularity which an attempt at playing a political rôle would be more apt to endanger than to increase. No candidate for the Presidency can in these days run on the mere strength of his military renown. General Sherman probably underestimates the power of the Presidential office; but he is right when he apprehends that a mind as active as his is would, on the political field, be constantly in danger of getting into trouble.

The new Governor of Michigan, Mr. Begole, opens his inaugural message with a suggestion that the term "governor" is "a harsh and inappropriate" designation for the office which he occupies. He says his position is really that of a "principal servant," and his feeling is that a servant of the people ought not to be called their "governor." But there are objections also to the use of Servant. Long use has accustomed us to talk about public servants and the public service; but, apart from association, there seems to be something repulsive and odious in the idea of a free American citizen being called a Servant. Does it not suggest menial, or what the Penal Code calls "servile," labor rather than public employment? To be sure we call the elective body a "sovereign," but the servants of a sovereign suggest a class known in literature and politics as "pampered menials," and are not both terms inherited from monarchical times? The word "help," introduced to meet the difficulties presented by the word "servant" in private life in the earlier and purer days of the Republic, seems to cover the ground exactly, and we do not see why it should not be extended to public employment wherever the sensitiveness of the community demands it. "Principal Help" would wound no one's feelings as the name of the Governor, while "Second Help" would be a good substitute for Lieutenant-Governor.

The bill restoring Fitz-John Porter to the rank he held in the regular Army before his dismissal twenty years ago, but without pay or compensation, has passed the Senate. It is to be hoped it will pass the House, but this is not so certain. Nothing really stands in its way but prejudice, which probably no argument or discussion would overcome. The case is one of the most remarkable on record, in that its history records the conversion of nearly every competent authority who has examined it from a strong conviction of guilt to a strong conviction of innocence. There is hardly anybody now of note who adheres to the decision of the first court-martial except General Logan, and his opinions on it are clearly mingled with, and can hardly be separated from, the recollections and traditions of the period of Porter's condemnation, when his treachery was one of the dogmas of all patriotic people. It is based, too, on an assumption of which the history of every war furnishes a score of refutations, that dissatisfaction with or contempt for a general makes a subordinate officer ready to betray the army and the cause. The fierce grumbler is one of the best known of military characters, but in most cases he is among the hardest fighters.

An interesting analysis by *Bradstreet's* shows that of the 2,328 failures reported during the last quarter of last year, 2,004, or nearly 86 per cent., were of traders ranging in commercial importance from "no financial standing worth taking into account" to a capital of $5,000. The capital of the remaining 324, or about 14 per cent., ranged from the last-mentioned amount to $350,000, only eleven having more than $100,000. Returns for the second week of this year show an increase of 139 in the number of failures as compared with the corresponding week of last year. In 1883, of 342 traders 307 had a capital of $5,000 or less. In 1882, of 203 traders 181 had a capital of $5,000 or less. The conclusion is that although there are more failures, the proportion of small cases is such as to prevent any widespread anxiety.

We are not sure to what homicide the pathetic article in the Lynchburg *Virginian* on which we comment elsewhere referred, but we believe it was a social homicide of an awful kind which occurred at a ball in Bedford County, Va., on January 8. A gentleman named Clayton was calling out the figures, and one of the ladies, a "débutante," Miss Idelle Read, corrected him in a way that irritated him a little, and he answered in a tone which offended one of her admirers, Mr. Armstead Barksdale, who thereupon remonstrated with Mr. Clayton. "Hot words passed, and finally Barksdale drew a knife, and, springing on Clayton, inflicted a horrible gash from the right eye to the back of the neck, severing the jugular vein, and causing death almost instantly. The scene that followed was sickening. The ball-room floor was a puddle of blood, and the gay white dresses of the girls were bedraggled with blood." Some of them fainted, and then there followed a "mêlée" among the men, in which, however, no one else was hurt. Here we have again the big butcher-knife concealed about the person even at a ball-room, the fierce temper, so unused to control that a few "hot words," even in the presence of women, lead to instant and brutal murder, the closing mêlée during which the murderer escapes—all, we are sorry to say, frequent incidents of the social homicide. This one had a happier termination than most of them, for the murderer showed sufficient sense of decency to shoot himself on the following day.

There was a typical business homicide at Monroe, La., two days ago. "L. D. McClain and Mr. V. C. McCollough, both prominent citizens, became involved in a difficulty over a business transaction, which resulted in the death of the latter gentleman." McClain owed McCollough some money. They met in the street, and McCollough asked for the money, which McClain promised to pay the next day, and they separated. But McClain stopped, and turned, and there were "hot words," and the debtor drew a pistol, and there was a scuffle, and he shot his creditor "just above the right eye," killing him on the spot. We can easily imagine the gloom which this affair will produce in Monroe, and how deeply it will be deplored by the whole State of Louisiana; but this will do poor McCollough very little good, and it must be admitted that it will have a chilling effect on people who propose to lend money in that State.

Ex-Senator Dorsey's letter announcing his resignation of the Secretaryship of the Republican National Committee is one of his most

characteristic performances. He tells the world once more what a great man he is, and what extraordinary things he has done as a political manager, and how he enjoyed the confidence of General Garfield and General Arthur. And then he informs the National Committee that the only reason why he can no longer be their Secretary is that his eyes are bad. And he explains his absence from the last two meetings of the Committee by the fact that he had "engagements elsewhere." What these "engagements elsewhere" really were he does not say. Neither does he dwell upon the possible engagements elsewhere which might in the future prevent him from attending the meetings of the Republican National Committee, unless those meetings be held, for his personal accommodation, in jail. If a hundred years hence some antiquarian should find among old records this letter of Mr. Dorsey's, and nothing else about him, he would be apt to say, "What a pity such a great and useful man had bad eyes and engagements elsewhere!" But if he should at the same time discover a record of the Star-route swindles, he would say, "How could a great party permit such a man to occupy a position among its leaders, and what an impudent impostor he was to strike such grand attitudes before the American people while on trial under an indictment for conspiring to rob the public treasury."

A curious despatch from Washington was published yesterday. It reported a rumor that Senator Cameron, of Pennsylvania, "will not, under any circumstances, be a candidate for reëlection in 1884." And to clinch the matter, it was further reported that Colonel Quay, one of Boss Cameron's principal henchmen, was, with others, "in deliberation all yesterday afternoon to determine the selection of his successor." Why Mr. Cameron's henchmen should at this early day be "in deliberation" all of an afternoon to "determine" two years ahead who is to be Mr. Cameron's successor, is mysterious. No wonder the report goes on to say that "their session was very stormy." But, notwithstanding "Senator Cameron's declination, as delivered to Quay, is said to be positive and imperative," the opponents of boss-rule in Pennsylvania had better be careful to secure to themselves, or rather to the Republican party at large, the power to "determine the selection of Mr. Cameron's successor," and, above all things, not to permit Mr. Cameron to be tempted to change that resolution which at present is said to be so "positive and imperative." Mr. Cameron might yield to the seduction of opportunity at the last moment, and accept the Senatorship once more for himself. Camerons are weak in that respect.

We are sorry to see a disposition in some of our contemporaries to ridicule the efforts of Jay Gould to do good. Mayor Stowell, of Milwaukee, in acknowledging Gould's subscription of $500 to the fire-relief fund, takes a different view of the subject. He says: "It is timely, and should rank you with the noble philanthropists who distinguish this age above all previous eras in the world's history." It seems to be thought in some quarters that Gould cannot be "a noble philanthropist" because he is a somewhat worldly and hardened "financier." But this does not prevent him from being a noble philanthropist, but, on the contrary, furnishes him with the required capital to set up as one. His time has been fully occupied hitherto in accumulating this, and in his case the task has been more than usually difficult and absorbing on account of the great risks which the peculiar nature of his financial operations involves. He has far less weight of that sort on his mind now than in the old Fisk days, however, and we are not surprised to see him begin to do good. In his old age we see no reason why he should not become an expert philanthropist. He may of course make blunders like other men. His stopping the night trains on the elevated roads, in order to discourage late hours, and thus elevate the morals of the public, is just one of those little mistakes which the well-meaning but inexperienced philanthropist would be likely to make; but he will no doubt improve continually as he becomes more and more accustomed to doing good.

The facts in the Miller extradition case, which is now under consideration by the State Department, are said to be these: Miller, in 1881, broke into a farm-house in Allegheny County, Pa., attacked the inmates, and carried off a quantity of Government bonds and other property. He was tried for the burglary, and sentenced to eight years in the Western Penitentiary. After serving nearly two years of his term he escaped, and was traced to Toronto. Under our extradition treaty with England burglary is not an extraditable crime, but assault with intent to murder is; so, in order to get him back, an application was made for his surrender, on the ground of the assault committed in the course of the burglary. The extradition papers were regularly issued, and Miller was brought back, but immediately on his return he was clapped into prison to serve out the remainder of his term for burglary, and he has never been tried at all for the crime for which he was extradited. The matter has been brought up in the Canadian Parliament, and resolutions passed demanding an explanation. The case again calls attention to the very unsatisfactory condition of our relations with England relative to extradition. In the Winslow case the question of the right to extradite a man for one crime and try him for another was raised, and the difficulty is still undisposed of, though some of the courts have cut the diplomatic knot by holding, as Judge Hoffman in California did the other day, that the criminal can set up a want of jurisdiction to try him in such a case. But whether Miller could resort to *habeas corpus* and liberate himself, seems very doubtful, because he is lawfully detained under his original sentence, however irregular his recapture may have been. On the other hand, it is perfectly clear that such proceedings as those said to have been taken in the Miller case are not contemplated by our extradition treaty with England. It is evident that we need a new extradition treaty between the two countries which shall regulate the international criminal code more minutely than the present instrument does. The intricacy of extradition questions as they exist is of no advantage to anybody in either country but criminals.

There appears to be a strong desire among English Liberals to regard the Irish question as settled, and the House of Commons as released from the necessity of devoting any more attention to Irish affairs. Mr. Forster gave emphatic utterance to the thought of which this wish is the father in a recent speech in Scotland, and the London press, except the *Daily News* and the *Pall Mall Gazette*, eagerly echoes it, and many of the moderate Liberal orators are joining in the chorus. The Irish have once more—for about the twentieth time—received all they are entitled to, and, what is more, all they are ever going to get, and if they are not quiet now, they ought to be thoroughly and perennially "repressed." Mr. Chamberlain, however, by no means shares these comfortable views, and we believe Mr. Gladstone does not do so either. The former pointed out at Birmingham that though much had been done for Ireland, a great deal remained to be done in the line of putting the country on a footing of equality with England as regarded the suffrage and the government of municipalities, and he warned his hearers that the Irish question would never be settled or out of the way until a sense of political responsibility had been implanted in Irishmen by prolonged practice in the management of their own affairs. Irish members of Parliament, in other words, must in some way be turned into legislators, and Irish voters, in voting for members of Parliament, must learn to feel that they are voting for legislators, and not simply for clever brawlers and revilers. Until these things have been brought about, all hopes of relief from the Irish question on the part of the English public are chimerical.

We believe it is no secret that Mr. Gladstone takes this view very strongly—that he holds that the growth of Irish national feeling during the past twenty-five or thirty years has been so great that no permanent pacification of Ireland can be looked for until it is in some manner satisfied. If he were to remain in office, he would doubtless set himself to satisfy it, for no such idea as this has ever lain long unfruitful in his mind. But it is becoming pretty clear that the great days of his legislative activity are over. He is not a man of the Palmerston type, who can make the cares of office bearable even in extreme old age by taking a semi-jocose view of all human affairs, nor yet a man of the Melbourne type, who thinks the best thing to do with a troublesome question is to let it alone. If he were to remain in office, he would, under what seems to be a law of his nature, have to embody his ideas in bills and try to get them passed, and to the endless toil and endeavor which this now entails he is probably no longer equal. We may, therefore, expect to see him retire after the coming session,

even if the doctors do not insist on it sooner. When this happens, there will probably be a sharp collision on the Irish question—which is sure to be burning, no matter who is in office—between the Radical wing of the party, as represented by Mr. Chamberlain and Sir Charles Dilke, and the Conservative wing, represented by Lord Derby and Sir William Harcourt. Both of the latter are, in the Irish matter, in favor of the old English remedy of "repression," as it is called there, or "troops," as it used to be called here, and they probably represent the prevailing sentiment among the class, whether Liberal or Tory, which hates Gladstone, and, on the Irish question and all other questions, takes its stand with the rights of property. No power short of Mr. Gladstone could keep two sets of men so discordant in opinion in the same Cabinet. When once his influence is removed they must separate.

The protestations of innocence made on the scaffold by some of the men recently convicted of murder in Ireland on evidence which no reasonable man could for a moment gainsay, have excited a good deal of attention in England, as some of the Irish agitators have treated them as proof of innocence. The controversy has caused the disinterment of a little religious manual, entitled 'What Every Christian Must Know and Do,' widely sold in Ireland at the price of one cent, and bearing the late Cardinal Cullen's confirmation, which is believed by some to throw some light on the matter. Whether it does or no, it offers Catholic theologians an opportunity of making an explanation of some kind. It says that when absolution is given by the priest, "your sins are forgiven, the pains of hell taken away, and your soul made bright and beautiful like an angel of God, and the kingdom of Heaven is yours." This, of course, suggests the theory that the murderer on the scaffold may, in good faith, after absolution, declare himself "innocent as the child unborn." The definition of murder in the Manual points in the same direction. It describes murder as "*unjustly* taking away another's life"—not, be it observed, unlawfully—and a foot-note on this adds: "It is not a sin to desire some temporal misfortune to another to make him cease to give scandal, or be converted, or not persecute the good." It is easy to see how readily in the mind of an excited peasant this definition and elucidation might be made to cover obnoxious landlords, agents, bailiffs, and even policemen and judges.

The Egyptian crisis has advanced one step nearer a solution, by Lord Dufferin's formal withdrawal from the Financial Control on behalf of England. This is, in other words, the restoration to the Egyptians of complete administration of their finances, which was surrendered to France and England by the late Khedive, and which was one of the causes of complaint on which Arabi most relied when getting up the late war. France has held on to the Control all along, and would probably hold on to it now if the Khedive did not abolish it, which he probably will in a few days. In lieu of the Control, Lord Dufferin recommends the appointment of some kind of European financial adviser. Such an officer before Tel-el-Kebir would probably have been of but little value, because he would not have been listened to. Now, he will probably do nearly as well as the Control.

The difficulties of the French in dealing with the various phases of British management in Egypt are very curious, and are described with great naïveté in the newspapers. The normal temper of the press toward England is rather angry, but the objurgations it bestows on her never end in any practical suggestion. It objected strongly to the invasion, but produced no plan of preventing it. It objected to the occupation after the war, also, but was unable to say how it could be helped. It has, too, protested loudly against England's undertaking the reorganization of Egypt alone, but has no way of dealing with the determination of the other Powers not to interfere with her. It now protests against the abolition of the Control, and warns the British that they will have to be very careful what they offer in its place, but it does not indicate what will happen if the British pay no attention, and are not careful.

The arrest of that thoroughly absurd person Prince Napoleon (Jerome), as he used to call himself, for placarding the walls of Paris with an announcement that the Republic was a failure, and that the remedy was Bonapartism, is the latest French sensation. Some foreign critics are disposed to regard the arrest as a mistake, and hold that the Prince's manifesto should have been treated with silent contempt, but the Chamber evidently thinks otherwise, and sustains the action of the Ministry by a large majority. He is not a great or important personage, but he is the heir of what was twelve years ago an apparently great dynasty, and, although he has been repudiated by its present adherents, he is the father of Prince Victor, whom they all treat as its present chief, and the rightful claimant of the throne. It would hardly do to pretend wholly to ignore the acts of such a man at such a time. On the other hand, it will hardly do to make too much of him. It will probably be wise to prosecute him like any other man for the violation of a police regulation, but it would be a great mistake to send him into exile as a dangerous person, and have his son grow up abroad as another Young Pretender. He would be treated with half-royal consideration by foreign courts, and form a little court of his own with sham state and dignity, surrounded with malcontents, who would send glowing accounts to the Bonapartist papers in France of the virtues and graces of their young master, and keep up a propaganda which would be impossible if their chief were an idle young gentleman of leisure living in Paris, and no more remarked or remarkable than scores of others of his kind to be found at the clubs. In fact, a French Pretender is now nowhere so harmless as in France, for in his case, more than in most, 'tis distance lends enchantment to the view.

As to Prince Napoleon, no one but himself pretends that he has any importance. He has failed in every position in which he has been placed, both civil and military, is old, and afflicted with a disease which, if not certainly mortal, unfits for care or responsibility. Of Prince Victor, the son, little or nothing is known. He is not long out of college, and has thus far nothing in his favor but the will of the Prince Imperial, who bequeathed the Empire to him, the favor of the ex-Empress, and the support of Paul de Cassagnac, the brawling editor of the *Pays*. These aids could, however, hardly count for much, unless the French people swallowed that curious theory of the Bonapartists, that although there is no such thing as hereditary right to rule, and all power should be based on a plébiscite, yet every properly conducted plébiscite is sure to find the right man to rule in the eldest male of the house of Bonaparte, or in the male designated for the succession by the last reigning member of the house or his acknowledged heir. A more curious mixture of the divine right of kings and of popular sovereignty was probably never concocted, but there is no proof that it ever at any time took hold of the French imagination. There has never been a freely elected Bonaparte, because every Bonaparte, when offering himself for election, has always stood ready with the army to see that the Noes got nothing even if they were in a majority. It is said that the Comte de Chambord is also preparing a manifesto to the French people. If so, it shows the wisdom of the majority of the French Senate in refusing to issue an address to the people on the occasion of Gambetta's death. It is now the game of the Monarchists to emphasize as much as possible his importance to the Republic, and to exaggerate the greatness of his loss; any Republican manifestations on the same subject which went beyond funereal honors, would help them in spreading the notion that his disappearance from the scene prepared the way for another revolution. M. Floquet's panicky motion in the Chamber of Deputies, calling for the expulsion from France and Algiers of members of former French dynasties, is open to much the same objection. It countenances the belief that the country is passing through some kind of a crisis, which makes dangerous the presence on French soil of half-a-dozen private gentlemen who have lived there peaceably for the last twelve years.

One good result, and perhaps the only one, of Gambetta's failure when he took office last year, was the demonstration which it afforded that he was not a necessary man—that France could get along when even he could not form a stable Ministry. Thiers's retirement did a world of good in the same direction. Anything which fosters the belief in the French mind that any one person is a serious loss, prevents the growth of the political self-reliance from want of which France has suffered so much. This is so true that it makes anything beyond funereal honors to a great politician almost mischievous. There is a constant tendency in French opinion toward the creation of necessary men or society savers, which it is the first duty of French statesmen to resist, as the great impediment to the firm establishment of free government, and it sometimes, as in the present case, may have to be resisted at the cost of seeming to fail in respect for a great memory.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 10, 1883, to TUESDAY, January 16, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

AT the Cabinet meeting on Tuesday, the Civil-Service Bill was the principal topic of discussion. The point was made that the section of the bill authorizing the Commission to employ a chief examiner was unconstitutional, as the appointment should have been vested in the President or the head of one of the departments. It was finally concluded that the difficulty might be averted by the President appointing the examiner upon the recommendation of the Commissioners. The bill was then signed by the President.

On Wednesday the Senate took up the Tariff Bill, and Senator Morrill made a speech in support of it. On Thursday the Fitz-John Porter Bill was passed by a vote of 33 to 27, Senators Cameron, Hoar, and Sewell voting with the Democrats for the bill. This bill sets aside the finding of the court-martial in 1863, which deprived General Porter of his rank in the Army and his citizenship. An amendment, providing that restoration to the Army should not entitle General Porter to pay for the time he has been deprived of his rank, was adopted. On Friday Mr. Ingalls introduced a Presidential disability bill, which was referred to the Judiciary Committee, and the Senate went into executive session. On Saturday the Agricultural Bill was discussed. On Monday the Tariff Bill was again discussed.

The House on Friday passed the Shipping Bill by a vote of 159 to 54, but the drawback, free-ship, and free-materials provisions adopted in Committee of the Whole had been stricken out. The bill provides that vessels duly registered, except coasting vessels, shall be deemed vessels of the United States, so long as they shall be wholly owned and commanded by citizens of the United States, and that all foreign articles and materials for the repair of vessels engaged in the foreign trade are to be admitted free of duty. The bill, as passed by the House, will not materially affect the ship-building interests of the country one way or the other. On Saturday the Fortifications Bill was passed. It appropriates $175,000 for the repair, and $100,000 for the armament of fortifications, and $50,000 for torpedoes for harbor defences. Total, $325,000. A bill was passed fixing the pension of a person who has lost an eye in the military or naval service. The House on Tuesday passed the bill amending the act regulating the removal of causes from State to Federal courts.

The House Committee on Foreign Affairs on Friday authorized a resolution to be introduced asking the President to make a more liberal treaty with the German Empire. Under the present treaty certain American citizens have been wrongfully forced to bear arms, while in other cases individuals have evaded the duties of German citizens by carrying papers of American citizenship when they had no right to them.

President Arthur gave the first state dinner of the season at Washington on Friday, in honor of General and Mrs. Grant.

The President has withdrawn the nomination of John F. Olmstead for District Commissioner of the District of Columbia, as it had become evident that the nomination would not be confirmed.

Ex-Senator Dorsey sent a letter to Mr. Jewell, Chairman of the National Republican Committee, on Tuesday, offering his resignation of the Secretaryship of the National Republican Committee, and giving a very pleasing account of his past party services.

The Prime Minister of British Columbia having requested Captain Stodder, of the United States revenue steamer *Oliver Wolcott*, to lend his assistance in suppressing Indian troubles at Fort Simpson, because no British war vessel is now in those waters, Secretary Folger has directed Captain Stodder to be present with his ship and prevent violence, but not to use force unless in repelling attacks on whites, and then only on a written request from the British Columbia authorities.

The thirty-first annual meeting of the United States Agricultural Society was held on Wednesday at the Department of Agriculture. The President, the Hon. John A. King, of New York, delivered his annual address, in which he gave a sketch of the operations of the Society until they were stopped by the war, and showed the necessity for beginning work again as a central Board of Agriculture, chartered by act of Congress, and having on its roll of membership many leading citizens. The officers of the past year were reëlected.

The trouble about the payment of the physicians who attended President Garfield has apparently been settled, as all of them have accepted their warrants and drawn the money upon them.

An attempt was made in the Ohio Legislature to pass a joint resolution endorsing the action of Congress in passing the Civil-Service Bill on Thursday, but it was referred to the Committee on Federal Relations. In the State House of Representatives a resolution thanking Mr. Pendleton, and congratulating him on the passage of the bill, was passed, but the Democrats opposed it and refused to vote.

Senator Salisbury was reëlected United States Senator from Delaware on Tuesday, receiving 8 votes in the Senate and 18 in the House. Senator Ransom was reëlected in North Carolina by a total vote of 108 against 47 for Johnson. Senator Harris was reëlected in Tennessee. Senator Garland was reëlected in Arkansas by an almost unanimous vote.

The Republican joint caucus of the Illinois Legislature on Thursday nominated Governor Cullom for United States Senator. The House on the same day adopted a resolution declaring any officer of the State ineligible for United States Senator, if elected while in office. This was intended to bar Governor Cullom, but as he received in the caucus three more votes than a majority of the whole Legislature, his election is regarded as assured.

At a meeting of the Democratic State Committee of Maine on Thursday, it was voted hereafter to make straight party nominations for all State officers, thus abandoning fusion.

Governor Stoneman, of California, was inaugurated Wednesday. In his inaugural address he took strong grounds in favor of compelling corporations to bear their share of taxation and submit to regulation of fares and freights; deprecated the consulting of partisan purposes in the reapportionment of the State, and demanded an economical and faithful administration of public affairs.

The Grand Jury of Davidson County, Tenn., on Saturday, presented an indictment against the defaulting Treasurer Polk for embezzlement and larceny of $480,000. It is stated that the Judge of the Criminal Court will fix a charge of conspiracy upon certain persons for obtaining funds from Polk knowing them to be funds of the State. Polk arrived in Nashville on Saturday in charge of officers.

A statement prepared by the Commissioner of Agriculture of South Carolina shows that there are twenty-seven cotton-mills in operation or nearing completion in that State, with an aggregate capital of $4,547,000. They give employment to 4,262 hands, and pay out annually in wages $728,900. In 1880 there were eighteen mills in the State, with a total capital of $2,294,600.

The Newhall House, at Milwaukee, Wisconsin, was totally destroyed by fire early Wednesday morning. The hotel was full of guests, badly built, very combustible, and unprovided with means of escape, the consequence being that over one hundred persons lost their lives, but the exact number has not yet been ascertained. It was one of the most shocking disasters of the kind that have occurred for many years.

The Planters' House, St. Louis, was slightly injured by fire early Sunday morning. All the guests were saved, but three employees were killed.

The prevalence of smallpox in Baltimore has caused the Health Department of Washington to adopt extraordinary measures to prevent the infection from spreading there. The Health Officer sent one of his subordinates to Baltimore to investigate the matter, and he reported that there were about 2,000 cases in that city, only 800 of which were reported by the Baltimore Health Department.

Lot M. Morrill died at Augusta, Me., on Wednesday. He was born in 1818, and became Governor of Maine, United States Senator, and Secretary of the Treasury by appointment of President Grant, to succeed Mr. Bristow. At the time of his death he was Collector of the Port of Portland.

The annual report of the President of Harvard College for the academic year 1881–2 was submitted on Wednesday. The number of special students in the University continues to increase, and the Faculty has finally admitted them to all the privileges of undergraduates, except that of obtaining a degree. The President says that the increased attention given to physical exercise and athletic sports during the past twenty-five years has been, on the whole, of great advantage to the University, and that the average physique of the students has been much improved; and he gives statistics showing that the majority of students prominent in athletic sports not only have not neglected their college work, but rank high in their classes. The library is greatly in need of funds to be applied to administration and service. The new laboratory, which is to cost $115,000, will be started in the spring. The measures taken to prevent the continuance of the annual deficit have been successful, and for the coming year there will probably be a small surplus. Since 1869 $2,300,000 has been spent for land and buildings. The attention of friends and supporters of the University should now be turned to the increase of the quick capital, or invested funds, and especially of unrestricted funds and funds devoted to comprehensive purposes. The attempt to teach the Chinese language has been a failure.

FOREIGN.

A manifesto issued by Prince Napoleon was published in the *Figaro* and placarded on the walls in Paris on Tuesday. It dwelt on the incapacity and impotence of the Government, the division of Parliament, and the decadence of the Army and finances; and declared that religion was attacked, and that the observance of the Concordat could alone establish religious peace. The manifesto was torn down from the walls, the *Figaro* was seized, and Prince Napoleon was arrested. In the country at large the affair seems to have excited little interest.

The remains of Gambetta were interred at Nice on Saturday. Only three speeches were delivered, Gambetta's family having objected to any more. All the shops remained open. Gambetta's father informed the delegation from Paris which endeavored to induce him to alter his decision in regard to the disposition of his son's remains, that after his death Paris might take them.

The French Senate has elected Senator Le-Royer President of this body. The Chamber of Deputies elected M. Spuller, member from the Department of the Seine, Vice-President. M. Challemel-Lacour made a proposal that the Republican Senators should issue an address to the country on Gambetta's death, but on the submission of the proposal to the several sections of the Republican Senators, the Left Centre and the Left objected to it. A meeting was held at which it was resolved that such an address would add nothing to the

grandeur of Gambetta's funeral. One objection urged was that such an address would appear like an admission that the Republic was in jeopardy. The decision not to issue the address is regarded as a rebuff to the Gambettist Senators. The members of the Extreme Left in the Chamber of Deputies have decided to demand of the Government an inquiry as to the origin and progress of the anarchical movement in France

At the trial of the Anarchists at Lyons on Monday, Prince Krapotkine, in addressing the court in his own defence, sought to show that the so-called Internationale did not exist. Anarchical ideas, he declared, were spreading, despite all efforts to suppress them. He said if he were condemned the result would be to attract proselytes to the cause. He had been arrested, he averred, because he was a foreigner, and because it was thought desirable to gibbet an effigy of the Internationale. The eyes of all workmen in France and abroad were fixed upon this trial, he said; but when they found that the Internationale did not exist, they would recognize it as merely a prosecution of one class by another. Prince Krapotkine concluded by predicting that ten years would not elapse without the occurrence of a social revolution. He conjured society to avert it by studying the social question instead of prosecuting anarchy.

In the French Chamber of Deputies, on Monday, M. Duclerc, Minister of Foreign Affairs, said that during the Egyptian hostilities the attitude of France was to England that of a confiding friend separated by temporary divergences. After the suppression of the rebellion, France favored the reëstablishment of the *status quo*. Pending overtures from England, the latter having wished alone to assume the task of regulating the situation, France resumed her liberty of action, the Government being certain that this course would meet the approbation of the Chamber.

Lord Dufferin has informed the Egyptian Ministry that Great Britain withdraws from the Control, and suggests the appointment of a European financial adviser who will not interfere with the public administration. It is expected that the Khedive will, in a few days, issue a decree abolishing the Control on account of this withdrawal.

Sir Auckland Colvin, the English Controller-General in Egypt, and the Private Secretary to the Control have tendered their resignations to the Khedive, who has accepted them.

The British Government has issued a note in regard to Egypt, which proposes that, in order to avoid any abuse of the freedom of the Suez Canal, it shall be enacted that in time of war a limitation shall be placed on the time during which the vessels of a belligerent power are permitted to remain in the canal, and that no troops or munitions of war shall be disembarked, and no hostilities shall be permitted in the canal or its approaches, or anywhere in the territorial waters of Egypt, even in the event of Turkey being one of the belligerents. The recurrence of an emergency resembling the late rebellion is provided for by a clause excepting measures for the defence of Egypt from the above restrictions. Egypt shall take all measures in her power to enforce the conditions imposed upon ships of belligerent powers using the canal. No fortifications are to be erected on the canal or in its vicinity. Nothing in the agreement shall be construed as curtailing the territorial rights of Egypt further than is expressly stipulated. Among other subjects the note declares the question of the suppression of slavery and the slave trade to be one which the British Government has much at heart, and that it will miss no opportunity of advising the Khedive to take steps calculated to attain the end in view.

The Prince of Wales on Saturday unveiled at the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich the statue which was erected to the memory of the French Prince Imperial by the subscriptions of 25,000 officers and men of the British Army, at a cost of £4,310. The Prince of Wales was accompanied by his two sons and by the Dukes of Edinburgh and Cambridge. The Queen sent two wreaths. Gen. Lord Wolseley, Prince Lucien Bonaparte, the Duc de Bassano, and a large and distinguished company assisted at the unveiling of the monument. In the course of his remarks the Prince of Wales said it was obvious that the ceremony was not a political one, in any sense of the word. "We are simply unveiling a monument to the memory of a young and gallant prince who fell fighting for the Queen of England."

A Parliamentary return reports that the depreciation in the value of the crops in Ireland for the year 1882, in consequence of the unfavorable harvest, aggregated the sum of £5,118,167, as compared with the favorable year of 1881, and £2,527,664 as compared with the average of the preceding ten years. The bulk of the loss was on the potato crop, which was £4,317,687 as compared with the year 1881, and £2,274,431 as compared with the average for the preceding ten years.

A great number of arrests were made in Dublin on Friday evening and Saturday morning under the Crimes Act. A number of the persons arrested had arms in their possession, and are charged with conspiracy to murder. The arrests were effected in various parts of the city. The prisoners are principally of the artisan class. The police are still following various alleged "clews" to the Phœnix Park assassins. Knives, said to have been used in the murder, were found behind the house of one of the prisoners arrested on Friday and Saturday, and the authorities are said to be convinced that they are the identical ones used; but as one of the proofs is that they "fit the cuts in the clothes of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke," not much reliance can be placed upon this report. The authorities, finding that there was no chance of bringing the guilt home to any one of them, have decided to group all of the prisoners together on a general charge of conspiracy. Most of them were arrested on information received that they belonged to a secret society which held a special meeting in Dublin, and had resolved to assassinate certain of the more active members of the Dublin police force. One of the prisoners is a man named Carey, a member of the Dublin Municipality, who has long been suspected of being concerned in some of the worst proceedings of the revolutionists.

In the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice on Thursday, Mr. Justice Field gave judgment against Mr. Charles Bradlaugh in his action against Mr. Henry D. Erskine, Deputy Sergeant-at-Arms of the House of Commons, for an assault on the occasion of Mr. Bradlaugh attempting to enter the House of Commons and take his seat as a member for Northampton Borough, after a resolution had been passed prohibiting him from so doing. Mr. Justice Field cited precedents showing the power of the House to control its own proceedings.

The Crown Prince and Princess of Germany have declined to receive any presents at their silver wedding, and request those who proposed to make them to spend their money in alleviating the distress caused by the inundation.

The town of Raab, Hungary, was inundated on Tuesday, the 9th. A considerable number of lives were lost, and the inhabitants abandoned the town. Several villages in the neighborhood of Raab have been ruined by the floods. In the Hungarian Diet on Wednesday Herr Tisza, Minister of the Interior and President of the Council, stated that he had sanctioned the payment of the sums of money required to relieve the wants of sufferers by the inundation of Raab, and that private charity had also begun the work of relief. It is officially reported that 10,000 persons are now roofless, and that between 300 and 400 houses are inundated and partially destroyed. The Prussian Landtag has voted a grant of 3,000,000 marks for the relief of the sufferers in the inundated districts. On Friday the despatches said that a portion of the city of Gran, on the Danube, was flooded, and that there would certainly be a famine in the inundated districts of Hungary unless assistance was prompt. The extent of the flooded country in the Middle Rhine district, exclusive of the tributaries of the river, is computed at 700 square kilometres. The Emperor William has increased his contribution from the imperial funds for the relief of the sufferers from the flood to 600,000 marks. On Tuesday a despatch from Pesth stated that the Danube had subsided everywhere above Mohacs, but the fugitives could not return to their homes, as their houses were destroyed or filled with ice.

The Spanish Cortes reassembled on Wednesday. Señor Sagasta, President of the Council, addressing the Senate, said the new Ministry would adopt the financial policy of Señor Camacho, the late Minister of Finance, except in regard to the sale of property of the State. The budget for the current year, he said, would show a surplus. The payment of the interest on the public debt would be secured without having to resort to a sale of State forest lands. The new Minister of Justice, Señor Giron, announced at a Cabinet council on Thursday that he proposes to abolish the hanging of women; also the suppression of newspapers, leaving suspension the highest press penalty. The new Minister for the Colonies has informed the Cuban representative in the Chamber of Deputies that in all social and political questions he will follow the policy of his predecessor.

The police in Rome on Friday evening made domiciliary visits to 135 houses and arrested 125 persons. They also made sixty-two seizures of newspapers containing revolutionary accounts of Overdank's life and so-called martyrdom. It is believed that the arrests will lead to the discovery of important information.

Italy has demanded from the Porte redress for a recent affront to a servant of the Italian Consul at Tripoli, and Count Corti, the Italian Ambassador at Constantinople, has been instructed to make representations in regard to certain false reports which caused the Porte to demand the recall of the Italian Consul.

A despatch from London on Monday said that telegrams from official sources in Constantinople reported that some Circassians attempted on Sunday to assassinate the Sultan. A woman divulged the plot. The Albanian body-guard met and defeated the Circassians in the vicinity of the Sultan's apartments. Several men were killed in the encounter.

A despatch from Sofia on Monday said that the reports that preparations are making for an early rising of the Mussulmans in the mountain districts of Eastern Rumelia have been confirmed. The authorities have seized several cases of Martini rifles sent by the "Young Turkey Committee" at Constantinople to a committee in Philippopolis. Turkish troops have been clandestinely massed on the Eastern Rumelian frontier.

The Russian budget for 1883 estimates the receipts at 778,500,000 rubles, and the expenditure at 100,000 rubles less. Accompanying the budget is a report which says a loan will be unnecessary. An improvement of the financial situation, although difficult, is not impossible, in view of the peaceful yet firm attitude pursued by the Government abroad, and the prosperity of internal affairs.

A disastrous fire occurred at Berditsheff, in Russian Poland, on Saturday. A circus was burned during the performance, and when crowded with people. It is estimated that 90 men, 120 women, and 6 children lost their lives.

THE SILVER QUESTION.

Senator Morrill, in his speech introducing the tariff amendments proposed by the Finance Committee, gave a statement of the probable expenditures of the Government for the next fiscal year, in order to show how far it would be possible to reduce taxation. Among those expenditures he mentioned the item of $24,000,000 for the purchase of silver bullion. He said that there was no probability that this expense would be discontinued, and that consequently the taxes must be high enough to cover that amount, together with other necessary disbursements. He showed that under the steady operation of the silver-coinage act two millions per month of the public revenue are swallowed up without yielding any benefit whatever. This money, if applied to the extinguishment of the public debt, would reduce the interest charge nearly one million dollars per year. But against this possible saving we are confronted with the fact that the silver which we have bought for coinage during the past four years has depreciated on our hands six or eight per cent., and that we have already lost several million dollars on the transaction. Moreover, if we should attempt to sell our silver, the price would probably fall six or eight per cent. more. In short, we have got ourselves into the same bad fix that the German and French Governments were in when we began our crazy experiment.

Yet the wasteful process goes on month after month, and Mr. Morrill sees no present prospect of its discontinuance. It is true that the House Committee on Banking and Currency reported a bill last spring to stop the coinage, and the Senate passed a bill which would have that effect, viz., the bill to abolish "permanent appropriations." This bill ought to be passed independently of its effect upon the silver coinage, the appropriations over which Congress does not exercise any control having risen to more than $15,000,000 per annum, exclusive of the interest on the public debt and the silver coinage. Including these items, the permanent appropriations amount to $146,000,000 per annum, or one-half of the entire expenditures of the Government. If the permanent appropriations were repealed, and Congress were asked to vote $24,000,000, or any other sum, out of the people's earnings every year for the purchase of bullion—either silver or gold—it is our belief that no such vote would ever be given. The purchase of bullion by the Government is now nothing but a subsidy to the owners of silver mines.

The question is often asked how long this senseless coinage can continue without bringing on a cataclysm, a crisis, a change in the monetary standard of the country. This is a difficult question to answer. If the country were poor, so poor that it could not afford to lay aside $24,000,000 per annum of idle capital in the Treasury vaults, but must needs realize upon it somehow, the strain would have brought on a crisis long ago. The Government would have been obliged to force these silver dollars upon its creditors, and enormous confusion would have been produced by the attempt to make two things of different values circulate side by side at the same value. But the country being rich and able to sink $24,000,000 per year in an idle investment, the only mischief to be anticipated, aside from the waste of capital, arises from the chance that political changes may bring somebody to the head of affairs who will conceive it his duty to pay out these silver dollars, which are now worth eighty-two cents, and may then be worth only seventy-five, at par. Such a proceeding would be calamitous in its effects upon the public credit, and would produce a grave commercial if not social conflict. The losses inflicted, directly and indirectly, by a battle of the standards taking place in all business circles simultaneously would probably be greater than would be incurred by taking all the silver dollars to the middle of the Atlantic and throwing them overboard. So long, however, as no steps are taken to force silver into circulation, no greater harm can come than wasting our treasure and making ourselves a laughing-stock for the nations.

We have now accumulated a larger stock of unused silver than Germany holds, and about one-half the amount that burdens France. The price of silver has fallen three per cent. within a few weeks, and the chance of its advancing is very slight. On the other hand, the production is likely to increase as the mines of Mexico are provided with railroad transportation and exploited with modern machinery. We shall soon be buying our two millions per month from that country, if we are not doing so now, because she will be able to furnish it cheaper than Colorado or Nevada. It is estimated by good authority that one-half of all the silver in the world has been produced by Mexican mines, and that they are capable of yielding more in the future than they have in the past. The Paris Conference of 1881, which adjourned for one year without doing anything, has since adjourned *sine die*, thus dissipating all hope of international remonetization on either a large or a small scale. In short, the outlook for further speculation in silver is most unpromising, while the collateral dangers to trade are increasing with the growth of our already enormous hoard of unused dollars.

It seems wonderful that no steps are taken in Congress to bring the bill which the Banking Committee reported last year to a vote. Perhaps it would be defeated; but what is wanted most of all is such a discussion of the subject as shall lead to an expression of public opinion upon the question in its present aspects. Two months ago nothing seemed more unlikely than that the Pendleton bill to reform the civil service would be passed by both houses of Congress. No one can say with certainty that a similar awakening of good sense may not be brought about by a fresh debate on the silver question.

MORE ABOUT SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

An article in the Lynchburg *Virginian*, suggested by the result of a trial for a "late unhappy homicide" in that city, is in form "a plea for a higher civilization," but in its protests against the practice of carrying deadly weapons, and using them on slight provocation, it indirectly admits the truth of nearly everything we have been saying of late in the *Nation* about the cause and consequence of Southern homicide. Efforts have been made by some Southern newspapers, as well as by correspondents writing to us, to dispose of our strictures by pointing to the magnitude of crime in general at the North as well as to the Dukes-Nutt homicide in Pennsylvania; by citing comparative statistics of crime and its punishment at the North and South from the New York *Tribune*, which have, we believe, not the slightest weight or authority; and, finally—which is the queerest of all—by ascribing our remonstrances with Southern men against shooting each other on sight to our interest in some land speculation in the Northwest.

Southern men have been accused of want of humor, but no community can be so wanting in that respect as to believe that, if one remonstrates with them on their readiness to shed blood on slight provocation, it must be due to some sinister motive. What we have been discussing, we repeat, is not crime in general at either the North or South. We acknowledge that, as regards crime in general, the South cuts a very respectable figure beside any community in the world. Nor have we been dealing with the crimes of the vicious, or depraved, or dissolute, which endanger only those who keep bad company, and contact with which decent people can readily avoid by keeping out of bad company. The matter on which we have been commenting, we again repeat, is the readiness of Southern farmers, lawyers, merchants, and doctors—men in good social and business standing, whom a respectable immigrant must have for neighbors, and must meet in society and business, whether he will or no—to settle disputes and avenge social slights with the pistol or the knife, and not in regular duels either, but by chance encounters on the public streets or highroads. Add to this the refusal of Southern juries to punish these offenders, and the failure of Southern society to give protection, sympathy, or aid to a peaceable man whose life is threatened by an armed enemy.

Nor can the force of what we have been saying be lessened by decrying us as malignant slanderers or defamers of the South. The South has no truer or older friends than we. There are, too, no warmer admirers of whatever is admirable—and there is a great deal—in Southern character and manners. It is because we have for so many years been contending for the things which make for Southern peace and dignity and prosperity, against those whose dislike and distrust survived both slavery and the war, that we now make an earnest plea for the extirpation within her borders of the thing which enables her enemies with a show of reason to place her in the category of semi-barbarous states.

We have published a good many interesting communications from Southerners, acknowledging, describing, or explaining the evil in question. The best men at the South not only deplore, but abhor it and would fain get rid of it. The best portion of the newspaper press talks in the same strain. But no one can read either the letters or articles without being impressed by the writers' sense of inability to

do anything toward cure beyond the utterance of an occasional mild remonstrance. The difficulties of doing even this are well illustrated by the following characteristic warning addressed by the Richmond *State* to two of our correspondents—Virginians of high character and culture, and of good social standing, who ventured on a partial acknowledgment of the truth of our charges and on a calm discussion of them in our columns:

"So plausible and so cunningly contrived has been the *Nation's* trickery that it has recently published letters of commendation from two individuals in Virginia—one of them writing from Richmond—who were either fools or knaves, being either too silly to detect the injury that paper is doing our people, or too treacherous to refrain from endorsing slanders against their own friends and neighbors. Their affected 'liberalism,' however, is made naught by the exposure of the *Nation's* over-zeal in its foul work of abuse, and these two writers from Virginia, if they be real and known, should not fail to suffer the penalty of their treachery, and be forced, as the slanderers of their own people, to remain forever renegades from society, unworthy of the trust of honest men."

Here we have a thinly disguised threat of "boycotting," or worse (indeed one almost sees the stock of the shotgun sticking out of it), directed, in terms worthy of the Molly Maguires, against any Southerner who even admits that there is too much unpunished homicide at the South. The editor clearly writes under the influence of the tradition of a time when there was only one social question at the South, on which only one opinion could safely be permitted, and when agitation or public discussion of anything but the best means of protecting slavery was unknown. Apparently the art of agitation, or, in other words, the art of putting down an evil, whether of society or government, through organized machinery of persuasion, has still to be introduced into that region. Men who feel the need of change are still unable or unwilling to combine for the promotion of it through public discussion. At the North or in England, if there were as much sentiment hostile to the carrying of deadly weapons and their use in the settlement of private differences as there undoubtedly is at the South, associations would be formed of persons pledged to refrain from carrying them themselves, and to persuade others not to do so, to protect their members against assaults and threats by the enforcement of the law, to enlighten the class from which jurymen come as to the moral and social and commercial value of security; and to raise among the young the conception of the duties and responsibilities of citizenship by speeches, books, pamphlets, and newspapers, in season and out of season, until the victory was won.

The notion, for instance—which one of our Southern correspondents describes as still current at the South, and at the bottom of much of the homicide—that an enemy who speaks ill of you must be "punished," might readily be shown to be a survival of the notion on which all savage society rests—that the punishment of enemies is man's chief business. The Indians and Turcomans of our time do little else. They devote their lives to punishing enemies, to preparing food for consumption while punishing them, and to talking about them, and singing songs about them. The growth of civilization in a community may, in fact, be measured, with almost mathematical accuracy, by the diminution of the amount of time and attention spent by its members on enemies, and on their doings and sayings, and in keeping up a reputation for physical courage as a warning to them. In the most highly civilized States to-day the foremost classes give little or no attention to enemies at all. They are too busy with commerce, science, literature, and politics to bother about them. They do not care what an enemy says, and do not mind what he does, as long as he is not in debt to them. They keep up a disciplined police force to catch him and lock him up if he gets drunk, or threatens violence, or goes about calling names in the street. But they no more think of carrying arms in readiness for him, and laying ambuscades for him, or challenging him if he uses bad language, than of taking off their tailors' clothing, putting on a breech-clout and red ochre, and riding round with a long spear on a thin pony. Surely, it ought not to be difficult to convince the young men of a race which has produced Washington and Marshall that the time has come for the South, too, to take its place as to this matter "in the foremost files of time."

DOCTOR AND JUDGE.

A YEAR ago, the Senate of this State passed a resolution requesting the Attorney-General and the State Commissioner in Lunacy to report to the Legislature such amendments to the laws relating to the insane as might seem to them advisable. These two officials requested the Medico-Legal Society to assist them by making suggestions on the subject, and this society has now made a report, in which it recommends a good many changes.

It shows that the law of 1874, which regulates the incarceration of persons alleged to be insane, does not provide sufficient safeguards against abuse. The law requires the certificate of two physicians, under oath, and the approval within five days by a judge of a court of record. But whether the judge shall conduct any inquiry, or shall rely entirely on the physicians' certificates, seems to be left wholly in his discretion. The language of the statute is: "Said judge or justice *may* institute inquiry, and take proofs as to any alleged lunacy before approving or disapproving of such certificate, and said judge or justice *may, in his discretion*, call a jury in each case to determine the question of lunacy." With regard to the qualifications of physicians for the delicate task of giving a certificate of insanity, the law provides that practice for three years shall be enough.

The Society objects to both these provisions. It says as to the first that no judge ought to have any discretion in the matter, but should be compelled to hold an inquiry, so that there shall always be a judicial determination of the existence of lunacy sufficient to call for confinement in an asylum. As to the second, it insists that no physician should be allowed to certify to insanity who is not an expert alienist, and that such expert ought to be selected beforehand by some competent commission or tribunal for the work.

We suppose that no sensible man will deny that a three-years' practice is an utterly insufficient qualification for the performance of a medical duty of this kind. A three-years' practice means a young man, fresh from a medical school or from walking some hospital, and devoid of all experience in mental disease. It is, of course, no answer to this objection that in a vast majority of cases physicians of experience are called in. All that has to be shown is that now and then—before a negligent judge, for instance—abuses might occur. But abuses might also occur if we took the measures advocated by the Society, and required the certificate of two accomplished alienists in every case. In some respects an accomplished alienist is as dangerous a man as an inexperienced young doctor. The study of mental disease predisposes him to discover symptoms of insanity in persons perfectly capable of managing their own affairs; and occasionally we see criminals hanged and wills of eccentric old millionaires sustained, in the teeth of evidence by unquestionably eminent experts that they have been for years hopelessly irresponsible, and incapable of managing their affairs. The fact is, that to make out clearly whether a man ought to be shut up or not, the thing most needed is experience, not so much of mental disease as of the man himself, his habits, character, mind, and temperament. It is on this account that in courts of justice the evidence of family physicians, who have had a long familiarity with the patient, is always regarded as of so much more importance than the testimony of experts. But every alleged lunatic has not a family physician, so that this evidence is not accessible in ordinary cases.

The difficulties, however, which surround this branch of the subject would in a great measure disappear, if the judge were in all cases compelled to institute an inquiry of some kind into the allegation of insanity. The necessity of throwing a greater responsibility upon him than he now has appears from a consideration that the Society seems to have overlooked. The final decision ought to be made by somebody who is absolutely impartial, and this the physicians seldom or never are. In nine cases out of ten they are called in and employed by the patient's family for the express purpose of discovering insanity. They would be more than human if the desire of those who retain and pay them for their work did not affect their minds. We know how this is with regard to experts in court, who are paid large fees by one side or the other, and it must be so to a considerable extent in ordinary lunacy cases. For this reason, if there were no other, the judge ought never to be allowed to rely exclusively on the physicians' certificate. The physicians' certificate is merely evidence—evidence of great importance, to be sure, but which should be sifted like other evidence. The act which finally consigns the alleged lunatic to an asylum, should be the act of a court deciding judicially, as in all other cases in which the question of lunacy arises, upon the value of this evidence. The process of depriving a man of his liberty and the management of his property ought at least to be surrounded by as many safeguards as that of testing the validity of the disposition he has made of his property by will.

We doubt whether the suggestion of the Society that all lunatics confined in asylums should at any time have the right to an impartial medical investigation into their mental state without expense to themselves, on the ground that they may possibly have recovered, is practicable. A large proportion of the lunatics in the world always believe themselves to be sane, and in case this recommendation were adopted, we should have a vast number of wholly unnecessary investigations demanded. In fact, inquiries into their mental condition at the expense of the State would become a regular asylum pastime. On the other hand, examinations of asylums at stated intervals, by competent impartial experts, which the Society also recommends, seems highly desirable.

THE ANTI-BOUQUET MOVEMENT.

THE recent development of symptoms of hostility to bouquets on the part of Society cannot have failed to attract the attention of those who watch for significant social changes. This winter the young of both sexes have been startled by receiving invitations to parties, winding up with a request that girls will not carry bouquets. The object is understood to be to relieve dancing men of the feeling that it is necessary for them, if they invite any one to dance the german, to send an expensive bouquet. The german code has become in this respect, since the war, very rigorous. A man cannot invite a girl to dance the german without sending a bouquet, and consequently girls who come to a party unprovided with partners do not get any. Meanwhile the expense has gradually increased until dancing a single german has come to cost from twenty to fifty dollars. That numbers of worthy young men, just as well fitted by nature for german partners as any others, are deterred from dancing it by the expense, seems to be admitted, and of course it tends, like all social expenses of the kind, to become heavier and heavier. Whatever may be the precise nature of the impression produced by bouquets upon the feminine fancy, the commonplace young man, if wealthy—and the wealthy are so often otherwise commonplace—is able, by the mere use of money, to send a bigger bouquet, and thus produce more impression than the clever and attractive young man whose resources are slender. The latter, however, if his moral nature is not exceptionally strong, will always be tempted to imitate the extravagance of his rich rival, and thus he is apt to send bouquets more expensive than he can afford. The bouquet tax for an energetic and constant german dancer mounts up easily to many hundred dollars a year, a considerable slice of any poor young dancer's income. No doubt many a young performer whom we see gravely and seriously revolving in the mazes of the dance at Delmonico's is bitterly counting the cost, and wondering by what means, fair or foul, he can meet it. Indeed, the decline of the gayety and high spirits which used to be one of the principal charms of round dancing, and the general taciturnity and melancholy of dancing men, are believed by many observers to be due to the thoughts which the sight of unpaid-for bouquets inspires. Many a young defaulter, as he looks back on the causes which led to his downfall, remembers with terrible distinctness his first bouquet.

For the moral consequences of bouquet-giving, however, Society would probably care very little. But the expense has now reached a point which is beginning to tell on the nerve of the masculine performer. A custom which makes dancing men more and more shy is plainly full of danger to Society itself. The time when either the practice must be abolished, or when the german must be confined exclusively to the wealthy, is believed by many to have come. Of course, if the right to dance the german could be confined to the wealthy, there would be no need of troubling ourselves with the matter at all. But to confine it in this way would be fatal, for as the rivalry in bouquet-giving grew more and more intense, the class having sufficient means to provide flowers in the continually increasing amounts required would grow smaller and smaller, until in the end it would probably be confined to the families of a few old exclusive Knickerbockers of Pacific Coast origin.

The view taken of the bouquet by girls is of course closely connected with that taken by men. One is the reverse of the other. The girl's view of the subject is now a purely business view. The highest and most conclusive evidence of a girl's popularity is the number of bouquets she carries at a party. It is a solid tribute, estimable in money, and easily comparable in value with the trophies of other girls. The idea of sentiment being connected with it has for a long time been subordinated to its business aspect. It is said even that many leading modern girls discourage any such idea, because what they desire is numerous bouquets, of at least a standard size and expense, as evidence of attention. It is said, too, that very prudent girls do not consider it safe to go to a party with a single bouquet, because it implies, instead of an extensive vogue among men, that a sentiment exists which binds them to one, and is therefore calculated to frighten away the others. But this is probably an exaggeration. However this may be, there is no doubt that it was idle to expect reform on the subject of bouquets from girls except under pressure. No girl would ever be likely, in replying to an invitation for the german, to add to her note, "Kindly omit flowers." Men cannot break up the custom except in one way—that of holding aloof from the german altogether. This, it seems, they begin to show some symptoms of doing, and in order to prevent this calamity attempts are now being made to recall girls to a sense of their position.

Hence it is that we hear of the rise of an anti-bouquet movement, which enthusiastic reformers predict will not only rescue the young dancing man from the thraldom from which he now suffers, but do something to re-establish in the minds of women the old sentimental view of flowers—that their value was not dependent upon size and quantity, but on other considerations of a different order. Of course, with old girls who have fixed ideas on the subject, and regard bouquets simply as the best evidence, in a community governed by commercial standards, of social success, no change of feeling is likely to occur. They may pretend to like the reform, and go to parties without bouquets, but secretly they will pine for the old system and do what they can to perpetuate it. A hardened girl really likes social reform no more than a city politician likes reform in municipal government. But with very young girls it is different. They may be taught possibly to look on bouquets in the old sentimental way, and even to acquire a contempt for the strictly commercial view of them.

Girls capable of reflection will perceive that a choice must be made, sooner or later, between the business and the sentimental view of bouquets. All the poetical associations connected with bouquets are of course destroyed the moment the idea of obligation arises. If a man need not send a bouquet unless he desires to do so, his sending one is a delicate compliment. It implies that he has singled out the person to whom he sends it as the one of all others whom he wishes to please. It is the prettiest proof that can be given of this desire. But an obligatory bouquet suggests nothing, as we have seen, except the bill. Indeed, as the custom exists at present, the girl might as well get the bouquet herself and send the bill to her partner; obligatory bouquets can only be used for purposes of display, and display is fatal to sentiment. As a sentimental nation, our whole manner of dealing with flowers is open to criticism. But we must confine ourselves now to the bouquet question. What we have said sufficiently shows that any girl who joins the anti-bouquet movement and "swears off," will be striking a blow for sentiment in a society on which it is sadly losing its hold, and in her effort at reform she will receive the cordial encouragement of those whose admiration she values most.

THE LATE ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY AND HIS SUCCESSOR.

LONDON, Dec. 24, 1882.

THE Archiepiscopal See of Canterbury, which became vacant by the death of Dr. Tait three weeks ago, has at last been filled. It is so much the most considerable ecclesiastical post in the British world, and indeed so unique a post in Europe, that American readers may probably like to hear something about its character and position in our public religious life, as well as about the personal attributes of the deceased prelate and his newly-chosen successor.

Ever since there was a bishop at Canterbury at all—that is to say, ever since the conversion of the English began in the seventh century of our era—he has been the greatest ecclesiastical personage in these islands, with a recognized authority over all England, and an influence and dignity to which the Archbishops of Armagh and St. Andrew's (heads of the Irish and Scottish Churches) practically bowed, even while refusing to admit his legal supremacy. To be the greatest and most powerful man in the churches of Britain, in days when the Church was far better organized, and in some ways far more powerful, than the State, meant a vast deal. He was, in fact, and was often so called, a pope of his own world—that world of Britain which lay apart from the larger world of the European continent. Down till the Reformation, the archbishops possessed immense power, and were sometimes a match for the kings. Many of them were the leading statesmen of their time—Dunstan, Lanfranc, Anselm, Thomas Becket,

Stephen Langton, Warham, were the foremost figures in the England of their day. After Henry VIII.'s breach with Rome, the Primate of England became in so far more dignified as he was more independent of the Pope; but, of course, the loss of Church power and Church wealth which the Reformation caused lowered his importance. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, however, there were still some conspicuous and powerful prelates at Canterbury—Cranmer and Laud the best remembered among them. After the Revolution of 1688, a time of smaller men begins. The office retained its dignity as the highest place open to a subject, ranking above the Lord Chancellor or the President of the Council, but the Church of England was in a stagnant condition, and it mattered but little who her chief pastor was.

Bishoprics were in those days regarded chiefly as pieces of rich preferment with which prime ministers bought the support of powerful adherents. Of late years, as the Anglican Church has become at once more threatened and more energetic, as more of the life of the nation has flowed into her and round her, the office of a bishop has become more important: people are far more interested in the appointments made, and ministers have become proportionately careful in making them. Bishops work harder and are more in the public eye now than they were fifty, or even twenty, years ago. They have lost something of the antique dignity and social consideration which they enjoyed, but they have also gained by having countless opportunities opened up to them for exerting influence in philanthropic as well as in religious movements; and the abler and more active among them turn these opportunities to excellent account. Whatever is true of an ordinary bishop is true *à fortiori* of the Archbishop of Canterbury. He is still a great personage, but he is great in a new way. There is far less deference paid to his office, considered simply as an office, than in former generations, because society and thought are more democratic, and people see that all offices are only human creations, whose occupants are people just like themselves. But if he is himself a man of ability and force, he may turn his place to admirable account by using it as a platform whence to address the nation; he is sure of being listened to, which is of itself no small matter in a country where so many voices are striving to make themselves heard at the same time. The world takes his words into serious consideration, the newspapers repeat them. His position gives him easy access to the ministers of the crown, to the crown itself, to all who in any way can influence the march of events, and enables him to enforce his views upon them. All his conduct is watched by the nation; so that if it is discreet, provident, animated by high and consistent principle, he gets full credit, and acquires that influence which masses of men are eager to acknowledge whenever they can persuade themselves that it is deserved. Now, the English people is more interested in ecclesiastical and in theological matters now than it was fifty years ago; it is more inclined to observe ecclesiastical persons and read about theological subjects. Hence a strong archbishop, a prelate of character, rectitude, and utterance, is in a far more conspicuously influential position now than he was then; his personality is a more important factor in the history of his own time.

Needless to say that all this makes the selection of a bishop a more delicate and troublesome business than it was in the good old times. Seventy years ago the great recommendation for a see was the possession of some social or political influence which the minister could attach to himself by the gift of preferment. If the person was also a good Greek scholar—had edited some plays of Euripides, for instance—so much the better. If he was a man of piety, that also was well. Thirty years ago the possession of piety and of a talent for preaching had become much more important qualifications, but the main thing was moderation. A bishop must first and foremost be a cautious and guarded man, having nothing decided about his views, and concealing what he had. His chief virtue was to be the negative one of offending no section by expressing the distinctive views of any other. In the alarm created by the Tractarian movement, there was a tendency to appoint Low Churchmen, but since that panic has passed away the moderate High Church has had its share. Nor has even the Broad Church been left entirely unprovided for. One may say that the last and now prevailing theory of bishop-making is to give every party its turn, but to choose from every party the most judicious and least violent men. On the whole, this is a good plan, but it often results in the nomination of mediocrities, men chosen more because they are safe than because they are able.

As the Primate's is more important than any other episcopal chair, so is the difficulty of choosing its occupant proportionately greater. His acts and words are so closely scrutinized that he must be a very prudent and cautious man, yet not so much so as to give the impression of timidity. He must be conciliating, yet able to put his foot down and take a decided attitude. In order to do justice to all parties and sections of the Church of England, he must not be an avowed partisan of any. Yet he must be able and eminent, and of course able and eminent men are apt to throw themselves into some one line of action or set of views, and so come to be considered partisans. The position which the Archbishop of Canterbury holds as a member of the House of Lords, and the representative there of the whole Established Church, makes statesmanship the most important of all qualifications. Learning, energy, eloquence, piety, are secondary matters, because none of them, nor all of them together, would make up for the want of worldly prudence. Yet, of course, they are all very desirable, because they strengthen as well as adorn the prelate's position.

Dr. Tait, whom the See of Canterbury has just lost, united several of these qualifications in a high degree. He was, if it be not a paradox to say so, more remarkable as an archbishop than as a man. He had no original power as a thinker. He was not a striking preacher, and the more he prepared his sermons the less interesting they became. He was so far from being learned that you could say no more of him than that he was a passable scholar and a fairly well-informed man. He was pious, but in a quiet, almost a dry, way, which had in it nothing that impressed or inspired others. If he had remained in a subordinate position, had been all his life a college tutor at Oxford, or canon of some cathedral, he would have discharged the duties of that position in a thoroughly satisfactory way; but no one would have felt that Fate had dealt unfairly with him in depriving him of some larger career and loftier post. No one, indeed, who knew him when he was a college tutor seems to have predicted the dignities he was destined to attain. In what, then, did the secret of his success lie—the secret, that is, of his acquitting himself so excellently in those dignities as to have become almost a model to this generation of what an Archbishop of Canterbury ought to be? In the statesmanlike quality of his mind. He had not merely moderation, but what, though often confounded with moderation, is something different, something rarer and better, temperance of mind. He was not carried away by impulses or seduced by any one theory so as to lose sight of other views and conditions which had to be regarded. He knew how to be firm without vehemence, prudent without timidity, judicious without coldness. He was, above all things, a singularly just man, who recognized every one's rights, and never sought to overbear them by an exercise of authority. He was as ready to listen to his opponents as to his friends. Indeed, he so held himself as to appear to have no opponents, but to be rather a judge before whom different advocates are stating their respective cases, than a minister seeking to make his own views or his own party prevail. You could hardly call him genial, for there was little effusiveness, little display of emotion in his manner; yet he was kindly, always desiring to believe the good rather than the evil, and to lead people instead of driving them. And with this he was perfectly candid and straightforward, saying no more than was necessary, but never saying anything he had occasion to be ashamed of. He sometimes made mistakes, but they were not mistakes of the heart, and, being free from vanity or self-conceit, he was willing in a quiet way to admit them and to alter his course accordingly. Thus his character by degrees gained upon the nation, and even the clergy, who are of course always the most critical, and even bitter, in their comments on any ecclesiastic who does not accept their special doctrines, gradually came to respect and admire him. There can be no doubt that his influence has gone a considerable way to strengthen the political position of the Established Church, and to keep its several parties from breaking out into more open hostility with one another. He was himself what we should call a moderate Broad Churchman, leaning more to the Evangelical than to the Tractarian or Romanizing views in matters of doctrine. At one time the extreme High Churchmen regarded him as an enemy. But this animosity had almost died away, except among a few fierce partisans, when the death of his wife and his only son, followed by his own long illness, stilled the voices of criticism.

He exerted very great influence in the House of Lords chiefly by the firmness of his character and the consistency of his public course, but also by his powers of speech, which, matured as they were by long practice, had risen to a very high level. Without eloquence, without imagination or passion, which are the chief elements in eloquence, he had a grave, weighty, thoughtful style of speaking which profoundly impressed an audience. His diction was plain, yet pure and dignified, his matter well considered; he spoke as one who fully believed every word he said. The late Bishop of Winchester, the famous Dr. Samuel Wilberforce, was incomparably his superior as an orator, but no less inferior in his power over the House of Lords, so little does mere brilliance go for in a critical and practical assembly. For every one felt in listening how great was the difference between the solidity, the elevation, the unswerving truthfulness of the one, and the unstable character of the other.

To follow such a man as Dr. Tait is not easy; so there has been no surprise at the long delay in naming his successor. Dr. Benson, Bishop of Truro (one of those new sees which have lately been created by Act of Parliament), is at least a respectable nomination. He is personally a far less remarkable man than Dr. Lightfoot, Bishop of Durham, who is not only our greatest living English Biblical scholar, but also a person of a singularly winning and attractive character. However, Dr. Lightfoot has occupied his see for so short a time that it may, perhaps, have been thought he lacked experience for the primacy; or his writings on the New Testament and early

Church history may be thought to have been somewhat too liberal in their tendencies. Those who know him best most regret that he was not chosen; as those who know what great popular gifts, what force, what geniality, what a power of showing sympathy with the masses and evoking it from them have been displayed by the Bishop of Manchester think that a mistake has been made in not raising him to a place where these gifts would have had their largest field. But Dr. Benson is a man of ability and honesty, against whom there is nothing to be said except that he has not yet shown any such conspicuous merits as to account for his promotion. He is a decided, but not extreme, High Churchman, was formerly head master of a large public school, and subsequently made himself liked and valued both as Chancellor of the Cathedral of Lincoln and as Bishop of the new Cornish Diocese of Truro. He is a sound scholar and a good preacher, apparently also a sensible man, who will not get into scrapes. The position of the Anglican Church, and the attacks from within and without to which it is exposed, will need much judgment and coolness from its new chief. Y.

CANT AND CONSTITUTIONALISM.

London, December 19, 1882.

Is there any true connection between the prevalence of political cant and the existence of a constitutional form of government?

Carlyle certainly believed that the vice which he specially denounced was connected by more than an accidental relationship with the polity which he specially despised. One may disagree with Carlyle's theories, one may think lightly of the wisdom of a dyspeptic philosopher who was apt to make the state of his own digestion the measure of all things, human and divine. But it is difficult for a candid critic to get rid of the conviction that Carlyle's denunciations of constitutionalism as a sham, and the parent of shams, have in them an element of truth which political thinkers ought to disengage from the mass of exaggeration and bombast in which, like most others of Carlyle's half-truths, it has been concealed.

Cant—as distinguished from the quite different vice hypocrisy—is the use of formulas which, whether true or not in themselves, convey no real idea, and do not correspond with any genuine or well-founded belief on the part of the speaker who uses them. To "cant" is not to lie, but to repeat words which, though they may have a meaning to others, or may in other ages have borne significance which they no longer possess, do not represent any genuine or real meaning on your part. To clear your mind of cant is to take care that you are not deceived by words, to attach a distinct sense to every word you speak, to make it your aim that your expressions shall tally with your thoughts, and that your thoughts themselves shall, as far as possible, correspond with the nature of things. This kind of veracity, which is something different from what is ordinarily meant by truthfulness, is nurtured by the habit of calling a spade a spade; it is imperilled by any custom which involves the use of names, words, or ceremonies which do not answer to actual facts. Constitutionalism, on the other hand, as developed at any rate in England, is an attempt, and a singularly successful attempt, to transform without destroying a mediæval scheme of government into a polity suited to the wants of an industrial age. The curiosity of the thing, its charm to antiquarians, is, that the English Constitution has preserved the ceremonies, the formulas, the phrases, the outward show, even to a limited extent the political sentiment, appropriate to a mediæval monarchy, in combination with, or rather as the mask of, institutions compatible with that sovereignty of the people which forms the essence of modern democracy.

One main rule of the art by which this singular transformation has been performed is, that a change of things should never, if possible, involve a change of names. Constantly to modify institutions, never to alter titles and forms, has been and is half the secret of English statesmanship. This system, which has constantly enabled England to substitute reform for revolution, has, with some grave practical evils, still greater practical advantages; but no one who has eyes in his head, or a brain to note the bearing of what he observes, can doubt that English constitutionalism does lead to confusion both in act and in thought between form and reality. That this is so must, I think, have been patent to any person of reflecting mind who, on the 4th of this month, was present at the opening of the new Law Courts. The ceremony was as striking as any ever witnessed in England. The event itself had a real, genuine, and unmistakable importance, for it was the outward recognition of a revolution in the administration of the law of England which may produce effects of far greater permanent consequence than result from political alterations which excite popular enthusiasm, or strokes of statesmanship which give celebrity to the name of a minister. But the most extraordinary feature in an impressive scene was the unreality of the antiquated forms used to celebrate a great modern innovation or improvement in the law of England. Of all the persons engaged in the pageant, the one who presumably knew least about the law, who had certainly least to do with its administration, and had the least power of influencing the course or the development of the law was the royal lady in whose name justice is administered. Yet with that admirable or wonderful belief in forms which characterizes Englishmen, the official language employed throughout the whole of the grand ceremonial implied that the Queen possessed an authority and even took a part in the administration of law which her Majesty would be the last person in the United Kingdom either to exercise or to claim. If language were, in matters constitutional, the representation of fact, it might be inferred from the transactions of the 4th of this month that in 1882 Queen Victoria possessed and exerted powers somewhat greater than the authority which in 1582 was exerted by Queen Elizabeth.

To add to the innocent irony of the situation, it happened that while the Queen was treated as though she had in fact all the powers of sovereignty ever wielded by the most despotic of her predecessors, the Prime Minister, who is more truly than any other one person the governor of the country, had as Premier (the Premiership being entirely unknown to the Constitution) no place in the ceremony of the day. Mr. Gladstone took part in the pageant not because he was Prime Minister, but because he was Chancellor of the Exchequer. He came, in short, to the opening of the Royal Courts not in virtue of being what he is—the head of the British Government—but in virtue of the pretence of his being what he is not and never has been and never will be—an English judge. No fact can illustrate more forcibly the antiquarianism and therefore of necessity the unreality which infects the whole ceremonial of the English Constitution. That this antiquarianism is not only venerable but often useful, chiefly because it enables us to avoid or evade the necessity for defining matters hardly ripe for definition (as, for example, the exact limits of the power of the crown), which are best determined by practice and usage, I do not dispute; but it cannot, I think, be denied that neither a man nor a nation accustomed in the field of politics to reverence formulas which are not even supposed to correspond with fact, can easily avoid a tendency to that confusion between words and things which in its fully developed form amounts to cant.

"Many of our men of speculation," writes Burke, "instead of exploding general prejudices, employ their sagacity to discover the latent wisdom which prevails in them. If they find what they seek—and they seldom fail—they think it more wise to continue the prejudice, with the reason involved, than to cast aside the coat of prejudice, and leave nothing but the naked reason; because prejudice, with its reason, has a motive to give action to that reason, and an affection which will give it permanence. Prejudice is of ready application in the emergency; it previously engages the mind in a steady course of wisdom and virtue, and does not leave the man hesitating in the moment of decision, sceptical, puzzled, and unresolved. Prejudice renders a man's virtue his habit, and not a series of unconnected acts. Through just prejudice, his duty becomes a part of his nature."

These sentences admirably describe the mode in which the influence of public life, or, in other words, English constitutionalism, has affected the tone of English speculation. As a satire on the errors of the French *philosophes*, in reference to the practical turn given by English thinkers even to their theoretical conclusions, the passage is as effective as any one of the reflections on the Revolution in France. But language meant by Burke as a eulogy of English political methods suggests to a modern reader some obvious reflections on the mode in which constitutionalism has not only affected, but distorted, English speculation. There never was a country where so much talent and ingenuity has been expended in defending what was rationally indefensible as in England. The practical evils of this tendency to find reasons in favor of prejudices must more than once have been keenly felt by Burke himself. His lifelong efforts to repeal the penal laws were all rendered abortive by that peculiarity of national sentiment which he held up for the admiration of his French correspondent. The ingenuity of Eldon, and of men like Eldon, defeated the genius of Burke. The penal laws against the Catholics, the disabilities of Dissenters, the brutality of the criminal law, the ruinous impolicy of the old poor-law, the glaring abuse of rotten boroughs, and a hundred other anomalies, which no man out of Bedlam would venture to defend, were all kept alive for at least half a century beyond the time when systematic thinkers had perceived that they ought to be abolished, because our men of speculation supplied arguments or fallacies for the use of the multitude, who, from the nature of things, must be men of prejudice.

But let no one fancy that the evil of subordinating even speculative conclusions to considerations of supposed practical utility ends with the support it gives to existing abuses. A far worse result is that this tendency affects the freedom of thought itself. There is assuredly no fault more often to be found in English thinkers than a want of intellectual disinterestedness. With one eye they search for truth, with the other eye they look to the supposed practical results of the truth which they are seeking to discover. Where your treasure is there will your heart be also, is true in other spheres than in that of religion. The thinker whose real concern is to find arguments in support of some practical conclusion will find them in plenty, but it is only a lucky accident if he finds out the truth. The error of transplanting into the realm of speculation the habits of compromise which are proper to the sphere of politics, of course most naturally flourishes in the province of political speculation. If any one wishes to measure the extent to which the want of intellectual disinterestedness may vitiate the conclusions even of the most honest speculative writers, let him study the works of W. R. Greg, and consider the extent to which that eminent

writer's theories are affected by his bias as a manufacturer; or let any one of my American readers take up any English work upon America and examine whether the whole tone of the writer, be he Liberal or Conservative, is not in reality tinged by the bearing or supposed bearing of American experience on English politics. Constitutionalism has, in fact, become part of the nature of Englishmen. We are constitutionalists even in our theories. We gain something in moderation, but we lose a good deal in force and in insight. We often lose also that directness of view and simplicity of statement which are the great safeguards against cant.

Constitutionalism, however, fosters cant in other modes besides its tendency to lead to confusion between words and things and to promote intellectual compromises. Our modern system of government rests upon a constant appeal by statesmen to public opinion. Our political leaders are compelled to be constantly speaking to the public. They are forced to defend their conduct without being able in most cases to give the true grounds for its justification. They are compelled to speak off-hand about matters on which they may be ill informed or may not have made up their minds. They are forced to deny the errors of their friends and to exaggerate the errors of their foes. Debate, moreover, in Parliament is not intended to produce conviction. Its true object (when its aim is not simply to waste time) is to stimulate the zeal of the speaker's friends and to discourage his opponents. Lord Abinger, in the singularly interesting fragment of autobiography which gives value to an otherwise worthless life, contrasts the reality of the forensic contests in which he excelled all advocates, past or present, with the artificiality of the parliamentary debates, in which he failed. As an advocate, he in effect urges, "I hoped to convince the jury that my client was in the right, and constantly succeeded in convincing them. As a parliamentary speaker, I neither hoped to change nor did change a single vote." It is a little odd to find Scarlett denouncing the shams and unreality of Parliament. It is scarcely more odd than to learn from Mr. Disraeli that invective is the ornament of debate. The great verdict-winner and the great rhetorician both knew what they were talking about, and for once spoke the truth. The vice of parliamentary debate is unreality, and unreality lies next door to cant.

If a thoughtful critic might with great probability conclude that the conditions or necessities of English public life would necessarily engender cant, events passing before our eyes would afford sufficient proof that this expectation is not belied by experience. In truth, I am inclined to think that in England the action of leading politicians is a good deal more honest than their language. Foreigners, indeed, believe that English policy is tortuous, far-sighted, and untrustworthy. But an impartial historian of the nineteenth century will, it may be suspected, find very little of deliberate craft and subtle policy in modern English statesmanship. Popular government has many defects, but it does not develop cunning. Certain permanent influences, such as the relation of England to India, the absolute necessity of maintaining our naval power, the need of freedom for our trade, the national impulse toward emigration, the belief, on the whole well founded, that England has but comparatively small interest in many of the questions which divide Continental states—these and several other considerations fix, as by a decree of Fate, the course of English policy. It is no accident that while we did not care to intervene in the Franco-German war, we sent an army to Abyssinia to dethrone King Theodore; it is owing to no freak of Mr. Gladstone's, or of Mr. Gladstone's opponents, that an English Ministry which ardently desired peace and was sincerely opposed to all schemes for extending the Empire, has occupied, and may very possibly, in fact if not in name, annex, Egypt. The influences which direct the course of our foreign policy are permanent and intelligible enough. Unfortunately, it is hardly possible for English statesmen to make clear in their own minds, and still less to state in clear and honest language to others, the considerations by which their actions will ultimately be determined. Plain action is made to look dishonest by very unsatisfactory apologies; the whole attitude not only of the Government, but of the Liberal party, including the writers in the Liberal press, with regard to Egypt is a curious exemplification of this statement. That Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues have acted honestly and conscientiously I have myself not the remotest doubt. Any man not prepared to give the Khedive the armed support of England could no more have kept his place in an English Cabinet than could Mr. Bright. I have never met with any consistent opponent of English intervention in Egypt who was not, when hard driven, compelled to admit that he was opposed to the maintenance of the British Empire in India. Whether it is expedient, politic, or just for that Empire to be maintained, is a fair question of morals or of political theory. But it is a question which can no more be treated at present as open by an English Premier than it was possible for an American President to act twenty years ago on the conviction that the North ought to tolerate secession.

There is not the slightest ground, further, for supposing that Mr. Gladstone or Mr. Gladstone's supporters are prepared to break up the Empire. Against their action little can be said, except that their very just feeling against aggression, and their very natural feeling that there was an apparent incongruity between the tone taken by the Liberal leaders and party in 1880 and the attack on Alexandria, led them to delay action till nothing was possible but armed intervention. It is the language, or rather the tone, of leading Liberals which is open, if not to censure, yet certainly to observation. Conservatives are grossly unfair when they assert or imply that Mr. Gladstone's speeches in Midlothian pledged him to abstain on all occasions from foreign war. What, however, is in my judgment true is, that the tone taken not so much by Mr. Gladstone as by the whole Liberal party during the electoral campaign is hardly consistent with the tone they are forced to maintain with regard to the Egyptian campaign. It was quite right to denounce the faults, and I may add the dishonesty, of Lord Beaconsfield's policy of aggression; but there was little ultimate wisdom and some amount of intellectual confusion involved in the use of language which seemed to reprobate the policy not only of Beaconsfield, but of Palmerston. An evil result of this error is the constant use by apologists for the Ministry of very strange and unnatural apologies for very simple and, in my judgment, very defensible conduct. It is impossible to read a Liberal paper, or to listen to the speech of a Liberal M. P., without thinking how different would have been the language of the journal or the speaker if Lord Wolseley's triumphs had strengthened the Ministry not of Gladstone, but of Beaconsfield.

Another and even greater evil lies in the fact that a policy defended on non-natural grounds almost of necessity becomes of itself an ambiguous policy. But the last and worst result of the apparent inconsistency (for I think it is hardly more than apparent) between the rhetorical attacks which drove Lord Beaconsfield from office and the policy which events have forced on his successors is, that the electors throughout the country who were roused to action by an appeal to their moral feelings may think—wrongly enough, but not unnaturally for half-educated men—that the moral indignation avowed by Liberal leaders against Lord Beaconsfield, which was assuredly perfectly sincere, was a mere rhetorical trick. I do not share Mr. Bright's religious principles, and I am not an ardent admirer of his statesmanship; but, under his peculiar circumstances, his dignified retirement from office was, I am convinced, as great a service as any he has ever rendered (and he has rendered great services) to his country. He was, what his colleagues were not, really pledged against that form of "defensive" warfare which consisted in the bombardment of Alexandria. He preserved the moral tone of public life by redeeming his pledge.

The debates on the "closure" remind us, if reminder were needed, that the causes which infect political life with cant do not produce their effect on one party in the state alone. The Conservative case against the Government was that Mr. Gladstone, by means of his rules of procedure, was destroying parliamentary liberty of speech. Assume that the charge was true, or even that the men who made it believed it to be true, and no denunciation of the conspiracy against the liberties of Englishmen could be too strong. As far as strong language went, the Tories seem indeed to have done their best or worst. If their scolding did not rise to the level of invective, the defect lay in want of capacity, not in want of will. But the strangeness of their conduct, supposing the Conservatives to have believed what they said, lay in the miserable feebleness and futility of their opposition to an act which on their view was one of monstrous tyranny. They made no fight, or only made just fight enough to show that their heart was not really engaged in the matter for which they were fighting. The Tories were, it will be said, in a minority; so were the Tories of 1832, and if any one wishes to see the difference between a sham and a real parliamentary battle, he should compare the languid defence of free speech by Sir Stafford Northcote with the dogged and desperate defence of "rotten boroughs" by Sir Robert Peel. What is the explanation of the difference? Are we to suppose that the Tories of to-day lack the spirit of their fathers? The supposition would do them gross injustice. The explanation is far simpler. The men of 1832 were in grim earnest; the Conservatives of 1882 were only trying hard to believe that they themselves were in earnest. That this is so may be proved by two considerations, which are simple but, to my mind, conclusive. If the Conservatives had really believed that limits placed on the abuse of speech would really suppress freedom of debate, they ought never to have assented (and in fairness to them I must add they never would have assented) to proposals which would have made it perfectly easy to silence the only unpopular minority in the House—namely, the Home Rulers. Every argument in favor of protecting a minority told with double its usual force in favor of securing that the Home Rulers should not be silenced. It is essential that Irish opinion should be heard in England; it is most desirable that Irish opinion should not only have free expression, but should be known to all the world to have free expression, in the English Parliament. To silence Irish members of Parliament may really prevent Englishmen from knowing the wishes of Ireland. Even to appear to silence the Home Rulers may at least appear like oppression to the Irish people. Yet the protectors of free speech and the guardians of the alleged rights of minorities were willing to let a two-thirds majority—*i. e.*, in effect a majority of Englishmen—silence the representatives of Ireland.

If, again, the Tories believed that the rules of procedure were fatal to the dignity and to the

liberty of the House of Commons, it was both their duty and their right to announce that whenever the Tories again commanded a majority in the House the rules would be repealed. These rules are not, be it remarked, like a statute: they can be altered by any party who have the command of the House. Yet the Tories gave neither sign nor pledge that their return to power would mean the restoration to the House of Commons of its lost liberties. They probably thought that authority which might be ill used by Mr. Gladstone would be very useful in the hands of Sir Stafford Northcote. But if the Tories thought this, or anything like it, they did not really believe that Mr. Gladstone was assailing liberty of speech. The rhetorical denunciations of a useful and necessary reform of procedure turn out, therefore, to have been only the latest specimen of political cant. D.

"LE ROI S'AMUSE" REVIVED.

PARIS, December 21, 1882.

THE representations of the "Roi s'amuse" have, on the whole, not been favorable to Victor Hugo. In vain was a great banquet held at the Continental Hotel, presided over by the great man himself, and his glory celebrated in a hundred speeches. In vain did M. Perrin, the director of the Théâtre-Français, and M. Got (*Triboulet*) speak on the occasion. Victor Hugo said very little: "I thank you all, all"—and that was all. He could hardly thank the public; for the public, which had received lately with so much favor "Hernani" and even "Ruy Blas," had decidedly not given its sovereign sanction to the "Roi s'amuse." Of course, it was tacitly agreed that no mark of disrespect should be shown to the old poet; but silence is not disrespect, and I have never seen a more silent, a colder audience than I saw lately at the Français. I do not speak only of the public of the *Tuesdays*—of that chosen public which is essentially difficult to please, which is reserved even in its moments of enthusiasm, and which is opposed in its politics to Victor Hugo; I speak of the ordinary public, of what may be called the railway public, the hundreds of people whom the railways bring every day to Paris from all parts of France and of the world. The truth must be told: there is not in the "Roi s'amuse" a single character which attracts the natural sympathy of a great audience; and, in the second place, the absurdity of the plot is too manifest. When you are reading the play quietly at your fireside, all the absurdities, the incongruities, taking no tangible or visible form, disappear in the charm of the poetry, like strange sounds in the harmony of a splendid orchestra. The lyrical part of the play is very fine, but, on the stage, you want something more. You can interest yourself in *Hernani;* you almost believe in the young lord who has become a bandit, and who is waging war against his King; you can even, though it is already more difficult, believe in *Ruy Blas*, who has made himself, in a moment of misery, a lackey, but who has the manners and the soul of a gentleman. It is impossible to believe in *Triboulet*, in the King's fool. *Triboulet* is made odious from the beginning: he connives at all the follies of the court and of his royal master: he holds the ladder when he thinks the noblemen are going to rob *M. de Cossé* of his wife, and to bring *Madame de Cossé* by force to the room of *Francis I.* He is quite as bad, quite as immoral, as all the gentlemen against whom he turns when he finds that they have robbed him of his own daughter. He is almost disgusting in the first act; we cannot much sympathize with him when he shows himself in the character of a father.

I have heard it said that the comparative failure of the play is owing to the acting of Got, who took the part of *Triboulet*. "I have always thought," said M. Perrin to a friend, "that the part of *Triboulet* was a comical part; Got has persuaded me that it is a tragical part." So it is tragical; but it is tragedy without nobility, without any greatness. I cannot say that Got plays the part badly. He plays it very conscientiously, and it is not his fault if it is entirely out of harmony with the character of a buffoon. His long, eternal monologues are very tiresome on the stage, though they are full of magnificent poetry. Whenever he ought to act, he speaks—his indignation becomes too eloquent, his fury is lost in hexameters. When he has once undertaken to avenge himself and to have the King murdered by *Saltabadil*, he might become a little more concentrated. No, he still goes on; and when, finally, he thinks that he holds the corpse of the King of France, of *Francis I.*, in a bag which he himself will throw into the Seine, instead of accomplishing what he considers his mission, he begins the most interminable monologue. All this poetry out of place is exceedingly fatiguing, and *Triboulet* has been universally pronounced to be a complete failure in a dramatic sense.

Is there in the play some other character which might console the spectator? Alas! no. *Triboulet's* daughter, *Blanche*, is made very interesting—she is the angel of this hell; but the angels of Victor Hugo are sometimes very terrestrial. This innocent girl, brought up in seclusion, falls in love with a man whom she believes to be a young student. She is taken by force, brought to the Louvre by the courtiers, and recognizes her lover in the person of the King. At first she is indignant, she remonstrates; she runs away from him, and takes refuge—where? In the King's own room. And when, after a most distressing scene, during which *Triboulet* insults all the courtiers and screams for his daughter, she comes back, with her hair flowing and her white gown torn, to remain with her father and tell him her sad tale, and he resolves to take vengeance on the King, she implores her father for his sake: "Car je l'aime toujours!" I confess that this "Je l'aime toujours," after what has just happened, completely spoils *Blanche* for me. If *she* still loves the treacherous and brutal *Francis*, why should we be angry with him? This painful part of *Blanche* is extremely well rendered by Mlle. Bartet; she gives it a certain air of trouble, of confusion, of decency which is very praiseworthy. Her defects serve her as well as her qualities, for she is naturally weak and delicate, and very naturally enters into a part where she is quite sacrificed. The love which *Blanche* feels for the King is such that afterward, when she has witnessed his infidelity to herself and seen him making love to *Maguelonne*, the sister of the bandit *Saltabadil*, she resolves to sacrifice herself to him and become the voluntary victim of the brigand's poniard. It is extremely difficult to imagine self-sacrifice under such conditions. Why should *Blanche* give away her life in order to save the life of a man who has treated her as *Francis* did? She owes nothing to him, she ought to abhor him: she dies for him. Mlle. Bartet saves the painful absurdity of this situation a little by her delicate acting; she seems almost unconscious, like a poor victim following the dictates of destiny.

As for *Francis I.*, he is simply abominable from beginning to end. In the midst of his court, he appears like a drunken Faun; he smiles and laughs and shows his fine clothes. But all the costumes painted by Titian cannot give him the mien of the King who said on the evening of Pavia: "Tout est perdu, fors l'honneur." Mounet-Sully plays the part of *Francis I.* He is an actor of great merit, but he is very *inégal*, as we say: he is either excellent or very bad. There is in him something which makes him particularly fit for excessive parts, full of extravagance, of violence, of folly. He is an admirable *Hernani*, as *Hernani* is at times a raving maniac and at times a crazy lover; he is excellent in some plays drawn from antiquity, like "Œdipus," as there is in *Œdipus* a certain sort of fatality, of folly. As *Francis I.*, as King of France, Mounet-Sully is a complete failure; he acts like a drunken maniac, and not like a young king. How different was Worms in the part of *Charles V.* in "Hernani." Full of pride, of dignity, even in his fits of rage and passion, he looks like a man superior to all men. Mounet-Sully is only tolerable in the "Roi s'amuse" when he comes in disguise, dressed as a young student, to the house where lives the daughter of *Triboulet*. In his love-scenes he is almost perfect, as he is handsome, has a touching, rich, and harmonious voice, and has a certain want of intellect—not to use a less polite expression—which is not disagreeable in a young lover. He does not appear as well, in the fourth act, when he comes to the house of the brigand *Saltabadil*, and drinks and jests with *Maguelonne*, the sister. Poor *Maguelonne!* she is one of our cleverest actresses—Mme. Samary, the niece of the Brohans, the child, so to speak, of the Théâtre-Français, a true Parisienne. Her last success was in the "Monde où l'on s'ennuie" of Pailleron, where she played the part of a spoiled and *natural* child in the midst of artificial people. As *Maguelonne* she seemed almost ashamed of herself; the part would have been much better played by a handsome, stupid, and brutish woman, such as can represent to us the accomplice of a brigand of the fifteenth century.

The dramas of Victor Hugo are essentially operatic; they call for what goes under the general name of *mise-en-scène*. They are made to touch our senses as well as our intellects and our hearts. It is curious to see how well Verdi was inspired by this operatic tendency in his "Rigoletto": he translated, so to speak, the "Roi s'amuse" into music, softened its defects, and gave it the ideality which belongs to music. If I had the choice between seeing the "Roi s'amuse" at the Français and hearing "Rigoletto," I should prefer the latter. The situations are the same, but the coarseness of the drama, the absurdities of it, disappear—the characters assume a certain vagueness. When you read the drama, the lyrical part of it completely absorbs the dramatic part; when you hear "Rigoletto," a similar effect is produced—a certain sense of unreality seizes you, and you are in a land of dreams, not at the court of a real prince, with a real jester and real courtiers. M. Perrin felt the necessity of treating the "Roi s'amuse" a little like an opera. During the whole of the first act, while the King enjoys himself with his friends, an invisible orchestra is heard. In the third act we have a song, "Quand Bourbon vit Marseilles," to a real guitar. In the great act on the banks of the Seine, we see Notre Dame across the river, the houses on the quay, and here and there a light in the windows. We have a real storm while the King is in the house of *Saltabadil;* it rains, we hear the rain falling; the wind blows as fiercely as it does in a tempest. We can do all these things now by means of electricity and machinery. This realism has been much blamed; I should blame it myself in a piece of Corneille's or of Racine's. I cannot blame it in a drama of Victor Hugo's, for Victor Hugo does not captivate my mind so much that I cannot enjoy a little the material part of the representation. He speaks not to those higher thoughts which dwell above all material things;

with him, love, ambition, anger, all human passions seem more human; he only lifts me high in order to drag me down again. We must take him as he is, and treat him accordingly. He writes *libretti*, not tragedies in the old sense of the word. He is a Romantic, not a Classic; he is a demigod, not a god.

Correspondence.

THE CIVIL SERVICE AND THE LOCAL BOSSES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We are so agreeably surprised by the prompt passage of the Senate Civil-Service Bill by the House of Representatives, that it seems almost ungracious even to wish it were better; but the shout of rejoicing in country neighborhoods would have been louder could we have a more direct share in the advantages of the bill. The great bosses will be crippled, but in those States which contain no large cities bossism will remain about what it is now; and a rural boss is just as offensive in a small way as a metropolitan boss. What we need is, that official fingers be kept out of the elections. There should have been a section forbidding postmasters and other Federal officials to meddle with local party politics. Postmasters will still be appointed for their services to Senators and Congressmen, and still manage the country politics and preside over the district conventions.

Respectfully yours, C. G. Howland.

Lawrence, Kansas, Jan. 8, 1883.

THE SUPPRESSION OF "CORNERS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You seem to look with little favor or confidence on the movement to suppress "corners," and similar abuses of the Exchange, by act of the Legislature, and you feel inclined to scoff at the labors of the New York Senate Committee which is trying to learn wisdom from the kings of the Stock and Produce Exchanges. If the only object to be attained was the suppression of stock and produce gambling, you would undoubtedly be right: that can no more be suppressed by the power of the State than faro or keno—much less, indeed, for the "keepers" and "dealers" of the game at the Exchange are much richer and more influential than the men of the painted table or the "pegs," and proportionally more able to fight successfully the attempted enforcement of any law that might be levelled against them.

But a more modest end might be achieved. The courts of justice might be relieved of the ungrateful task of sitting as referees for gamblers. There should be an end to the disgraceful war of injunctions. The old English practice never allowed an arrest in an action for "goods bargained and sold," that is, in an action merely to enforce the fulfilment of a bad bargain. This is one good starting point. Let us allow no "provisional remedy" of any sort—injunction, attachment, etc.—in any suit growing out of options, selling short, future deliveries, etc. And, though contracts for the future delivery of produce may be, and often are, made for honest business purposes, those for the future delivery of stocks or bonds can never subserve any useful purpose, and should simply be ignored by the courts as null and void.

Generally, when a suit is brought for "differences," it is not brought by one better against the other, but by the broker who has made the outlays for the losing speculator—in good faith, of course; and it generally turns out that the greater part of these outlays represents the broker's own commissions. It was decided, as long ago as in the days of Lord Mansfield, in the case of Faikney *vs.* Reynous (4 Burrows, 2069), that such suits can be maintained, though the original transaction, the losses in which had been settled, were tainted with "stock-jobbing," and themselves unlawful. It would not be difficult to frame a legislative act to reverse this line of decisions, and put the keepers of bucket shops, big as well as little, upon the same footing as the keepers of faro banks.

The time of the court ought to be occupied with more serious business than the settlement of losses on 'Change. Respectfully,

L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., December 31, 1882.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with much interest your editorials and the communications in your columns on "Homicide in the South." I write merely to correct a statement which, by an omission, doubtless without malice, does the South an injustice. The error is in the communication of your correspondent, "X. Y. Z." By the laws of Alabama (see section 358 of code) farming tools to the amount of twenty-five dollars to each head of a family are exempt from taxation, and so are the tools of a mechanic of a like value. We have many more pistols and dirks than we need, and I wish they were not used so frequently; but we also have a sufficiency of farming and mechanical tools, and the valuation quoted by "X. Y. Z." represents only the valuation subject to taxation, and this is, of course, undervaluation of the taxable portion.

Wm. A. Davis.

Eufaula, Ala., January 8, 1883.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Home truths are very often disagreeable. Indeed, we of the South are very sensitive about some home truths which come very close to us. But the only true way is to look things square in the face, and if those things are evil and hurtful to us, we should oppose and end them. Let me confess that your strictures in regard to Southern homicide are justifiable. You are sustained in what you say by facts. Murders are occurring every day, south of Mason's and Dixon's line, which prove your words true. Wherefore deny them? The public prints teem with them. No candid man will excuse them, because there is no excuse for them; and, indeed, some of the excuses put forth by your indignant Southern correspondents are as bad as the murders themselves. The only thing to do is to acknowledge the fact, recognize the evil, and seek a remedy.

In the first place, why is it that homicide is prevalent in the South? To answer this question it is not necessary to review the habits and temperaments of our ancestors. They have enough to answer for without saddling upon them this sin, which pertains peculiarly to our own day and generation. Homicide was not half so prevalent in the South fifty years ago as it is to-day. It is a growth of recent date, comparatively speaking. But whether it is of recent date or not, whether it is the outgrowth of immemorial custom or not, matters little in the face of the fact that it is an evil present with us, around us, and among us. Our criminal laws are not in fault; they are stringent enough. Our juries, and the men who execute our laws, are largely responsible for the condition of things existing in the South. A widespread and mistaken idea that a man must avenge an insult or a wrong by taking the law into his own hands, has taken a strong hold upon the public mind; it has permeated to all classes and conditions of men. Why? Because the law is not properly executed, because at law men cannot obtain redress. Therefore, the men who execute the laws are largely and perhaps criminally responsible for the prevalence of the homicidal evil at the South.

Another reason is the habitual carrying of concealed weapons. The other day, at a trial before a justice of the peace, a witness testified that a man who was being tried for an assault was armed. The question was asked him, with what was he armed? He replied: "*With the arms we all carry.*" "What are they?" "*A pistol and a knife.*" When a witness in a court of justice can say with perfect coolness, and in a matter-of-fact tone, that he and all his neighbors habitually carry a pistol and a knife, and speak of it as nothing unusual or surprising, is it wonderful that murder should take place whenever two neighbors fall out about any matter of business or other thing? The people have become used to see murderers acquitted or lightly punished—so used to it, indeed, that they take it as a matter of course, and when men serve on juries who are in the habit of thinking about murder as not a very high crime, it is not surprising that they punish it lightly or not at all.

The remedy for the evil seems to me to be to discuss it freely and fearlessly as you have been doing. The people must be educated to think of murder as it really is. It must be robbed of its sentimental phases. Let it stand out before their eyes in its hideousness, and let them understand what a fearful crime it is. Let men of influence and standing among us boldly denounce it. Let us not undertake to justify it, for there is no justification possible. Let there be a reform in the execution of our laws. That reform will come; it may be slow, like all reforms, but it will be effective, and it will be realized. Let us hope that the seeds are already sown which will bring forth good fruit. I trust that the discussion going on in your columns will not end until the necessity for it ceases.—Very respectfully,

James Hay.

Madison C. H., Virginia.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The communication of "Old Subscriber" in your last issue (No. 915) determines me to do what I have been intending to do ever since you have been writing about "Southern homicides"—to testify, as a Southerner born and bred and an unrepentant "Rebel" of the bitterest sort, that you have written the truth, and only the truth, upon this subject, and to thank you for the entire absence of any malice or misrepresentation in your articles. I have just reread all these articles, with the replies of your correspondents and your own rejoinders, and confess that I am astonished at your fairness, calmness, and moderation. For ten years I have not missed reading a single number of the *Nation*; there is no consideration which could make me part with it. I have circulated it and extended its subscription among other ministers in a way I have never done for any religious journal. I now wish I could put a copy of it in the hands of every young Southerner of sufficient intelligence to appreciate it. It is with grief and mortification that I read the silly replies of some Southern newspapers to your articles—replies which in every instance confirmed your statements and inferences, for they proved that these editors were unaffected by and indifferent to the disgraceful events you were justly condemning. The daily in my own town made a characteristic reply, putting your articles in the category of Yankee "persistent and malicious misrepresentations"; yet the same issue published a news item of the kind described and

denounced; and in a day or two copied from a Georgia paper a communication of a column upon the pardon of the murderer Cox by Governor Stephens, in which Cox is made a hero of, the sympathies of the reader evidently appealed to in his behalf, and, to crown the whole infamous communication of an infamous transaction (Governor Stephens's pardon of him), the communication furthermore tells us that a son of Colonel Alston will probably feel called upon to avenge his father's death, now that his murderer is set free. Yet this daily paper of mine spoke no word of surprise or condemnation. As you have well said, this thing is a "damning spot" upon the character and name of the Southern people, and it is sadly corroborative of your position that the only papers which second your well-meant attempts to make the Southern people ashamed of this barbarous sentiment are those which, like the *News and Courier* and *Courier-Journal*, are the least sectional.

Another striking confirmation of what you have written on this subject is the fact that the Southern religious press is as reticent on this subject as the Northern religious press was about the wickedness and rascalities which, during the carpet-bag régime, were perpetrated among us in the name and with the approval of the whole Northern people. There is to me an interesting analogy between the way in which the Southern religious press ignores the existence of this sentiment among us, when it is its duty to denounce and seek to destroy it, and the way in which the Northern religious press either hounded on the Republican party to its foul and cowardly oppression of the South, or held up to youthful admiration and consequent imitation the greatest rascals that party vomited out upon the country. It shows how greatly a social or moral distemper can affect every class and calling of a nation or community so as to poison the very sources from which recovery alone can come. It is also interesting to note that, just as religious liberty was among the religious themselves what Diderot defined it to be, "the liberty of persecuting other religions than one's own," and became established mainly through the instrumentality of such irreligious men as Voltaire and Jefferson, so the only honest indignation manifested anywhere North against the wickedness the "Great Moral Party" was perpetrating in the South, was shown by the *Nation*. The Northern religious press was out-Heroding Herod in its execrations of the South, and using all its tremendous influence among the masses to support the damnable measures of the Radicals in oppressing the South, long after the *Nation* had denounced them and warned the Northern people that such a disregard of the principles of republican government could not be confined to the Southern section of the Union, but that they were preparing the way for the same scenes to be repeated at the North by accustoming themselves to the sight of a party in power setting aside the safeguards of constitutional government for party purposes.

I have read the *Nation* with gratitude as a Southerner, and I may say almost with reverence, when it alone was lifting up its voice against the corruption and meanness of the Republican party in its infamous doings at the South, and against the dishonesty of both parties in deranging the national finances; I have seen the published number of its subscribers diminish by thousands in a year because of its adherence to truth and principle and its championing the cause of the South; I have seen it ever displaying an integrity no secular or religious journal North or South has displayed. Therefore, when these articles on homicide began to appear, though I at first resented them as an attack upon my country, yet my confidence in the *Nation* brought me to consider the matter in a light I had not done before. I knew there was no sense in the *tu quoque* reply to the *Nation*, for no journal had ever been so outspoken in denouncing every form of social or political wrong-doing, North or South. I only wish I could send a copy of the *Nation* to every youth in our beloved South, that he might become educated out of his sectionalism into a broader and higher public sentiment.

A South Carolinian.

January 13, 1883.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see in the Nashville *American* a denial, signed "X. Q. Z.," of the habit of carrying arms in the South. Your article in answer is just. Young men are ready at any time, sudden and unexpected, for themselves or their friends, to go into a fight. I endorse you emphatically in what you say. Say it as often as you feel like it.

B. F. S.

Hurricane, Tenn., Jan. 6, 1883.

THE EVOLUTION OF REPUDIATION IN TENNESSEE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Southern States especially, and the whole United States to a certain extent, are at this very moment mournful examples of the national corruption caused by familiarity with vice. The "spoils system," "political assessments," "machine politics," "influence," "the lobby," "jobs," "bossism," corruption in public and private life, breaches of confidence in the shape of defalcations, embezzlements, and misappropriation of trust funds, are all the progeny of an evolution of moral obliquity which has taken place so gradually that even observing men have scarcely noticed it. Now, at last, the public is awakening to find a state of things which seems unnatural and abnormal, as if some great moral cataclysm had suddenly wiped out of existence the race of good men, and introduced in its stead a new order of beings, between which and its predecessor there seems to be no connecting link.

The *Nation*, during several years and on many occasions, has sounded the note of warning and pointed out that *facilis est descensus*. No one of the evils above enumerated has escaped its argus eyes or been allowed to go unwhipped. But the warning of the watchman has been unheeded, or has been sneered at, as in the case of the "Southern homicides," which have been so truthfully and justly characterized as a blot upon the civilization of the people among whom they have occurred.

There is another form of moral degeneracy now threatening to sweep over the Southern States like a pestilence, against which every honest man ought to cry out in terms of uncompromising denunciation. At this very moment it is endangering the life of one of the largest and fairest and greatest of those States—Tennessee. When this moral disease affects the individual, and his neighbors suffer the loss of a few hundreds by his villany, it is called cheating, swindling, stealing, or some similar harsh term expressive of the most detestable conduct. But when a whole State, a great, sovereign body politic, is affected by it, and deliberately robs its creditors of millions of money, even the name *repudiation* is too harsh for the euphemistical orator of the political campaign: some less repulsive term must be found. In Louisiana it is called "scaling"; in Virginia, "readjusting"; and in Tennessee it rejoices in the high-sounding titles of "recognizing the equities," and "discrimination between the real and bonded debt of the State."

In whatever form it appears, and under whatsoever name known, it has been a disease of slow but steady growth. The writer is a Southerner born and bred, and has always lived in the South, and therefore writes from a knowledge gained by long observation and experience. He became a citizen of Tennessee five years ago, from a more Southern State. At that time it would have been difficult to find a man of intelligence and respectability in Tennessee who would have acknowledged that he was a "debt-scaler," "readjuster," or "discriminator"; and perhaps not a single citizen of the State would have consented to be called a repudiationist. Nearly four years ago, what was known as the 50–4 scheme for settling the debt was submitted to the popular vote. A large majority of the voters would have nothing to do with it—stayed away from the polls altogether—and a great many looked upon it as an insult to the State to consider such a proposition as a question of State policy.

Somewhat over two years ago, Hawkins, Wright, and Wilson made the race for Governor, Wilson being a "low-taxer" (another euphemism for repudiationist). He received just votes enough to split the Democratic party and put Hawkins, a Republican, in the gubernatorial chair, although Tennessee was known to be a Democratic State by nearly 40,000 majority.

Meantime, during these various campaigns and canvasses, the politicians and demagogues were "instructing" the people. The 50–4 scheme had been advocated by many able and some good men. The good men spoke in favor of it because it was understood that the bondholders would accept it as a definitive settlement of the debt, and because it was considered of such great importance to get the debt settled in some way, and thereby eliminate it from State politics. These advocates used many specious arguments—arguments known by the makers of them to be fallacious. But they were cunningly and skilfully put before the people, and the people were thereby much "instructed," and acquired many new ideas.

Mr. Wilson, the "low-taxer," too, and his friends taught the people, from one end of the State to the other, the new doctrine of paying a big debt with a small sum of money, which Mr. Lincoln once said it was so hard for him to see how to accomplish. And, finally, in the last campaign between Hawkins and Bate (Fussell and Beaseley were really not in the race), the apostles of the new doctrine were the leading men of the State—and their name was legion—and they proclaimed it from the stump in every county and every neighborhood of the State: among the gorges and mountains of East Tennessee; on the plateaux and plains of Middle Tennessee, and in the lowlands and swamps of the Mississippi bottom; and their preaching was with power, and the whole people were awakened and converted. So that the very same doctrine which in 1878 had been treated with contempt, which in 1880 had caused the defeat of the "low-taxer" Wilson, in 1882 had become a mighty tide which, taken at the flood, carried General Bate to success.

And now, Tennessee, with her fine geographical position; with her great and varied natural resources; with her vast extent and wealth; with her unlimited potentialities for greatness and prosperity; with her beautiful scenery and proud past history, is cursed with the dry-rot of repudiation, which is already slowly, yet surely, and soon will be swiftly, sapping the foundations of her social, moral, political, and material well-being. Now even the best of her citizens do not hesitate to advocate the 50–3 scheme for settling the debt. They advocate this scheme only in case the bondholders are humble and tractable, and indicate the utmost willingness to accept it. If the bondholders are not thus disposed,

"straight-out and complete repudiation" is almost universally threatened.

The reasons given by good men in justification of their repudiation principles are curious and interesting, as indicating how completely false views may take possession of a people when they are assiduously cultivated by designing demagogues. The seeds of corruption are skilfully disseminated; they then germinate, grow, and fructify so stealthily that even the best of men are often unaware that the clearness of their moral sight has become darkened by a crop of noxious weeds.

Some of the principal reasons given are as follows:

The bonded indebtedness of the State was contracted during the reconstruction period, when a majority of her citizens were disfranchised. They had no voice in the matter, and are therefore not responsible for it.

The bonds were issued for the benefit of the railroads of the State; therefore, let them settle with the bondholders.

The bonds were sold at prices ranging from much below 50 cents on the dollar to not much above that figure. Fifty cents is probably above the average cost of the bonds to the holders. Hence they ought to be satisfied to get that for them.

The bondholders are rich, and can afford to take 50 cents and 3 per cent. interest, while the people are poor and cannot afford to be taxed to pay more.

The bondholders themselves have consented to have the bonds scaled to 60–3–4–5 and 6, and once you begin to scale there is no moral difference whether you scale much or little. Therefore we will scale as much as we please.

Finally, in the last campaign, 50–3 was the broadest plank in the platform, and, standing on it, General Bate was overwhelmingly elected to the Governorship. Hence the people have spoken plainly in favor of 50–3, and *Vox populi vox Dei* is a fundamental principle of a republican form of government.

All of these reasons are considered incontrovertible.

In conclusion, let me say that it is melancholy to note some of the immediate results of the moral obliquity which has grown upon our people. What the ultimate consequences will surely be it is fearful to contemplate. Even now individuals are tainted and contaminated by it. In their public and private relationships men are losing that keen sense of honor and honesty which should always characterize an upright people. The lamentable defalcation of the State Treasurer of Tennessee, which has just brought shame and disgrace upon a name of which every Tennesseean has been so proud, is but a natural sequence to years of dallying with repudiation principles. These same principles, if they fasten themselves upon the people of the State, will destroy confidence, breed distrust, and upset all business relations. It is fearful to think how near we now are to the realization of these awful consequences. To be convinced that this is so, one needs but listen to conversations he can hear on the street corners, in the market-place, in the post-office, or anywhere where men gather together and discuss current events. The writer heard a business man of good standing in the community in which he lives remark, when the State Treasurer's crime was under discussion, "Oh! he is not to be blamed: a grab game is going on everywhere now; he had his chance and took advantage of it, and he did right." *O tempora, O mores!* † † †

TENNESSEE, Jan. 9, 1883.

[It has taken about forty years to make "repudiation," itself originally a euphemistic term for fraudulent bankruptcy, cacophemistic. Mississippi invented it, and Pennsylvania quickly adopted it. The dictionary-makers should not overlook this "rogue's progress" of the Queen's English.—ED. NATION.]

THE "NATURAL METHOD" OF TEACHING LATIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Although I doubt whether you would be willing to open the columns of your paper to a discussion of the various methods of teaching languages, I venture to ask for the necessary space for the following remarks, suggested by the correspondence in No. 913.

One of the greatest difficulties the followers of the "natural method" encounter is no doubt the explanation of the meaning of new words to the pupils without the use of English, and from what I have seen, heard, and read of the various practical methods, of older and more recent date, I have not been able to satisfy myself fully on this point. Now, your correspondent says (p. 552): "The meaning of new words is explained to them [a class of beginners] in Latin, by their derivation, or by synonyms, or opposites, or by explanations, so that the student is compelled to think in Latin." One or two illustrations of this method would be of such interest to me, and I know to many teachers besides myself, that I beg to ask for the explanation, according to the above method, *e. g.*, of the words italicized in these sentences from the first and second chapters of Cæsar's 'De Bello Gallico': "Belgæ ab extremis Galliæ finibus *oriuntur*." "Id hoc facilius *eis* persuasit, quod," etc. "His rebus *fiebat*, *ut* et minus late vagarentur," etc.

These examples are chosen at random, but they will answer the purpose as well as any. I confess I do not see any way of making the meaning of such words clear to beginners except by means of their English equivalents; therefore, I appeal to the advocates of a method which, it seems to me, has its serious drawbacks. The wonderful successes of men like Jacotot and Hamilton, and of other famous teachers before and after their time, as well as the unusual progress in linguistic studies of pupils like Montesquieu and Macaulay, are among the most interesting facts in the history of education; yet they are easily explained by circumstances not surrounding those for whose benefit they are so often cited.

I thoroughly believe in making the study of languages as practical as possible, and I do not say that the method spoken of by your correspondent is not a good one; but it seems very doubtful to me whether there is any need of a revolution in methods—whether the trouble does not rather lie in the faulty use of methods now in vogue, and in the inability of many teachers to give to their instruction that practical turn which presupposes a mastery of the foreign tongue on the part of the teacher. A so-called conversation-method in the hands of a teacher not well versed in the language would certainly lead to pitiful results.

I know of a class of adult beginners in German who met last summer for five weeks, and during that time read *intelligently* one act of a play in prose, and the first three books of Goethe's 'Hermann und Dorothea.' Of course, they had to study the grammar in connection with their reading lessons, or they could not have done the work. English was spoken in the class-room when a principle covering perhaps hundreds of cases could be explained in a minute, while an attempt to explain the same in German would probably have been entirely unsuccessful. German was spoken to a considerable extent. It is true, neither teacher nor students could boast of having spoken "no word of English in the class-room"; but what would that amount to in comparison with the scholarly knowledge actually gained by the class in so short a time?

There are so many opponents of, or lukewarm believers in, the study of the ancient languages to be found in the ranks of those who have once themselves been classical students, that it is evident they did not acquire a sufficiently thorough and extensive knowledge of Latin and Greek to "see the use of it." The more students are drawn into the classical studies without a reasonable prospect of their pursuing them long enough to derive real benefit and enjoyment from them, the more opposition to such studies there will be in the future. "Easy methods" may at first be enticing to many, but most of them will prove disappointing. "In colonial days, a boy, to be admitted to Harvard, had to be able to read Cicero and Tacitus at sight, and to speak the Latin language readily and correctly." Would it not be well, in order to avoid all suspicion of empiricism, to examine carefully into the methods by which, in former times, results were reached, and in other places are now reached, that would satisfy the most ambitious?

Very respectfully, A. LODEMAN.

YPSILANTI, MICH., Jan. 2, 1883.

A PROTEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you permit me to inveigh in the strongest possible terms against the practice of the proprietors of *Littell's Living Age*? Without consent or any knowledge of mine, my last novel 'Robin,' although purchased from me for publication in the United States by Mr. Holt, of New York, was republished from *Temple Bar* by them and put through their magazine; added to which I find in their arrangements for 1883 my name advertised among their list of contributors.

As I have always received honorable treatment hitherto at the hands of American publishers, I think in fairness to those who pay, authors should protest against those who steal.—I am, sir, yours obediently, LOUISA PARR.

18 UPPER PHILLIMORE PLACE, KENSINGTON, W., January 2, 1883.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co. will be the American publishers of the 'Life of Sir William Rowan Hamilton,' by Robert Perceval Graves, of which the first volume has already been issued from the Dublin University Press.

'The Jews of Barnow,' stories by Karl Emil Franzos; 'Mrs. Lorimer, a Sketch in Black and White,' by Lucas Malet; and a new edition of 'The Virginia Comedians, or, Old Days in the Old Dominion,' by John Esten Cooke, will be published during the present month by D. Appleton & Co.

We are glad to learn that a second edition of Professor Harrison's 'French Syntax' will shortly be published by John E. Potter & Co., Philadelphia. Several important additions have been made to it, and notably a copious series of exercises.

Ten Brink's 'Early English Literature' (to Wyclif) has been translated by Prof. H. M. Kennedy, and will be published immediately by Henry Holt & Co. The same firm will also bring out at once 'Lyrical and Dramatic Poems,' by Robert Browning, selected and edited by Edward T. Mason.

T. Whittaker will issue immediately the Bohlen lectures for 1882, delivered by the Bishop of Michigan, Dr. Harris, on the "Relation of Christianity to Civil Authority." The same

publisher has in preparation 'Principles of Agnosticism applied to Evidences of Christianity,' by the Rev. J. Andrews Harris, D.D., of Philadelphia.

The English critics have fulfilled our prediction of the praise they were likely to bestow on the illustrations of *Harper's Christmas*, and the English public have responded by exhausting the edition for that country in a single day.

The most attractive exhibition catalogue yet produced in this country, so far as our recollection serves, is that of the First Annual Exhibition of the Philadelphia Society of Etchers. For some reason that city has taken the lead in organizing its etching talent, and is now enjoying a fine array of 1,070 etchings—not all produced by Philadelphians, of course, nor by Americans, but each from the designer's own hand ("painters' etchings"). Mr. S. R. Koehler supplies an introduction largely given up to practical directions for the art. Interspersed are eight of the American etchings, two of which have a special interest—Mr. Stephen J. Ferris's "Fortuny Dead," and Mr. Joseph Pennell's "Café des Exilés"; the last being one of six illustrating Mr. G. W. Cable's stories.

The new Harvard Catalogue (C. W. Sever) shows a remarkable uniformity in the numerical strength of the undergraduate classes, the Freshmen leading off, of course, with 263, and the Seniors, Juniors, and Sophomores numbering 203, 209, and 208, respectively. While there are 229 medical students, there are but 134 law and 27 divinity students.

The Rev. Sheldon Jackson's paper on "The Neglect of Education in Alaska," with its map and many woodcuts, is the most noticeable feature of the Bureau of Education's Circular of Information No. 2, just issued, containing the proceedings of the department of superintendence at the National Educational Association in Washington last March. The accompanying circular and tracts on the University of Bonn, National Pedagogic Congress of Spain, and High Schools for Girls in Sweden seem to us outside the proper scope of the Bureau, and of doubtful utility.

We notice that the Principal of the Lasell Seminary at Auburndale, Mass., has provided a course of four lectures for the young ladies of that institution, on the "Principles of the Common Law," to be delivered next month by Mr. Alfred Hemenway, of Boston. "The legal rights and independence lately given to women," says the announcement circular, "bring responsibilities for which there has often been no corresponding preparation."

The thirteenth volume of Transactions of the American Philological Association for the year 1882 has appeared (Cambridge). Of the papers printed in full, perhaps the one possessing most general interest is that by Dr. Isaac H. Hall, on the Greek New Testament, as published in America. Dr. Hall thinks the earliest Greek *book* printed in this country was Mathew Carey's edition of the 'Enchiridion' of Epictetus (1792). The first Greek Testament came from the press of Isaiah Thomas in Worcester, Mass. (1800). Seven editions (following three foreign originals) served for the next twenty years. From 1821 on, each year has seen at least one (and often many), except the years 1824, 1828, 1830, 1836, 1839, 1843, 1867, 1874.

The two volumes, 1881-82, of the Providence Library's *Monthly Reference Lists*, most tastefully bound, like those before us, are a welcome addition to the endless variety of indexes. They can be used in connection with any good public or private library. We would suggest to Mr. Foster that by italicising in his next volume-index the *current* topics, the page would exhibit at a glance the characteristics of the year.

Governor Begole, of Michigan, though making a clean sweep in other offices, has sensibly resisted the pressure on him for the removal of Mrs. Tenney, the excellent State Librarian (see *Nation*, vol. xxxv., p. 487). She was renominated, and promptly confirmed by the Senate. The State Library is safe now for two years.

Mr. Goldwin Smith's *Bystander*, revived as a quarterly (Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co.), is a politico-literary review perhaps unique as the work of one hand. Its main object is to advocate what the editor considers the true interest of Canada—to develop and form relations, commercial and political, in accordance with and not in hostility to continental forces, as opposed to imperial ties and traditions. The large part, therefore, of his review which is devoted to Canadian politics is profitable reading for Americans, as of course are Mr. Smith's excursions when crossing the borders and commenting on the November elections and the defeat of woman suffrage in Nebraska. Mr. Smith's antipathy to the Jews crops out in treating of the settlement of Manitoba, while his pronounced Irish views are substantially reproduced from his recent article in the *Princeton Review*. Agnosticism continues to fill him with lively apprehension, and the revival of Mr. George Brown's shade in Mackenzie's 'Life and Speeches' justifies a renewal of plain-speaking concerning Mr. Smith's unscrupulous opponent. There is no one who cannot derive some instruction and entertainment from this characteristic *causerie*, of which the English style is almost a sufficient recompense.

Pach Bros., No. 841 Broadway, have made an excellent and very interesting photograph from life of Lieut. John W. Danenhower. The brave and unfortunate explorer wears his arctic costume, and the photographer's skill has furnished an appropriate background.

In *Le Français* for January 5 (Cambridge, Mass.), Mr. Jules Lévy makes a pleasant diversion in his editing by reprinting M. R. de Grilleau's timely article on "La France au Niger," to which a chart gives clearness. France and England in Madagascar, on the other hand, is the subject of a leading article in the *Nuova Antologia* for December 15, 1882 (New York: Christern). The author is A. Brunialti.

With the beginning of the new year, the *Athenæum Belge* turns monthly from the weekly that it has heretofore been. It is an excellent periodical, and would that there were more of it in quantity, as we presume would be the case if it had more support. A leading feature is the summary of the contents of periodicals, both Belgian and foreign.

More new periodicals call for mention: (1) *Museo Italiano di Antichità Classiche*, to be published at Florence, and edited by Comparetti, author of the 'Researches respecting the Book of Sindibâd' published by the Folk-Lore Society; and (2) *Deutsche Hochschule*, a weekly "organ of German students," to be published at Prague, as an offset to the division of the University into two, German and Czech, at Prague, "that ancient nursery of German science, that fortress, now menaced, of German culture." It undertakes "to defend with all the fire of university inspiration, with juvenile intrepidity, both the character of the German university at Prague and *akademisches Deutschthum* in general." Besides treating university subjects, it will have amusing articles, humorous feuilletons, and scientific essays. We fear that though its "juvenile intrepidity" may be occasionally amusing, it will be found, on the whole, like most university magazines, rather dull reading for the outside world.

The tenth edition of Berghaus's "Chart of the World" has been received by Westermann & Co. It is in eight sheets, arranged for mounting as one whole. The particularity of its annual revision extends even to definition of the arctic ice barriers, and in other respects it delineates all the new commercial routes by sea and land, the new telegraphic cables, the significant railway extensions, and presents the customary information concerning the physical features of the continents, the ocean currents, etc., etc. The Suez Canal, the Panama, Darien, Honduras, and Nicaragua routes, the Straits of Dover and of Sunda, the chief ports of the world, and so forth, are represented in numerous side-maps. The execution of this chart is characteristic of the house of Perthes at Gotha. The nomenclature is prevailingly English, but a glossary accompanies the map and gives the German equivalents.

Victor von Scheffel's 'Trompeter von Säckingen' has just reached its 100th edition (Stuttgart: Bonz & Co.).

It is becoming the fashion for German professors nowadays to write novels. Ebers's success every one knows. Professor Johann Scherr, whose history of English literature has lately been translated into our language, has just brought all the German critics about his ears by a novel in Rabelaisian style, 'Porkelès und Porkelessa: eine böse Geschichte.' The story is simply that of an adventurer who introduces himself into a Jewish family, and, with the assistance of a female Nihilist, of toxicological accomplishments, makes way with the whole family and enjoys their fortune. But the story is nothing; the satire, of the crudest sort and expressed in the most cynical manner, is everything. All the world is attacked—Wagner, Skobeleff, Stöcker, Auerbach, Sacher-Masoch, Treitschke—with a monotony of disapproval. Spielhagen will not find in Professor Scherr a proof of his theory of the superiority of German fiction.

The French have never been as fond of foreign fiction as the Americans or the Germans, but the chief series of exotic stories, the "Library of the Best Foreign Novels" (Bibliothèque des meilleurs Romans étrangers—Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern) now contains about three hundred volumes. As might be expected, the English novels freely permitted to that mysterious entity, the French *jeune fille*, are the most abundant of these translations. There are thirty-eight volumes of Miss Braddon, twenty-seven of Lord Lytton, twenty-nine of Dickens, seven of Mrs. Gaskell, nine of Thackeray, and sixteen of Wilkie Collins. The American contingent is sixteen volumes by seven authors, including Hawthorne, Longfellow, and Mrs. "Beecher-Stowe." There are only two volumes by Anthony Trollope, although there are three by his mother, one of which, however, is credited to him, and another is treated as anonymous.

Several years ago the *Nation* commented on the handsome volume of puppet-plays written by M. Lemercier de Neuville for his own Aristophanic *pupazzi*, as he chose to call the tiny comedians he handled in so skilful and amusing a manner. These earlier plays were full of "local hits," and were aimed at old heads. He has now prepared a little volume of slighter pieces intended to be acted by children and before children. Some of them are in prose, and some in the rhymed Alexandrines of French comedy. All are bright and excellently suited to their purpose. Especially to be commended in this volume, 'Les Pupazzi de l'Enfance' (Paris: Delagrave; New York: F. W. Christern) is the appendix giving an illustrated and detailed description of the internal mechanism of the puppet show, and of the ingenious devices by which M. Lemercier de Neuville has im-

proved it. The plays are adorned with many sketches by M. B. de Monvel.

Some Assyrian antiquities brought from Mosul by Father Ryllo, S.J., and given by him to the Vatican Library, which have remained forgotten there for thirty years, have just been brought to light again. Among them are inscriptions in the Hittite character, and it is hoped that some bilingual inscriptions, or at least fragments, may be found to give a clew to the lost language and throw some light upon the obscure history of early Syria.

—A considerable sum, exceeding £7,000, has been contributed by the friends and admirers of the late Francis M. Balfour to found at Cambridge, England, a scholarship in biology which should bear his name. The English committee, while they do not seek contributions in this country, yet hope that this memorial in honor of the most distinguished embryologist of Great Britain may excite some interest among the naturalists of the United States. An American committee, representing our principal colleges, has been formed, and it is hoped that the naturalists who knew Balfour only from his published works will join his personal friends in this testimonial to his rare personal character and brilliant intellectual powers. Prof. H. Newell Martin, of the Johns Hopkins University, has consented to act as secretary and treasurer of the committee.

—With a wise liberality, but without ostentation or extravagance, the city authorities of Boston have printed a new edition of the Proceedings at the rededication of the Old State House last July. Mr. W. H. Whitmore's capital address, curtailed in the delivery, is given at still greater length than in the pamphlet published immediately after the event, with revisions and additions, principally in the shape of notes and appendices. The public, to whom has unexpectedly been confided as a municipal monument a building second to no other in the country in historic importance and in preservation, needed not only the antiquarian's narrative of its vicissitudes, but the completest possible series of views showing the external changes which it has undergone since the present walls were erected in 1713. These have been inserted in the new volume, and will greatly help to stimulate popular interest in the cradle of Independence. The earliest view dates back to 1770, forming the background to the Boston Massacre as delineated in Paul Revere's contemporary engraving. Thanks to the intelligent restoration made under the auspices of the Bostonian Society, so much of the eastern front as is visible in Revere's print is identical with the corresponding portion of the actual front (as shown in the frontispiece), except that the sun-dial has not been put back in place of the clock. The next view is in 1785, and from that time nearly every decade is illustrated. Two views of Faneuil Hall, in demonstration of the much greater changes which have transformed that more modern but more famous edifice; views of other city halls than the Old State House; the city architect's plan of the second floor of the latter; and portraits of James Otis, Samuel Adams, Edmund Quincy, jr., John Hancock, Thomas Cushing, and James Bowdoin, still further anticipate the inquiries of a generation not too much addicted to historical research. In short, a more creditable American "city document" can hardly be named, and yet it has been assailed as a "job" and an "abuse" by a local newspaper which of all others is supposed to represent the blue blood and civic pride of Boston. Happily, the *Advertiser* includes in its condemnation the disinterested publications of the Record Commissioners, and thus betrays its animus too unmistakably to deceive anybody.

—The Cincinnati Public Library has abandoned its project of publishing the catalogue of its library in separate classes, and will now print immediately a catalogue of the whole library with short titles, after the manner of the Poole catalogue of 1871. The subject-lists already printed embrace the English, German, and French fiction (1876), and drama (1878), all of which are meritorious works, and the fiction-lists rank with the best. The fact is, that the library, although it is constructing a card catalogue, has no catalogue accessible to the public of the books obtained between 1871 and 1877, except the above and a few printed medical titles. The monthly bulletins began to be issued in 1877. For the period between '71 and '77 an applicant for a book must ask without knowing whether the library has it, and an attendant on the galleries makes a search with no assistance except her or his knowledge of the classes in the alcoves. This, of course, made delays and complaints unavoidable; and as no room has been provided for the card catalogue, the only resource, and a highly useful one, has been to print a new catalogue of the whole library. The monthly bulletins, which are continued, will henceforth enable the public to keep informed as to the library's accessions. It is curious to note that this library, with many others in the country, suffered in the last year (ending with June) a decrease of circulation—a loss of 55,453 in the use of books, and of 73,466 in periodicals. The greatest loss was in fiction, 40,618 less volumes having been circulated. The librarian, Mr. Merrill, assigns good times and the multiplication of cheap editions of popular books as, in part, the reason of this falling off, and partly local causes, such as the great heat of the summer of '81, which caused the library hours to be shortened, a smallpox excitement in the winter of '80–'81, and the closing of the Cumminsville branch of the library, through an unfortunate mistake of the Board of Education. The Columbia branch of the library still remains open.

—Among the recent bulletins issued by the Census Office, one of the most interesting and important is that relating to the illiteracy of the population. It gives the number in each State, of ten years of age and above, who cannot read and who cannot write. The latter class is also divided into "native whites," "foreign whites," and colored. In the whole country, out of a total population above ten years of age of 36,761,607, 4,923,431 were returned as unable to read and 6,239,958 as unable to write. The former is 13.4 per cent., the latter 17 per cent., which, contrasted with 16 and 20 per cent. (the proportions of the corresponding classes in 1870), shows a very decided gain in the direction of, at least, the rudiments of education. Of the whites above ten years of age, the "cannot writes" formed 9.4 per cent. The native whites, however, show a proportion of but 8.7 per cent., while foreign whites show 12 per cent. A very large proportion of the illiteracy of the country, and especially of the South, is seen to be among the colored population, where the "cannot writes" form 70 per cent. of all above ten years of age. The distribution of the illiterates is a very interesting question. Plotting the percentages of the "cannot reads" upon a map of the United States, one prominent fact which stands out in bold relief is, that most of the illiteracy of the country exists south of Mason and Dixon's line, the Ohio, and the south boundary of Missouri. North of it are New Jersey, with 4.5 per cent.; Pennsylvania, 4.6; Ohio, 3.6; Indiana, 4.8; Illinois, 4.3; Missouri, 8.9; and Kansas, 3.6. South of it are Delaware, 15.8; Maryland, 16; Virginia, 34; West Virginia, 12.1; Kentucky, 22.2; and Arkansas, 28.8. Further south the matter grows yet more serious, the States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana ranging between 40 and 50 per cent. This is in great part due, of course, to the large proportion of the colored element; but, eliminating this, we still find a very marked difference upon the two sides of the line above traced. The white "cannot writes" north of this line range from 4.9 per cent. in Ohio to 10.5 per cent. in Missouri, while, bordering this line on the South, the percentages range from 8.1 in Maryland to 25 in Arkansas. The average of the States north of this line is between 5 and 6 per cent., while that of the southern group is between 17 and 18 per cent.

—Regarding the number of "cannot reads" as furnishing the measure of education in the community, Iowa is the "banner State," having out of its total population but 2.4 per cent. of illiterates. Then follows Nebraska, with but 2.5 per cent.; and Wyoming, with 2.6. The Northeastern States, including New England, on the whole, fall behind the Northern Central States, probably because of the large manufacturing interests, which have drawn to them the Irish, French Canadian, and similar classes of immigrants, while the German and Scandinavian elements, particularly the better portions of them, have gone to the Northern Central section. Turning to the other extreme, the greatest proportion of illiterates is found in South Carolina, where nearly one-half the population over ten years of age (48.2 per cent.) cannot read. Louisiana follows close behind, with 45.8 per cent.; Alabama, with 43.5; and Georgia, with 42.8 per cent. Considering the whites alone of this group of States, however, North Carolina is found to have the largest proportion, with Tennessee occupying the second rank, probably in virtue of their mountain population, which is proverbially ignorant. In the Western States and Territories the conditions are very diversified. In the greater part of this section the proportion of illiterates is low; California, with 7.1, and Nevada, with 7.3 per cent., having, with two exceptions, the highest. Arizona has 16.7 per cent., and New Mexico, 60.2. In these Territories, and especially the latter, a large proportion of the population is of Mexican descent, which is well known to be extremely ignorant. Moreover, a large number of Pueblo and Moquis Indians are here included in the population, in accordance with the treaty of Guadelupe Hidalgo.

—A comparison of these figures with corresponding ones from the Ninth Census makes a gratifying exhibit of our educational progress, at least as far as the rudiments are concerned. In the country at large, the percentage of the "cannot reads" has fallen from 16 to 13.4 per cent. This gain, too, has been widespread, only Maine, New Hampshire, California, Nevada, Oregon, Washington, Utah, and Montana showing a retrogression in this regard, while in many of the States the progress has been very great. These cases of retrogression have been apparent only, having been produced by a change in the population rather than by a decrease of education. In Maine and New Hampshire the influx of factory operatives, chiefly Irish and French Canadians, has lowered the average. In the Pacific States the Chinese have enacted the same rôle, assisted, to a considerable extent, by the importation of German and Welsh miners. The greatest steps toward a decrease of illiteracy, aside from one or two of the Territories where immigration from the East has been going on rapidly, have been taken in the South. Florida has decreased her percentage of illiteracy from

51 to 38; Mississippi, from 50 to 41.9; Georgia, from 50 to 42.8; Virginia, from 44 to 34; and Texas, from 33 to 24.1. In the first and last of these States much of the change is unquestionably due to immigration; still, it is to be borne in mind that nearly all the immigration to these States comes from other Southern States, and is not of a character to affect the average very markedly.

—"J." writes us from Cincinnati:

"I do not think that a child of the present generation, when his curiosity is aroused by the graceful youth who, in Raphael's 'Marriage of the Virgin,' 'breaks a stick across his knee,' receives the same explanation of the act that was given to 'D.,' of Menlo Park, fifty years ago. Now the child is bid to notice that St. Joseph there, as in many other pictures, carries a rod (stick) which has blossomed into lilies, and he is told the legend of how the Virgin, by her beauty and sweetness, won to herself many suitors besides the aged Joseph. The High Priest, unable to decide between their claims, bids them, after the manner of Aaron and the rebellious princes of Israel, lay up each his rod in the Temple; and, lo! the next morning, Joseph's rod, like Aaron's, had blossomed, and the miracle was received as a token that the Lord had chosen him to become the Virgin's husband. The graceful youth is one of the rejected suitors, and in despite breaks the rod which has done him such ill service. Such, at least, is the explanation given by Mrs. Jameson, in her 'Legends of the Madonna.'"

Likewise, as another correspondent reminds us, Muntz, the latest biographer of Raphael, describes Joseph's rivals in this picture as "manifestant leur dépit en brisant la baguette qui n'a point porté de fleurs" (p. 84).

—M. César Daly, in a late number of his *Revue Générale d'Architecture*, has advanced an interesting theory on the origin of the arch and vault and their introduction into Egyptian architecture. Like all modern theories, it is evolutionary—that is, it proceeds on the supposition that each new phenomenon resembles its predecessor in the main, that it differs in only a few particulars, and that the differences are the result of changed circumstances. When the early Egyptian, ten thousand years ago, wanted a more permanent habitation than the tent that had sheltered his wandering ancestors, he found at his command three substances: mud, reed, stone. With the last the kings and priests, who had great forces at their service, built pyramids and temples, and rich men constructed their dwellings in cities. But before that pitch of civilization there must have been a style of building which has continued by the side of the other in the dwellings of the fellahin down to this day, in which the first two materials are used together. A square hole dug in the ground is surmounted by four walls of mud and reeds, and a roof of cane covered by branches and grass, which is all that is needed in a rainless country. This is the simplest method that has survived to this day. But M. Daly, with the eye of theory, looks back into what may be called a pre-antiquarian time, and sees there a missing link. There must have been, he thinks, a construction with the first material alone. The peasant formed a heap of sand as large as he wished his hut to be, threw over it a layer of tenacious Nile mud, and, when the mud was dry, pulled out the sand through an opening which became his doorway. Here was the first dome. If he wanted a large hut, as the mud dome was not strong enough to be made of very great diameter, he made it oblong; the larger the hut wanted, the longer it became: here was the vault. When unbaked bricks were discovered, the vault was made of them, and in this form it is still to be seen in any Egyptian village; but the moulded house has centuries since gone out of use. The dome, the vault, and the arch (for the doorway was an arch) thus discovered at the very outset of building, instead of being, as has often been thought, the result of late conscious architectural thought, were used very sparingly in the stone architecture of the Egyptians. The priests avoided the arch in the temples, the rich used it rarely in their dwellings. It was left for the hut, the storehouse, and the tomb. For some reason or other the Egyptian regarded it with a distinct æsthetic aversion. The origin of this aversion M. Daly promises to discuss on some future occasion.

—A few months ago, we noticed the first volume of the 'Verfassung und Verwaltung des römischen Staates' of the veteran Danish scholar, J. N. Madvig. The second volume, completing the work, has made its appearance—not so speedily as was promised, nevertheless with remarkable promptness, in view of our usual experience in the continued works of German scholars. It consists of six chapters: "Die Theile des Reichs," "Das Rechtswesen," "Das Staatshaushalt," "Kriegswesen," "Gottesverehrung," and "Verschiedene Einrichtungen zum Besten des Staates und der Bürger," such as Education, Post, Hygiene, etc. The first volume was devoted to *Verfassung* (Constitution), this to *Verwaltung* (Administration). It will be seen that it embraces topics on which we are at present lamentably deficient in books of reference—the administration of justice, for example. Until we have some complete and scholarly work in English (of which we see no prospect), this will probably be found the best work for that large class of American students who, being sufficiently familiar with the German language, but not having either the time or the means, or the special training to make use of Mommsen and Marquardt or Lange, wish nevertheless to possess themselves of the latest results of scholarship in this field. The rule of limitation which has guided the author in the composition of the entire work is well enough indicated in his words with regard to the chapter on *Rechtswesen*: "the questions which a man well informed in political matters, and not destitute of some knowledge of the principles of law, but who was neither a lawyer nor a judge, would raise, and what he would desire to know if he had to take a survey of the condition and practice of law in a foreign country, in which this entire side of public life rested upon a different basis from that of his own country; and at the same time the needs of philologists in the treatment of literature." The first chapter, upon the municipal and colonial administration of the Republic and the Empire, will be found especially instructive, as this is a field in which the author has distinguished himself as an original investigator and discoverer.

—Steinway Hall was again crowded on Thursday by the admirers of Mr. Joseffy and Mr. Thomas. The concert began with a fine performance of Beethoven's "Coriolan" overture, which Wagner, who has written an admirable analysis of it, justly pronounces one of his most important compositions—the musical accompaniment, as it were, of a pantomimic representation which is present to the mind's eye, the music embodying the whole poetic language of the situation. The other orchestral selections were Schubert's "Reiter-Marsch," with Liszt's orchestration, and that wondrous epitome of the greatest of all music-dramas—the introduction and finale of Wagner's "Tristan und Isolde," in the interpretation of which Mr. Thomas and his orchestra again proved their ability to guide the lava stream of ever-increasing passion to that violent overflow which seems to signify the annihilation of a universe. Mr. Joseffy's contributions were a number of short solo pieces, of which Schumann's "Vogel als Prophet" was particularly well played, and two concertos: Chopin's First, in E minor, and one of his own, written in one movement. In the Chopin concerto the poetic significance of cantabile passages and sustained notes was not fully revealed, but the airy and graceful runs were executed with Mr. Joseffy's usual nimble and exquisite skill. Although Chopin, through want of practice, was not always at ease in his treatment of the orchestra, there are passages in the accompaniment to this concerto as remarkable for beauty of color as for originality of ideas. And it may be remarked here, in parenthesis, that Chopin's trio for piano, violin, and 'cello is beyond comparison the finest work of its kind ever written—a fact which utterly refutes the idea that Chopin could write only for the piano. Mr. Joseffy's own concerto, which has the merit of being short, will not secure him as prominent a place among composers as his execution of it assigns him among pianists. It is a work by a pianist for a pianist, and while it gives Mr. Joseffy ample opportunity to display his digital dexterity, it does not excite in the hearer any feeling beyond that of surprise. It is, however, ably scored, the treatment of the orchestra suggesting Liszt and Saint-Saëns, while the sudden introduction of cymbals and triangles in situations where they are not expected or called for is in accordance with the surprise method of Berlioz, which cannot be recommended for imitation, as the instrumentation ought to grow out of the idea, and not the idea out of the instrumentation. It need hardly be added that Mr. Joseffy's performance was, as usual, followed by demonstrative applause.

—The concert of the Symphony Society on Saturday evening was made memorable by the first appearance in this country of Mme. Albani since 1876. When it was known that, owing to her non-arrival on Friday, Miss Thursby had been engaged to take her place at the rehearsal, few probably expected to hear her at the concert. But she arrived on Friday evening, and courageously determined that the audience in the Academy should not be disappointed on the following evening. Quite at her best she could not show herself. In her first song she plainly betrayed the effects of the long sea voyage by singing a trifle below the pitch and with a want of mellowness and facility of execution. Bellini's "Casta Diva" was a poor selection to make for such an occasion, and it must be frankly stated that her singing of it was a decided disappointment. She was, however, repeatedly recalled, which showed that American audiences are not so cynical as they are sometimes said to be. In her second song—Haydn's "With Verdure Clad"—the defects just named almost entirely disappeared, showing her still possessed of that clear, rich, expressive voice which, coupled with her dramatic talent, has secured her so prominent a place among European *prime donne*. She is less at home among the fioriture of Italian composers than in cantabile and dramatic passages and in the German Lieder, of which she sang a few specimens by Brahms and Rubinstein. Her long connection with the poor opera companies of London has had the bad result of making her strive for cheap effect by exaggerated shading or an over-prolonged note. In this respect she could learn a good lesson from Patti. Mme. Albani has been pronounced the finest *Elsa* on the stage by no less an authority than Dr. Hans von Bülow. The expectation of seeing her in that rôle next spring is, however, very much marred by the knowledge that she will be heard amid those wretched surroundings which Mr. Mapleson habitually provides for the delectation of his audiences. The orchestral parts of the programme embraced Beethoven's "Corio-

lan" overture, Schumann's Fourth Symphony, a march by Schubert, orchestrated by Liszt, and the Vorspiel to Wagner's "Meistersinger." Of these the march and overture were most satisfactorily performed. The symphony was, with the exception of the finale, played in a tame and uninteresting manner. It requires massive effects of sound which cannot well be given except with a larger orchestra. The "Meistersinger" prelude would have been more impressive had the trombones displayed a greater amount of courage and emphasis in the march passage. On the whole, however, the orchestra played better than ever before, and it is gratifying to see how much Dr. Damrosch has accomplished with it within a few months.

POOLE'S INDEX.

An Index to Periodical Literature. By Wm. F. Poole. Third edition, brought down to January, 1882, with the assistance, as Associate-Editor, of Wm. I. Fletcher, and the coöperation of the American Library Association and the Library Association of the United Kingdom. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. Large 8vo, xxvii. and 1,442 pp.

THE first edition of this work, a mere pigmy by the side of the present, was eagerly seized upon by college students when it appeared in 1848, and doubled the use of periodicals in university libraries; the second edition, published five years later, has refuted the often-repeated fallacy that a printed catalogue is of no use, because it must be incomplete the very day after its publication. Poole's 'Index' has been incomplete for thirty years, becoming every month more and more deficient in the most important matters, and yet it has been more used in all the libraries that owned it than any other book except "the dictionary" and perhaps "the gazetteer." All subjects are treated now in periodicals, often by the best writers. No one can treat exhaustively of any topic without knowing what the periodicals have said or are saying about it. For a generation no bibliography has been thought complete which did not enumerate articles in periodicals as well as books. Considering this, it is a wonder that we could have done so long without a continuation, as it is that the world could have got along without the telegraph and the telephone. To be sure, there were some substitutes—the indexes published by serial magazines, and latterly the Q. P. Indexes. But these, though more minute in their references, and therefore not superseded by the new work, are unhandy for ordinary use.

It may be doubted, ho wever, whether student would have had this new time-saver, much as it was needed, without the aid of coöperation. To make the index of 1853 was no slight task; to have made it and never to have had any pay for it was not an encouragement to work on a new edition, and the longer it was delayed the more formidable did the work become, both for indexer and publisher. With the aid of fifty-one associates, it was not indeed easy, but possible. It is to be hoped that it will be also profitable, because public utility demands that it should be continued. The entries are already a year behind time; but it is the intention of the editors to issue an index for 1882 early in the spring; to follow this, if encouraged, with annual supplements, which will be consolidated, we suppose, every five or ten years, just as in Germany the classified lists of new publications, first issued every week, are combined quarterly, still in classified form, but with alphabetical indexes, and are again issued every three or four years in a single alphabet. If this is done, and if the projected index of essays not periodical is issued, the American schoolboy and schoolgirl will live in a paradise of ease, so far as theme-writing is concerned. More advanced readers and writers will find it not perhaps of so constant, but of greater, benefit, even when the libraries to which they have immediate access do not possess the volumes referred to. So many libraries nowadays allow their volumes to circulate beyond the limits of the cities where they are, that a country minister, doctor, lawyer, literary man can generally get any volume of which he has need. It is for his advantage, then, that his town library should contain the work which tells him where he can find articles that treat of the subject of his investigations. In the same way, the great catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office at Washington is useful all over the country.

The plan of the new edition is substantially the same as that of the old. As the greater mass of material required, there are more cross-references, though perhaps not yet enough. The comfort of cross-references—guide-boards that set a man right when he has been upon the wrong path—is seldom sufficiently appreciated by indexers. A man must himself have been lost to appreciate them. They are also useful when they point out to the man who is right as far as he has gone, that other paths which of himself he would hardly have thought of entering upon will give him additional views of his subject. A new feature is a chronological conspectus of the magazines indexed, in which the volumes are numbered continuously from the first to the last, with an entire and justifiable disregard of the numerous "series" in which some of the periodicals have indulged, with no other results (whatever the intention may have been) than to exhibit their editors' inability to count correctly, and to perplex the unfortunate persons who had to consult or catalogue them. In this table the first volume published in each year is given, so that it will be easy for owners of periodicals to remember them in accordance with the list, which was followed throughout in making the references in the body of the 'Index.'

The abbreviations are easily understood. In the titles of articles the general effect would have been clearer, we think, if the editors had adopted the modern custom of using capitals for nothing but proper names and the first words of titles. The increased length of some articles has necessitated more careful subdivision than was required in the previous edition. References under such headings as England, France, Great Britain, United States, are thrown into groups, and these groups are in certain cases arranged chronologically, as is done in the best catalogues. For instance, under Great Britain, which fills seventeen columns, the political articles, which alone make four columns, are brought together; a few general articles lead off, and then follow "in 1806," "in 1807." When we come to 1830-34, the Reform period, the references are, of course, numerous. In the same way, England (thirteen columns) has a group "Antiquities," and another "History," five columns long, and chronologically sub-arranged.

We have said that the work might never have been issued without coöperation; but there are some disadvantages in the coöperative method. Even when indexing is done by one person, or when several work in the same place, consulting one another, or under the orders of a single head, there will be occasional inconsistencies, however careful all concerned may be; but when fifty persons are indexing at as many different places, unable to refer each difficulty as it arises to the editor, and perhaps not always with sufficient experience to know that there is a difficulty, they are sure to treat the same cases in very different ways, and the n mber of incongruities in the first draft must be many times greater; the editors would need a superhuman acuteness to detect them all. There is one pitfall to which the assistants are sure to lead their chief, and which he needs the most unsleeping vigilance always to avoid. When any subject or person has two names, one contributor may enter an article about it under the first, and another enter another article under the second. Unless the editor, when he comes to one entry, remembers the other, and so gets the two together, we shall find, to take an example from the book before us, entries both under Napoleon II. and Reichstadt, Duke of, and no cross-reference; and the reader who looks in either place will get only part of the literature of his subject. The only way to escape such misfortunes is for the editor to ask himself under every heading (there are at least 50,000 in the 'Index'), Is there any other word under which this subject can be spoken of? Was this person ever known by any other name or nickname? If he omits to do this, or if he does not know all the synonyms, or if he for the moment forgets one of them, he is lost; he may admit a serious error. His attention must not be relaxed for an instant; he must never be forgetful or confused or obtuse, however tired or hurried he may be. It is no disgrace to the present editors if, after rectifying scores of cases of double entry, a few yet remain. We find, for example, an article mentioned under Christina Leonora of Denmark, and two others under Leonora Christina, and no cross-reference either way; there are entries both under Decretals and False Decretals; under Duff, M. E. Grant-, and Grant-Duff; under De Maistre and Maistre, de; under d'Éon, Chevalier, and Éon de Beaumont, Chevalier d'; under Catalogues and Libraries, Catalogues of; under Classification and Libraries, Classification of; under Cataloguing and Libraries, Classification of Dictionary Catalogues; under College Libraries, and Libraries, College; under Kalb and De-Kalb; under Algiers and Barbary States, and no cross-references in any case. Nor is there any reference from Du Deffand (where French students would look for her) to Deffand, Mme. du, which is the heading chosen. Most of the references to the Pretender are put under Charles Edward; but there is one under Stuart, Charles Edward, and unluckily, in the latter place, by one of those accidents which will happen in the best regulated printing-offices, the heading Stuart, Gilbert, has been transposed, so that all his references are given to Stuart, Charles Edward.

There is another class of errors for which the editors are hardly responsible—viz., those which arise from the frequent practice among magazine writers of selecting fanciful, and therefore obscure or misleading titles, for their articles. The indexer does not notice that a real person is concealed under a metaphorical or allusive appellation; and the editor, not having the magazine in his hands, has no means of detecting the oversight. We have no doubt that in many cases instinct has suggested that something was wrong, and investigation has disclosed the truth; but not always. Nobody noticed, for instance, that "Who Invented the Sewing-Machine?" (*Galaxy*, 4: 471) is really a sketch of Walter Hunt, and so the man who is looking for something about him will hunt in vain; some one did not discover that by "A Cagliostro of the Second Century" Froude (in the *Nineteenth Century*) meant Abonoteichos, and he—or she—puts it under Cagliostro. So an article in the *Atlantic* on the Gaucho is not put under its real subject, Quiroga; nor Bayard Taylor's "Land of Paoli" (*Atlantic*) under Corsica. An article on Calvin and Servetus in

Scribner's appears under neither C nor S, but under Geneva, because its author called it "Use of Fagots at Geneva"; an article in the *Atlantic* on James Fazy, called "Story of a Swiss Ring Politician," is neither under Fazy nor Switzerland nor Geneva; another in the same magazine, by Bayard Taylor, called "The Republic of the Pyrenees," is neither under Andorra nor Pyrenees nor Republic; one by Howells on Parini, "An Obsolete Fine Gentleman," is not indexed at all. "A Curiosity of Literature" (*Atlantic*) is not under Arnim, Bettina von, nor under Bettina; indeed, we have not found it anywhere. "El Llanero" (*Atlantic*) is not under Paez. "The Jackdaw Author" (*St. Paul's* and *Liv. Age*) does not appear under St. Simon; "The First of the Stuarts" (*Quarterly* and *Liv. Age*) is not to be found under James I.; "The Chevalier's Conversion" (*St. Paul's* and *Liv. Age*) is not indexed at all.

A few articles appear to have been overlooked, or else the slips written were lost. There should be, but there are not, entries under Ahlefeldt, Countess (*Liv. Age*, v. 62), Bibracte (by Hamerton, *Atlantic*, v. 26), Eishausen mystery (*Liv. Age*, v. 60), Fellenberg, E. von (*Atlantic*, v. 31), Samoan Islands (*Atlantic*, v. 22). The only misprint of a proper name that we have noticed is Bokhum, H., for Bokum. We will only add that the series of articles by Gladstone on Achilles' shield in the *Contemporary*, mentioned as reprinted in the *Canadian Monthly*, was also reprinted in the *Living Age*. These are slight blemishes in a great and useful work. No intimation is given in the preface that corrections are desired, but we have no doubt that all sent to the editors will be gratefully received, and used either for the correction of the stereotype plates, or, where this is impossible, will be inserted in the next supplement published. In this way coöperation will perfect its work.

THE WINTHROP PAPERS.

Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. viii. Fifth Series. Boston: Published by the Society. 1882.

THE term "Winthrop Papers" applies to a mass of manuscripts collected or preserved by six generations of the Winthrop family in Connecticut, and which, in 1860, came into the possession of Mr. Robert C. Winthrop, President of the Massachusetts Historical Society. The new volume of the Collections is in reality the fourth volume of the Winthrop Papers, and is mainly made up of such letters of the sons and grandsons of the first Governor, John Winthrop, as have not hitherto appeared in print. The editors, Messrs. Charles C. Smith, George Dexter, and Robert C. Winthrop, jr., have furnished the necessary biographical and explanatory notes, and the last-named has borne the expense of printing the work. A portrait of John Winthrop, jr., forms the frontispiece.

It is appositely remarked by the editors, in their preface to the letters, that the writers "may be seen to have been amiable and genial men, good sons, affectionate husbands, devoted fathers and brothers, serviceable friends, not slothful in business, serving the Lord, given to hospitality, addicted to moderate amusement and scientific investigation, while perhaps singularly free from harshness and illiberality of word or deed"; and that their letters to each other were "helpful, straightforward, rarely digressing from the matter in hand, breathing a profound reliance on the will of God, and a spirit of devout resignation in sorrow and adversity." We are not inclined to say that the letters may be considered dull reading. They will come before only a small minority of the reading public, but that small minority will not fail to find in them an abundance of interesting matter. Four John Winthrops appear in the pages of this volume—namely, John Winthrop, the first Governor of Massachusetts; his son, John Winthrop, jr.; his grandson of the same name, known as Fitz-John, to distinguish him from his father and grandfather; and his great-grandson, styled by his descendants "John Winthrop, F.R.S.," although John, jr., and Fitz-John were equally entitled to add to their names these honorable initials. Later on there was another John Winthrop, F.R.S., one of Harvard's most illustrious professors, but he comes not within the scope of this work. It is doubtful if any other American family can present so many bright examples of what has been called "inherited ability."

The letters of John Winthrop, jr., take up nearly a third of the book. As many as twenty-two had already been printed in the 'Life and Letters of John Winthrop,' and a considerable number of others are to be found in previous volumes of the Collections and Proceedings of the Historical Society. This man was one of the most eminent of New England's worthies. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and in 1631 followed his father to New England, where he became the founder of Ipswich, in Massachusetts, and New London, in Connecticut, and Governor of Connecticut from 1657 to his death in 1676. He practised the healing art extensively and gratuitously, and it is to be found in the 'Magnalia' that he was "furnished with noble medicines, which he most generously and charitably gave away upon all occasions, insomuch that wherever he came, still the diseased flocked about him, as if the healing angel of Bethesda had appeared in the place." It is mentioned that in 1640 he was possessed of a library of more than a thousand volumes. He was the friend and correspondent of many learned men, and his letters dealing with various subjects—philosophy, chemistry, agriculture, astronomy, politics, literature, etc.—are proofs that he was one of the most accomplished scholars of the age.

Letters from other sons of the elder Winthrop—from Henry, who was accidentally drowned July 2, 1630, the day following his arrival in the country; Forth, a graduate of Cambridge University, who also met his death in 1630; Stephen, who came with his father to New England, was Recorder of Boston and a representative, and, returning to England, became a member of one of Cromwell's Parliaments and a colonel in his army; Adam, Deane, and Samuel—occupy about ninety pages of the work. Samuel Winthrop, the youngest of the first Governor's sons who lived to grow up to manhood, was for some time a student at Harvard, although not long enough to take a degree. At the age of eighteen he left the country to seek his fortune abroad, and eventually established himself as a planter in the Antilles. His letters—five to his father and sixteen to his brother John—form an interesting portion of the group, and were written from Teneriffe, Barbadoes, St. Christopher, Fayal, Rotterdam (where he married a Dutch lady), and Antigua. They show us something of his struggles with adversity, and are filled with sentiments of the truest piety. He was a Quaker, and in an account of the sufferings of that sect in Antigua is mentioned as one of four who refused to take the oath of allegiance at the time of the conquest of the island by the French in 1666. The Governor (Clodare) had summoned the English inhabitants together and told them they were all prisoners of war and at his mercy; that all who would take an oath of allegiance to the King of France might remain and enjoy their estates, but such as refused he would carry away, prisoners of war, to France. The inhabitants generally submitted and took the oath—all but the four Quakers, and they boldly refused, "for that they could not swear, what suffering soever might follow." They would "freely promise not to fight against the King of France, nor for him, nor, indeed, against the King of England, nor for him," for, they said, "we can act no more for the one than the other in matter of war." Their firmness so impressed the Governor that he complimented them for their honesty, said that he was satisfied with their promise, and gave them their liberty. In the account from which we quote, Winthrop heads the list of sturdy Quakers, and appears to have been the spokesman. In 1671 he writes to his brother John:

"I have been much comforted to hear and read of thy tenderness to persecuted Friends in New England, who have taken up the cross and despised the shame, to give their testimony of the light and to reprove that which is evil, to declare against all buildings that are not set upon the rock, and have lost their lives for the testimony of Jesus."

It is recorded in 'New England Judged' that John Winthrop, jr., had labored with the Boston magistrates that they would not put the condemned Quakers to death, saying that he "would beg it of them on his bare knees that they would not do it." In 1672 Samuel recommends to the attentions of his brother "my friend Lewis Morris, who is among men known by the name of Col. Lewis Morris. By his brother Richard he made a considerable settlement at New York, whither he is going shortly (having received news of the death of his brother and his brother's wife) to look after his concerns there. I suppose thou mayest have heard of him (being a person very eminent), though not of his friendship towards me, which he hath in my lowest condition frankly continued, and still doth." Another of Winthrop's friends was George Fox, and the two had a "refreshing season" together in Barbadoes. In a letter to his brother (April 23, 1672), Samuel Winthrop gives a pathetic account of his endeavors to pay an obligation to William Bond, at Boston:

"When Ephraim Child desired me to pay that sixty-four pounds for him, I shipped in Saunders a great quantity of sugar, besides ten tons of lignum vitæ, then a very good commodity, but in both much more than would pay that sum. The said Saunders, as is supposed, foundered in the sea, being to this day unheard of, for aught I know. The second attempt I made in Captain Brookes, loading in his ship a parcel of choice sugar, which fell into De Ruyter's hands and was carried for Holland. A third time I sent sugar from hence to Nevis, to take freight for London."

Against this third shipment he drew bills of exchange in favor of William Bond, but the vessel carrying the bills, "after many weeks beating at sea, returned hither again and brought back said bills." A "fourth assay" to make the payment succeeded no better than the other three, and "once more" he makes a shipment of sugar and molasses, hoping thereby to "end this business." He continues: "Once William Bond wrote to me as if he thought I had forgotten, and sent me an abstract of my several letters to freshen my memory. Truly, brother, it hath proved a debt more dear to me than that I can so easily forget it." In a note introductory to his letters, it is stated that in 1688 he was Deputy Governor of Antigua. In other accounts he is named as the Governor, and it is certain that he was held in high esteem throughout the island. Among his descendants in the female line is Lord Lyons, long British Minister at Washington.

"It is the fate of man," says Cotton Mather, in his sermon at the funeral of Fitz-John Winthrop, "to be soon forgotten; he appears a very little while, and it is quickly forgotten that he was ever in the world." And then, a little further on, as if desiring to qualify the rule, he declares: "I say of this our Winthrop, he will be *ever* mentioned for his paternal, and patient, and generous administration of the public affairs."

A charge laid upon Fitz-John by his father, that if ever he had an opportunity to do any service for his country, he should do it with the greatest alacrity, he most faithfully fulfilled. He was for eight years the Governor of Connecticut, and for five years the colony's agent in England; he was a major in King Philip's war, and major-general and second in command of the expedition against Canada in 1690. When a young man he went to England, and served in the Parliamentary army with the rank of captain. He died in Boston, November 27, 1707, and was "buried with his fathers" in King's Chapel burying-ground. In view of three John Winthrops "together entombed in the same sleeping-place and sepulchre," his eulogist exclaims: "There is not such another Tomb to be seen in all America. One of the Seven Wonders of the World was a Tomb. This may be esteemed One of the American World." Most of Fitz-John Winthrop's printed letters are from rough drafts, or from copies kept by the writer. Presumably, many of his letters have been lost, for there are lapses of years in the correspondence—years very eventful in the history of the colonies. Those preserved run through a period of forty years—from 1660 to 1700.

Wait Still Winthrop (always mentioned as Wait Winthrop), younger brother of Fitz-John Winthrop, filled high stations in Massachusetts. He was Judge of the Court of Admiralty, Chief Justice of the Superior Court, Major-General of the Colonial Militia, member of the Executive Council, and acted a prominent part in the overthrow of Andros. He was one of the judges of the court which tried the Salem witches, and is reported to have been inclined to mercy, but none of his letters written in the year of those trials have been preserved. He died November 7, 1717, and had a funeral which, according to Sewell, cost the State £1,000, owing to the great parade of troops. This volume contains his letters from 1659 to 1699, the most of them being to his brother and largely taken up with family and business affairs. Writing to Sir Henry Ashurst, under date of July 25, 1698, he says:

"The places I have sustained since I have been concerned in the Government have hitherto been very expensive to me; and, indeed, I know no place that will yield a suitable recompense for my attendance on it, unless (as has been done of late and is not yet wholly laid aside) I shall eat up the poor as bread and squeeze them to death by virtue of an office; which is so contrary to my nature and inclinations that I had rather make one of them than mend my condition in that way. . . . I have not spent less than three thousand pounds while I have been concerned here, which I might have saved and added more than so much to it if I had neglected the public, and minded my private occasions; but if I have been any ways instrumental to serve the best interest here and keep this people from that slavery which they were groaning under and have almost forgot already, I am satisfied."

Massachusetts never had a more capable and faithful servant than Wait Winthrop.

John Winthrop, F.R.S., son of Wait Winthrop, graduated at Harvard in 1700. Only one of his letters is here given; but others from his hand, with those of Fitz-John and Wait Winthrop of a date later than 1700, will be printed in a forthcoming volume.

FRANCIS LIEBER.

The Life and Letters of Francis Lieber. Edited by Thomas Sergeant Perry. With portrait. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

MR. PERRY has had no lack of materials for producing a biography of Dr. Lieber. He was probably, in fact, embarrassed by their abundance, as Dr. Lieber left behind him not only a large amount of legal, social, and political discussion, through which his mental life can be traced, but also a correspondence which gives us very fully his personal history. Mr. Perry, with true biographical tact, very wisely decided to keep law and politics at a distance whenever this was possible. He has not himself attempted to produce an original work, but allows the reader to make the acquaintance of Lieber through his letters, which show him as he appeared to his contemporaries, full of enthusiasm, intelligence, and generous impulse. He was really rather a practical reformer than a theorist. He can hardly be said to have had an original or even a consistent system. Those who have gone over his works since his death have not found in them any distinctly new contribution to human thought. His celebrated legal maxim, "No right without its duty; no duty without its right," is not now regarded as expressing what he might have called an actual jural fact, and the idea of the universal correlation of right and duty was not wholly new. Probably as time goes on it will turn out that, as a speculative writer, Lieber derived a large part of his reputation from the fact that the country possessed few speculative writers in his day, and was eager to magnify the importance of any "thinker" who made his home here. He was a recognized "thinker" among a people condemned for the most part to practical toil, but having a profound respect for thought, and a patriotic pride in any one, native or foreign-born, who increased the credit of the United States as a thinking country.

But when we come to see his character, as Mr. Perry successfully displays it in this volume, we perceive at once how it was that Lieber, as a man, produced a profound impression on his contemporaries. It is the fashion nowadays to associate enthusiasm with a lack of intellect. At the present day we are inclined to avoid, rather than to seek, the society of those who glow with feeling, and are fond of producing lofty and inspiring views of life, of human nature and the future of the race; not infrequently we are inclined to suspect them of having some personal end to gain.

When Lieber was a young man, it was not so. The air was full of enthusiasm, and the strongest and best men of the time were those who got most benefit from its bracing effect. We see it in careers of the most opposite type. Byron and Lieber, for instance, were both Philhellenes, and both went to Greece to fight for liberty. There was a firm conviction in the minds of both that the cause of most of the evils of the world was tyranny—the misgovernment and oppression of privileged classes; that human beings, if left to themselves, must act for the best, and that as soon as the shackles were knocked off, they would do so. With the modern conception of government as being a product of the civilization in which it arises, and therefore not to be regarded entirely as something imposed upon the community, the world in general was unfamiliar. This fact accounts for the mistakes, as it does for the triumphs, of the enthusiasts of the first quarter of the century. They looked upon the rising of the Greeks as they would have done upon the rising of the Germans or Italians, and overlooked altogether the vices of the Greek character which made successful self-government so difficult for them. It was one of the first fruits of Lieber's campaign in Greece that he discovered that the value of liberty depends upon the use to which its possessors are capable of putting it.

We can trace through his letters the effect of experience in tempering without chilling the natural enthusiasm of his youth. He had by no means an easy or pleasant life, although he gained troops of friends and was crowded with honors at the last. When he came over here he had a long and tedious struggle with poverty and adversity before he obtained any recognition of his merits. He had to teach swimming to boys. He had to provide articles covering the whole field of human knowledge for an encyclopædia. He had to exile himself in a Southern State, where he was obliged to keep his counsel as to the state of society in which he found himself, and at the same time to endure for his silence the risk of being considered among his friends at the North a renegade to his principles. It was not until he was a man of comparatively advanced years that he was able to secure that ease of mind and comfort without which successful intellectual labor is so difficult. In his old age he was afflicted by the division, caused by the war, in his family, one of his sons taking the Southern side. If through all his troubles he had preserved the illusions of his youth—the enthusiasm which sent the young "Colberger" to fight against Napoleon, and afterward to help the struggling Hellenes—we could hardly respect him as we do when we find that with advancing age he acquired a more and more practical turn, and saw the dangers of sweeping and sentimental views in politics. He saw in his time many sides of human life, and nothing that he saw soured his temper or diminished his desire to do what he could to serve his fellow-man and his adopted country. His usefulness certainly will long be remembered in this community. It is evident from his letters that toward the close of his life (he had been so often applied to for advice and instruction) he got into the way of volunteering it somewhat unnecessarily on every variety of subject, and in all quarters—now making suggestions to a professor in Germany about an international code, and now advising Mr. Lincoln to withdraw his name from the field as a candidate for the Presidency. This habit grew upon him, and we cannot help being amused by it in his letters. But at the same time we have a feeling that, at its worst, his correspondents were amused, too, rather than offended. His goodness of heart is, in fact, always so apparent that the idea of offence is out of the question.

Diddie, Dumps, and Tot; or, Plantation Child-Life. By Louise-Clarke Pyrnelle. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.

Uncle Gabe Tucker; or, Reflection, Song, and Sentiment in the Quarters. By J. A. Macon. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

MRS. PYRNELLE'S little volume was advertised as a holiday book, but a book that is good for the holidays is good for all days, and, so far as the entertainment it will afford to children is concerned, the same may be said of the story of 'Diddie, Dumps, and Tot.' It also possesses interest for older folk as a faithful description of one phase of a system the literature of which is still comparatively meagre. In her preface, Mrs. Pyrnelle declares that she lays no claim to literary merit, and throughout the book there is a certain crudeness of style and various evidences of haste and awkwardness; but it sometimes happens that the literary art which is instinctive is as full of interest and information as that which is technical. Mrs. Pyrnelle's instinct has led her in the direction of simplicity, and the result is a book which is entertaining enough to be a great popular success.

Mr. Macon's book evidently has no purpose of any sort. It has no literary background or basis, no perspective, and no setting. It is unreasonably vague. Uncle Gabe Tucker, an alleged negro, is projected upon a typographical screen, and from this eminence—if it can be called such—he proceeds to give us brief essays on "Contentment," "Compensation," "Pa-

tience," "Culture," "Speculation," the arguments and the conclusions of which would do credit to a country lawyer. He sings us songs which, with one or two exceptions, are altogether lacking in the melodious inconsequence of genuine negro songs. One of the exceptions is called "Johnson Gals," and even this lacks the stalwart swing which a half-dozen verbal alterations would give it. It pleasantly suggests, however, an old Virginian negro song. After the songs, we have "aphorisms" and anecdotes, and in an appendix Mr. Macon has something to say of the negro dialect.

The moralizing of Uncle Gabe Tucker is shrewd, worldly-wise, sometimes witty, and nearly always ingenious; but it lacks humor—that peculiar humor which is the invariable result of a successful combination of the typical with the characteristic. We get Uncle Gabe's "views," but for all purposes of information they are worthless. Of Uncle Gabe, the man, the type, the character, there is not the slightest hint. Mr. Macon makes the common mistake of supposing that dialect is a mere matter of phonetics. A phonetical reproduction of pronunciation is a very simple affair. The blending of character with ideas, and the fitting of these to circumstances, are matters of both art and intuition. When Mrs. Pyrnelle puts into the mouth of an old negro woman the indignant exclamation, "Gwuf'm dar!" she paints, with one swift stroke, the character of the old Mammy that most Southern children have known. Mrs. Pyrnelle's phonetics, it should be said, are exceedingly awkward and inartistic, but, in spite of that, her dialect is almost perfect. A little while ago, a fugitive negro song went the rounds of the press. One line ran—

"Adam got stung wid a bummel-eye bee."

In "bummel-eye bee" not only have we negro character and idea, but we know the very attitude and expression of the particular negro supposed to be singing.

Mr. Macon, in his essay on the negro dialect, in which he gives us opinions that are clearly not the result of any careful study or observation, declares that "although the negroes are dispersed over a broad area, their dialect is almost exactly the same throughout all the Southern States." We have seen it stated somewhere that Mr. Macon is a Mississippian. If he would take the trouble to step over into Louisiana, and ask a Creole negro for the story of how the terrapin outran the deer, the negro would begin (according to Dr. Mercier) something like this: "Dan tan lé zote foi, compair Chivreil avé compair Torti té tou lé dé apé té lamou à Mamzel Calinda," and so on. Then, should Mr. Macon visit the seacoast of South Carolina and Georgia, and ask for the same story, the negro would begin thus: "Oona yerry 'bout da tam w'in B'er Deer un B'er Cooter is bin lub da sem noung leddy?"—an interrogation that would probably strike Mr. Macon dumb.

It remains to be said here that in Mrs. Pyrnelle's volume are to be found two or three thoroughly characteristic negro songs, the most noteworthy being a spirited version of that remarkable "spiritual," "Roll dat Jordan, Roll!" the music of which is given in 'Slave Songs of the United States.'

Dr. Grimshawe's Secret: a Romance. By Nathaniel Hawthorne. Edited, with Preface and Notes, by Julian Hawthorne. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

THE appearance of any new work of Hawthorne's is an important literary event; and an unfinished novel by him possesses almost as much interest as a finished one. When his note-books were published, some years ago, they were at once welcomed as a significant addition to our knowledge of him, both as a man and as an author. Whether such an addition ought or ought not to have been made is, as a mere literary question, of comparatively little consequence. Having been published, the note-books gave us so much more of Hawthorne than we had before; and, however doubtful we might be of the wisdom of the publication, we could not possibly shut our eyes to the light which it threw upon his life and labors. In the same way, we should be inclined, under ordinary circumstances, to say that 'Dr. Grimshawe's Secret,' being actually given to the public, it is idle to waste time in discussing the question whether it had better have been given or not. It is published, and the question is, what we think of it. But the circumstances which have attended the appearance of this novel are somewhat exceptional, and it differs from Hawthorne's previous posthumous works in having encountered at the outset a doubt as to its authenticity.

On what this doubt originally rested, it is hard to say. Mr. Keningale Cook has recently published a letter saying that he saw the manuscript of the story four years ago. It was lent him by Mr. Julian Hawthorne, who said he had copied it from his father's original manuscript, with much difficulty and labor, owing to the faintness of the ink and the character of the handwriting. He admitted, however, to Mr. Cook that he had not copied the whole, and that the original had been mislaid. Mr. Cook adds the following (we quote from his communication in the London *Athenæum*):

"If the children of letters were as wise in their generation as the children of science, certain expressions of doubt as to the true authorship of 'Dr. Grimshawe' would surely have been delayed until the appearance of the work. Prof. Owen, with two small bones before him, could specify the animals to which they belonged, and with two whole books side by side, the one by the elder, the other by the younger Hawthorne, any literary analyst could surely tell to which they appertained without looking at the title-page.

"Mr. Julian Hawthorne has an exceedingly robust style of his own, and the difference of his manner and method from that of his father has become more and more marked since the opening chapters were written of 'Bressant,' his first published work of fiction. In a single sentence the very rhythm will usually enable us to decide whether it is the father's work or the son's. The delicious dawdlings of Nathaniel Hawthorne; the agreeable digressions into by-ways of fancy into which he beguiles himself, and at the same time charms his reader into wandering—these and other quaint and rare characteristics form the bouquet of the wine of the older vintage; and no strength of the newer wine, however deftly blended, could be mistaken for the other, except by the dullest and furriest of literary palates."

A great deal of this would be very true in the case of an attempt at a Hawthorne forgery. If Mr. Julian Hawthorne were supposed capable of such an unnatural crime, it would no doubt be discovered, because the finished style of the author of 'The Scarlet Letter' is as individual as that of any writer who has ever used the language, and differs from that of his son in one respect which the latter would never be able to mask—we mean the exquisite taste and delicate, evanescent humor that pervades it. But if he had left preparatory studies for a story, and these had been pieced together by his son, it would seem to us to be out of the question to tell from internal evidence what part of the work had been done by the author and what by the editor.

Now, Mr. Hawthorne admits that he has "edited" the story to a certain extent in this way. The manuscript, he says, "presents various apparent inconsistencies"; and "in transcribing the work for the press, these inconsistent sentences and passages have been withdrawn from the text and inserted in the appendix, or, in a few unimportant instances, omitted altogether." But if we are to judge by the long passages from manuscript recently printed in the *Century*, Mr. Hawthorne is mistaken in calling these omissions "few" and "unimportant"; and in any case, to allow him to judge what is important, and what is unimportant, is a right that we can hardly concede to the editor of what he calls a "complete" story by Nathaniel Hawthorne. Mr. Julian Hawthorne also admits in his preface that "in the manuscript each person figures in the course of the narrative under from three to six different names," and that this difficulty has been met by bestowing on each of the characters "the name which last identified him to the author's mind." We must say that all this looks as if "complete" were a rather strong word to apply to the story as it originally stood.

Under these circumstances, whatever we may think of the doubts expressed before the volume appeared, we cannot but feel that Mr. Hawthorne's preface hardly tends to set them altogether at rest. The only way to have avoided this would have been to publish the manuscript, and the whole of it, exactly as it was left by his father. As to the story itself, while it abounds in passages marked by all the beauties of Hawthorne's best writing, it is as a whole crude and raw. That he would have published it as it stands, or even nearly as it stands, is inconceivable, and, therefore, it seems a waste of time to discuss the plot as such. In fact, the lover of Hawthorne will be glad to find in the fact that the book required "editing" a justification for declining to become interested in it, at least until he knows more precisely what the limits of the editor's labors were.

The Land and the Book; or, Biblical Illustrations drawn from the Manners and Customs, the Scenes and Scenery, of the Holy Land. *Central Palestine and Phœnicia.* By William M. Thomson, D.D., forty-five years a Missionary in Syria and Palestine. 130 illustrations and maps. Harper & Bros. 1882.

THIS new volume of 'The Land and the Book,' of which 'Central Palestine and Phœnicia' is, in fact, the principal title, forms an independent work, though completing by its contents the first two volumes, published twenty-three years ago, which treated of Southern Palestine. Like its predecessors, it will readily become a favorite household book among that class of the public for which it is written—the devout believers in the word of the Scriptures. Those who regard Palestine as "the divinely prepared tablet whereon God's messages to men have been graven in ever-living characters," must find a rich source of enjoyment, knowledge, and edification in such pen-pictures as are here presented. The author has seen so much of "the Land," has so minutely examined every point that can afford illustration for "the Book," and describes what he has seen so accurately and so vividly, that even the less devout reader who is tempted to reproach him with a lack of critical sense, with a proneness to discover too many traces of Biblical antiquity, and too many analogies between the hoary past and the present, cannot fail to draw abundant information from his pages, or to admire the charming naturalness of many of his off-hand sketches. The style is excellent throughout, and plain with very rare exceptions, when it assumes a pleasant tinge of poetry, as in the following:

"The young Jordan! type of this strange life of ours! Bright and beautiful in its cradle, laughing its very morning away through the flowery fields of the Hûleh; plunging with the recklessness of youth into the tangled brakes

and muddy marshes of Merom; hurrying thence, full-grown, like earnest manhood, with its noisy and bustling activities, it subsides into life's sober midday in the placid Lake of Gennesaret. When it goes forth again, it is down the inevitable declivity of old age, sinking deeper and deeper, in spite of doublings and windings innumerable, until it disappears for ever in that Sea of Death, that melancholy bourne from which there is neither escape nor return. . . . Must this type of life and immortality be swallowed up by the Dead Sea? Far from it. That is but the Jordan's highway to heaven. Purified from every gross and earthly alloy, it is called back to the skies by the all-attracting sun. . . ."

This ascension of the Jordan, by a process of evaporation, is to remind the reader of "that other resurrection, when Christ shall come in the clouds, and all the holy angels with him." "Nor is this the only lesson which this river has to teach the willing student of the Holy Writ." A brief statement, in Bible words, of the crossing of the stream under the lead of Joshua, serves to teach him the lesson of "all-conquering faith," such as "carried ten thousand times ten thousand of God's people in triumph through the Jordan of death to the Canaan of eternal rest." And this is followed by another glance at the Jordan's birthplace, the pool, or fountain, crowded with odd-looking buffaloes, with nothing but their noses above water. "Observe that their mouths are all turned up stream toward the fountain, and on a level with the surface, as if, like Job's behemoth, they trust that they could drink up a river, and can draw up Jordan into their mouths. . . . These black, hairless brutes are the modern representatives of that 'chief of the ways of God,' who 'eateth grass as an ox,' who 'lieth under the shady trees, in the covert of the reed and fens. The shady trees cover him with their shadow, the willows of the brook compass him about.'" Just so, under the covert of the reeds and willows of brooks creeping through the marsh of the Hûleh, do the buffaloes lie, wallowing in the mire. Our author carries out his retrospects and comparisons in an easy-going way, without regard to the facts that the Hebrews did not cross the Jordan under Joshua near its fountain-head, but near its mouth; that they found no rest in Canaan, but almost eternal strife and trouble; and that the behemoth of Job is, by the best expounders, identified, not with the buffalo, but with the hippopotamus. We find him also little exact in the chronology of the district containing the head waters of the Jordan when he says that Benhadad took the town of Dan "nearly a thousand years before Christ," and "Tiglath Pileser . . . all this region some two hundred years later," for there were almost exactly three hundred years between the two conquests, according to the chronology of "the Book." Whether his general map—certainly much inferior in execution to the numerous pictorial illustrations, after photographs taken by himself, which add life to his descriptions—is not equally inaccurate in the placing and naming of the volcanic tells facing the upper Jordan on the east, we do not venture to assert; but it strongly conflicts with Kiepert's map of Galilee and adjoining parts in Socin's "Palästina und Syrien" (Baedeker's publication of 1880), now recognized as the standard authority on these countries.

Dr. Thomson's diligence in research and examination is evinced most strikingly in points in the life of Christ demanding illustration or justification. Let the reader peruse with attention, for instance, his dissertation showing how, at Capernaum, "the paralytic, borne by four of his friends to the top of the house, was 'let down' from the roof, 'with his couch, into the midst before Jesus,' . . . without damage to the house or its occupants," though the bearers "are said not only to have 'uncovered the roof,' but 'they had broken it up.'" The houses of Capernaum, we are told, were, like those in modern villages of Galilee, "low, with flat roofs easily reached by a stairway from the yard or court. Jesus probably stood in the open lewân," or reception-room, "or he may have taken his stand in the covered court, in front of the house itself. . . . Those who carried the paralytic, not being able to 'come nigh unto him for the press,' ascended to the roof," which is only a few feet above the floor, and removed a part of it; "and by stooping down and holding the corners of the couch—merely a thickly-padded quilt, like those used at present in this region—the sick man could have been let down without any ropes or cords." In the same way the people of the country are still wont to let down grain, straw, and other articles from the roofs of their houses. "The only difficulty in this explanation is to understand how they could break up the roof without sending down such a shower of dust as to incommode our Lord and those around him." This last difficulty is removed by a description of the materials now employed in the construction of roofs: "beams placed about three feet apart, across which short sticks are arranged close together, and covered with a thickly-matted thorn-bush called bellân. Over this is spread a coat of stiff mortar, and above that marl or earth. . . . They had merely to scrape back the earth from a portion of the roof over the lewân, or court, take up the thorns or short sticks, and let down the couch between the beams at the very feet of Jesus." This explanation, we have no doubt, will prove perfectly satisfactory to most readers of the book.

Recollections of Dante Gabriel Rossetti. By T. Hall Caine. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1882.

MR. CAINE is a young man who knew Rossetti during the last four years of his life, mainly through correspondence, but in the months preceding his death more intimately as his constant companion. The reminiscences cover a narrow portion of the poet's career, and reveal him, we have no doubt, in his least admirable character. At the time when Rossetti's attention was first called to Mr. Caine, by a commendatory criticism sent by the latter, he had lived for several years in seclusion, in a large and lonely house, whose solitude was brightened only by the visits of intimate friends who came to cheer and comfort him. He had already passed through one severe physical crisis, during which he seems to have been overcome by the illusion, induced by hostile criticism, that there was a banded conspiracy to put him down, and to this hallucination he was still subject. Mr. Caine writes: "Rossetti was one of the most magnetic of men, but it was not more his genius than his unhappiness that held certain of his friends as by a spell." It is this unhappiness rather than his genius that the 'Recollections' set forth; they show us a broken man, a spirit in decline. It would be wrong, therefore, to accept the portrait as final, or as one really valuable. Furthermore, although the author's announced intention was to exhibit the poet's personality, his success in this regard is incomplete: he gives a very vivid account of Rossetti's surroundings and habits, interweaving with it remarks, criticism, and information, either his own or the poet's, which are valuable; but in the whole volume there is little to throw light on the relations between the poet's work and his personality. The reminiscences are largely of external things, and even in the letters there are remarkably few fine expressions of individuality; character is seldom clearly seen, and, we are sorry to add, when seen, is not noble.

To give at once an impression of the atmosphere that enveloped Rossetti, and overhangs this book as well, we will quote a few passages at length in description of the house in which he kept himself isolated:

"Rossetti's house had to me the appearance of a plain, Queen Anne erection, much mutilated by the introduction of unsightly bay-windows; the brickwork seemed to be falling into decay; the paint to be in serious need of renewal; the windows to be dull with the accumulation of the dust of years; the sills to bear the suspicion of cobwebs; the angles of the steps and the untrodden flags of the courtyard to be here and there overgrown with moss and weeds; and round the walls and up the reveals of doors and windows were creeping the tangled branches of the wildest ivy that ever grew untouched by shears."

With this exterior the poet's bedroom within harmonized as if in one of Poe's stories:

"The room was dark with heavy hangings around the walls as well as the bed, and thick velvet curtains before the windows, so that the candles in our hands seemed unable to light it, and our voices sounded thick and muffled. . . . In the middle, before a little couch, stood a small table, on which was a wire lantern containing a candle, which Rossetti lit from the open one in his hand—another candle meantime lying by its side. I remarked that he probably burned a light all night. He said that was so. 'My curse,' he added, 'is insomnia. Two or three hours hence (it was already 4 A. M.) I shall get up and lie on the couch, and, to pass away a weary hour, read this book.' . . . It did not escape me that on the table stood two bottles, sealed and labelled, together with a little measuring-glass. Without looking further at it, but with a terrible suspicion growing over me, I asked if that were his medicine. 'They say there is a skeleton in every cupboard,' he said in a low voice, 'and that's mine; it is chloral.'"

Mr. Caine's own apartment was even more heavy with gloom, and strewed with Oriental oddities, "left there, apparently, to scare the chambermaid," and threatening "to murder the innocent sleep." It is no wonder that when he left the door he felt that "outside the air breathed freely." From that time he was but little at the house until he came to make it his abode, when Rossetti, wholly subdued and physically broken by the chloral, was nearing his death.

The friendship was continued by letters, of which the topics are literary. They do not display any critical faculty on Rossetti's part, and Mr. Caine frankly acknowledges their weakness. They are about sonnets, ballads, prose-style, and the more or less obscure poets whom the coterie has made familiar by name, such as Wells, Jones, and Brown, and also the great poets, Keats, Milton, Wordsworth, and Coleridge. In the estimate placed on these men there is nothing for which the reader is not prepared by the published works of Rossetti's group; but as instances of their essential prejudice or at least exaggeration, here is a passage on Chatterton: "He is as great as any English poet whatever, and might absolutely, had he lived, have proved the only man in England's theatre of imagination who could have bandied parts with Shakspeare"; on Wordsworth, "Vital lyrical impulse was never fully developed in his muse." There are other judgments as one-sided, and none, we think, that are not wholly subjective. The value of the letters, considered from the literary point of view, lies simply in their expression of the poet's taste; as an expression of his nature, they had better have been left unpublished. It is enough to say that while the sight of a disciple burning incense and an idol dispensing grace is at least harmless, the anxiety of Rossetti for praise, his keen sensitiveness to the most indirect and contingent blame, are oppressive, and would lower one's estimate of his character were it not for the certainty that, in this intense form, they were due to his physical condition. In other respects, too, Mr. Caine has hardly been the judicious

friend. Devoted and tender as he shows himself to the poet, his worst fault can be called only an excessive frankness; but what need was there of his saying, "He was a man of so much impulse—impulse often as violent as lawless—that to oppose him merely provoked anger to no good purpose"; or, "Irresolution was indubitably his most noticeable quality at the time; . . . irresolution and melancholy lay at the basis of his nature"? This was the fact undoubtedly during these last exhausted years, but the account given by his lifelong friends is very different, and to perpetuate the memory of a man in his worst days is practical injustice.

There is a goodly amount of minute and curious information interspersed with these larger matters: the dates of the poems, the best of them being written before the poet was twenty-five; the details of the burial of his MS. book of sonnets ('The House of Life') in the coffin of his dead wife; the fact that "The Blessed Damozel" was suggested by Poe's "Raven," the one being the grief of the heavenly spirit, as the other was of the earthly lover; Rossetti's habit of composition —"I lie on the couch, the racked and tortured medium, never permitted an instant's surcease of agony until the thing on hand is finished"—and other like details. Among them is a story, interesting to Americans, with which we conclude this notice of an interesting, if somewhat morbid and indiscreet, book:

"Longfellow had called upon him while he was painting the 'Dante's Dream.' The old poet was courteous and complimentary to the last degree; he seemed, however, to know little or nothing about painting as an art, and also to have fallen into the error of thinking that Rossetti, the painter, and Rossetti, the poet, were different men—in short, that the Dante of that name was the painter, and the William the poet. Upon leaving the house Longfellow had said: 'I have been glad to meet you, and should like to have met your brother; pray tell him how much I admire his beautiful poem, "The Blessed Damozel."' Rossetti answered, 'I will tell him.'"

Edward III. By Rev. W. Warburton, M. A. [Epochs of Modern History.] With three maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. 293.

Mr. Warburton's 'Edward III.' covers one of the most important and most familiar periods of the Middle Ages. It has the merits of all the series to which it belongs, and is among the best as regards vividness of narration, while in certain points of detail there is some inaccuracy. It is hardly correct (p. 46) to speak of the Court of Champagne as one of the great feudatories who rendered to the King hardly more than a nominal allegiance; for Champagne was at this time, to all intents and purposes, under the direct authority of the King, although it was not formally annexed to the crown until 1361. Nor is it correct to say (p. 158) that Edward III. claimed the crown of France "as eldest grandson of Philip IV.," but rather (as is stated on p. 36) as "nearest male in blood to the deceased sovereign," Charles IV. From this it follows that his title, whatever its value, was not affected by the birth, in 1332, of Charles the Bad; for Edward was nephew of Charles IV., while Charles the Bad was only his great-nephew. Edward certainly had a better title than Charles the Bad, while the validity of his claim against Philip of Valois depended upon the Salic law alone. Now, here again Mr. Warburton is mistaken in the statement (p. 35) that in France "the succession had been from time immemorial regulated by the Salic law." There had been no opportunity for the application of that law for four hundred and fifty years, for which time—from Robert the Strong to Louis X. —the Capetian line had never suffered a break in the descent from father to son. This law was in point of fact first established by Philip V., in his own behalf, on the death of the infant John I.

The maps are good, as in all the books of this series, but in the map of Europe at the beginning of the book Sicily is so colored as to give the impression that it was united with Naples: at this period it was an independent kingdom.

Simplified Grammar of the Hungarian Language. By Ignatius Singer. London. 1882.

This little book forms a part of 'Trübner's Collection of Simplified Grammars of the Principal Asiatic and European Languages,' edited by the late lamented Prof. E. H. Palmer. It is the third Hungarian grammar published in English, the first two being Wékey's (London, 1852) and Csink's (London, 1853). The simplification is less noticeable in brevity and conciseness of style, and in the omission of rules needful only to writers in the language, than in the absence of translating exercises and the paucity of examples. It is not an easy task to study a new tongue, and especially one so totally different in its structure from all our Occidental idioms, with the aid of a condensed manual like this, but it offers an easy perspective to the curious dilletante in comparative linguistics. Mr. Singer has done his work with diligence and care, including the proof-reading, which in Magyar books, on account of the frequent and multifarious accents, is not an easy task. Slips occur, however, here and there. Thus we notice "leeset" for "*leesett*," and "háztol" for "*háztól*" (page 23); "húszadik" and "huszad" (p. 28); "húszanegy" and "huszonegyszer" (p. 29); "réám," "réád," etc., for "*reám*," etc. (p. 38); and "mennyí, amennyí" for "*mennyi, amennyi*" (p. 44). The passive "változtatott" (p. 23) is, unfortunately for the honor of the rich Hungarian verb, still short of two t's; it ought to be *változtattatott*. In the main verbal paradigm, "varni, to sow," both the Magyar and English are *wrong throughout*, "var" standing for *varr*, and "sow," "sowed," "sown," for *sew* and *sewed*.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Art, L'. Vol. xxxi. J. W. Bouton.

Bancroft, G. History of the United States. The author's last revision. Vol. I. D. Appleton & Co. $2 50.

Bible Myths, and their Parallels in Other Religions. Numerous illustrations. J. W. Bouton.

Brace, C. L. Gesta Christi; or, A History of Humane Progress under Christianity. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2 50.

Cohn, M. M. An Essay on the Growth of Law. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.

Curtis, M. M. The Cause of Variation. Marshall, Minn.: M. M. Curtis.

Folger, Peter. Looking-Glass for the Times. [R. I. Historical Tracts, No. 16.] Providence: S. S. Rider.

Foster, R. The Taxation of the Elevated Railroads. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.

Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions. Vol. xl. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.

Friend, Rev. H. Glossary of Devonshire Plant Names. London: Trübner & Co.

Gerhard, W. P. House-Drainage and Sanitary Plumbing. D. Van Nostrand.

Goldammer, H. The Kindergarten. Berlin: Carl Habel; New York: E. Steiger & Co.

Granite Monthly. Vol. v. Concord: John N. McClintock.

Graves, Rev. R. P. Life of Sir Wm. Rowan Hamilton. Vol. I. London: Longmans.

Haeckel, E. Indische Reisebriefe. Berlin: Gebr. Paetel; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

Hall, T. B. Three Articles on Modern Spiritualism. Second series. Boston: A. Williams & Co.

Harris, J. Gardening for Young and Old. Orange Judd Co. $1 25.

Hawthorne, N. Dr. Grimshawe's Secret. Edited, with Preface and Notes, by Julian Hawthorne. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.

Hazen, H. A. History of Billerica, Mass. Boston: A. Williams & Co.

Lanessan, J. L. de. La Botanique. Paris: C. Reinwald; New York: F. W. Christern.

Lindsley, D. P. The Handbook of Takigrafy. Designed for the use of Verbatim Reporters. D. P. Lindsley.

Lippincott's Magazine. New series, vol. iv., July-December, 1882. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Littell's Living Age. October-December, 1882. Boston: Littell & Co.

Lyons, J. A. Scholastic Annual for 1883. Notre Dame, Ind.: University of Notre Dame.

Neely, T. B. The Church Lyceum: its Organization and Management. Phillips & Hunt.

Pabor, W. E. Colorado as an Agricultural State. Orange Judd Co. $1 50.

Rededication of the Old State-House. Boston.

Riddell, R. The Slide Rule Simplified, Explained, and Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $3.

Rishell, D. Elfrida: a Drama. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.

Seth-Haldane. Essays in Philosophical Criticism. London: Longmans, Green & Co.

Spender, Mrs. John Kent. Gabrielle de Bourdaine. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Vannah, Kate. Verses. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1.

Veitch, J. Hamilton. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.

Vincent, J. H. The Sunday-School Normal Class. Phillips & Hunt.

Vincent, J. H. The Revival, and After the Revival. Phillips & Hunt.

Wharton, E. R. Etyma Græca: an Etymological Lexicon of Classical Greek. T. Whittaker.

Williams, G. F. Bullet and Shell: War as the Soldier Saw It. Illustrated. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $2 75.

Wolffberg, Dr. S. Dr. B. C. Faust's Laws of Health for the Use of Schools and Self-Instruction. Brooklyn: H. Kopp & Co.

WALKER'S

Political Economy.

By Francis A. Walker, President of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, late Superintendent of the Census. (Volume V. of The American Science Series.) 8vo, $2 25.

President Walker's economical works on 'The Wages Question' and on 'Money,' not to speak of his great statistical Atlas of the United States, have given him a prominent position on both sides of the Atlantic. In contributing the present work to the "American Science Series," he brings to bear not only the powers shown in his former writings, but the experience of many years as teacher of political economy in the chair he occupied at Yale before accepting the presidency of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 25, 1883.

The Week.

BILLS adapting the Civil-Service Reform Act, recently passed by Congress and approved by the President, to the requirements of the State Government, have been introduced in both houses of the Pennsylvania Legislature. Mr. J. Wilton Brooks offered a resolution looking to the same end in the Assembly of this State. A bill providing for the appointment of a commission to examine into the condition of the State service and report to what classes of officers and employees civil-service rules would be applicable, was introduced in the same body by Mr. Miller some time ago. Another carefully-prepared bill, providing for the introduction of such rules in the State offices, and also opening the way to their introduction in the municipal governments of our largest cities, is likely to be offered at an early day. We are informed that a good many of the Democratic members of our Legislature are rather demonstratively displaying their opposition to such a movement, seeking to create the impression that no measure of the kind can pass. The friends of civil-service reform at Albany should not permit themselves to be discouraged by such demonstrations. If the Democrats want to take the responsibility of defeating a movement for civil-service reform in this State, let them by all means have an opportunity to do so by their votes. Some of them will think differently when the time comes, as a good many did in Congress as soon as the question bluntly confronted them.

From Pennsylvania comes a very interesting story, which will delight Mr. Jay Hubbell's heart. Last summer, when the struggle between the Republican Independents and the Cameron Machine was impending, the postmaster at Steelton, near Harrisburg, Pa., an Independent, was removed to make room for a Stalwart, Mr. Augustus Nebinger. This gentleman was committed to the Dauphin County Jail last Saturday on the charge of having begun embezzling money belonging to the money-order department, soon after his accession to office. The amount is stated at $1,200. Mr. Nebinger now says that he appropriated a great part of this sum for his country's good. Believing in the doctrine that a public officer is appointed not only to do his duty to the community, but also to his party, and that the party has a right to levy upon the compensation paid by the Government to its servants for the benefit of the campaign-chest, Mr. Nebinger thought he might just as well defray his party assessment, as well as some other campaign expenses—for instance, the cost of a supper and drinks for political friends—directly out of the public fund. He evidently did his duty to the party according to the moral notions which the assessment system had developed in his mind. Now that he is in jail for it, Mr. Hubbell and Senator Cameron should make an effort to help him out and to protect him against the unfortunate consequences of his excessive zeal. It is a fair question whether Mr. Nebinger was able to satisfy the demands of the party out of his own means, and whether, as the party managers would not take no for an answer, he could satisfy them in any other way than by stealing.

There has been, during the week, a general advance in prices of breadstuffs in all markets, domestic and foreign, in consequence of the general realization that the crops of 1882 had been everywhere overestimated, and that the world's surplus of wheat and other grains was not more than sufficient to keep up stocks in store until new crops should be distributed next summer. The very unfavorable condition and small area of wheat planted throughout Europe last autumn also indicate short crops there next summer. Exports of all articles of domestic production are larger than at this time last year, and on the exchange of commodities alone the balance of foreign trade would be in our favor, and therefore in favor of a movement of specie this way from Europe. The growing ease of money here, however, has induced the payment of a good many sterling loans. Moreover, for some weeks past the United States Mortgage Company has been returning a large part of its capital to England to take up the six per cent. mortgage bonds which were the means by which its capital was raised there for loan in this country. The company finds that it cannot loan the capital in this country on real-estate mortgages, even at the West, for more than 6 per cent., and hence must have the capital at lower rates of interest. There has also been some selling of American stocks by foreign holders during the past week. All these features have helped to make a demand for foreign exchange which has kept up the rates.

The course of the stock market has been disappointing to almost every one interested. During the first half of last week, and until Friday, it gradually advanced, and there was an increase of business, which for a time assumed the appearance of the usual general advance resulting from the increase of money at this season of the year. But on Friday the market was less confident, and from that time until Tuesday there was a break in first one stock and then another, until on Tuesday afternoon there was a general decline, measured by the fall in Denver from 51¼ to 46⅞. The cause of this reaction and decline seems to be a feeling that there must be a further liquidation in the stock market before the basis is reached for a healthy upward reaction. The earnings of the railroads were never larger than they were in December, and (aside from the obstruction to business by heavy snows at the West) the prospect for a continuance of a larger business than ever before was never so good. The general commercial situation also has been improved very much in the last three weeks. There is now a prevailing confidence that the worst has been realized, and that any change that may come will be for the better.

The reëlection of Mr. Hoar to the Senate will, after a survey of the availabilities in the field against him, be generally accepted as the most satisfactory thing that could have happened. Undoubtedly Mr. Hoar has, by his course on several important questions, incurred the disfavor of many of his constituents, while he was at the same time fiercely assailed by the Stalwart element in Massachusetts. It is not improbable that the opposition he met with among the more liberal and progressive elements of his party, as well as the discussion which the contest called forth in the press, must have convinced him that his vote for the River and Harbor Bill, his narrow-minded attitude on the tariff question, and the demonstrations of an acrid partisan spirit, of which he sometimes was guilty, came very near proving fatal to his political career, and that some reflection on these things on his part, now that he is reëlected, would be wholesome with a view to the future. The rumor about the forging of a telegraphic message, as an agency in carrying the decisive number of votes to his side, was promptly disproved. Such rumors could not have touched his character anyhow.

Governor Butler has passed most of his political life in making "charges," and has, as a general rule, got them widely circulated. Probably no Governor's message was ever more widely circulated and read than the one he delivered to the Massachusetts Legislature the other day. No paper in the State failed to produce it in full, and it contained little besides charges. The nearly successful effort of his friends in the Legislature, therefore, to get 10,000 copies of it, instead of 2,000, the usual number, printed at the expense of the State, seems unworthy of the man and the occasion. It would not bring the message to the notice of a single human being, probably, who had not already read it, and would give the printer some of the taxpayers' money, for which better uses might be found. It looked, in fact, extremely like a job, and nothing is more melancholy than to see a reform administration begin with a job. It is also depressing to find a Governor who began his official life by going round to see if the public offices were open punctually in the morning, leaving the State himself to attend to his private business in Washington. But Governor Butler's great function in politics has, after all, been to make fun for "the boys," and this he performs, even when he is most disappointing as a reformer.

The decision of the Supreme Court of this district, in the railroad mandamus proceedings begun by the Attorney-General last summer, is carefully limited by Judge Davis to the precise facts presented. The case, as stated by him, is this: A class of "skilled workmen" (*i. e.*, freight-handlers), in the employ of the Central and Erie Roads, "refused to work un-

less their wages were increased three cents an hour"; the companies "refused to grant the increase of wages demanded"; the workmen then struck; and "the companies thereafter did not or could not perform their duties to the public." These facts, he says, are all that are presented by "the papers," and they reduce the question before the Court to this: "Can railway companies refuse or neglect to perform their public duties upon a controversy with their employees over the cost of doing them?"—and the answer given by the Court is: "The excuse has in law no validity. The duties imposed must be performed at whatever cost. The companies cannot abandon their public duties without the express consent of the State." Consequently, the decision of Judge Haight below, that no relief could be had, was overruled.

At the same time, however, it is suggested that cases may arise to which this rule would not apply: "If it had been shown that the strikes had been caused or compelled by some illegal combination, which had sought to force its will upon the companies, and that the companies had refused to obey unjust and illegal dictation, and had made the best efforts to employ other workmen, a very different case for the exercise of the discretion of the Court would have been presented." A reference is made in another portion of the opinion to the entire absence of any evidence of "violence, or riot, or interference with the other employees of the companies." From all this we may infer that in cases like that of the interference with the traffic on the Pennsylvania Railroad during the Pittsburgh riots of 1877, or, in general, where transportation of freight becomes an impossibility, the remedy by mandamus will not be enforced. The sum and substance of the decision is that a railroad company, by accepting its charter, undertakes a public duty, with all the ordinary risks attendant upon it, including that of strikes, and that the public at large has an interest in the performance of this duty which may be enforced summarily by the courts. The general current of judicial decision, indeed, in this country and in England left no escape from this conclusion. It will be seen from the opinion that the right to mandamus will always depend, to a great extent, upon the circumstances of each case as it arises. The freight-handlers' strike is long since over, and the chief importance of the decision lies in the establishment of a rule for the future. The rule, as we understand it, is that railroad companies in this State may be compelled to perform their ordinary duty as common carriers, notwithstanding a strike, when they do not show that it is an impossibility, or cannot show that they have made their best efforts, to employ other workmen.

We print elsewhere a letter, on the homicide question at the South, which has been addressed to and published in the Richmond *State* by one of the gentlemen, Professor Hoge, of the Hampden-Sidney College, whose anonymous contributions to our own columns brought on them the unmeasured denunciation of that journal. Professor Hoge had simply acknowledged the truth of our charges and deplored it, and for this was threatened with some kind of social ostracism, as a "slanderer of his people." His admirable letter to the *State*, which it very honorably prints, is a review of the controversy, in which all its main points are presented with great clearness and force. We are glad to see it appear in a Southern paper, because it may prove the beginning of a Southern agitation on the subject. Professor Hoge suggests that if the Southern press would take it up, probably the *Nation* would be willing to leave it in its hands. We can assure him that nothing would please us better than to hand the matter over completely to Southern writers and orators determined to assert within the South the right to "utter and to argue freely" on all social questions, and determined through utterance and argument to rid Southern society of the great stain of unpunished homicide.

The *Standard of the Cross*, published at Cleveland, O., and the *Southern Churchman*, of Richmond, Va., both organs of the Episcopal Church, have been discussing Southern homicide. Nothing can be better than the temper in which the *Churchman* deals with the subject, and in which it speaks of our own share in the discussion. But it seeks to meet the strictures of the *Standard of the Cross* by statistics of crime taken from the *Telegram* of this city, which go to show that the North surpasses the South both in the number of murders and in the number of unpunished murders in proportion to population. As several Southern papers have produced these same figures, taken either from the *Telegram* or the New York *Tribune*, in answer to our charges, we must here observe, once for all, that we have instituted inquiries into their source, and that we believe it to be simply chance clipping from newspapers, made, we do not know when or by whom, and that they have absolutely no weight or authority, and that it is absurd to cite them or talk of them as statistics. Mr. Redfield's book was, on the contrary, made up with care, and in large part from official records, and its authority has never, to our knowledge, been successfully impugned.

A correspondent and subscriber writes to us from Virginia that the ball in Bedford County, in that State, described in our last issue, at which one Clayton had his throat cut on the spot for speaking tartly to one of the "débutantes," Miss Idelle Read, was "a mere gathering of the lowest order of negroes." We need hardly say we are delighted to hear this, because it takes the case out of the category of social homicides. But we must call attention to the highly praiseworthy conduct of the assassin, Mr. Armistead Barksdale, in shooting himself the next day. That this poor negro should have perceived so clearly and so promptly that this world was no place for a brutal murderer, and have taken himself out of it without any expense to the county, must bring a blush to the cheek of many a white man whose hands are stained with unpunished bloodshedding.

The Richmond (Va.) *State* has the following fierce little retort:

"The New York *Nation* said lately, in defence of its bitter, South-hating articles, that it once took the part of the South when it cost something to do so. We suppose that it now attacks the South because it pays to do so. The *Nation* is evidently seeking to retrieve its losses."

If we were near the editor, who is evidently very angry, he would probably riddle us with buckshot, or "cut" us with a butcher-knife; but this being impossible, he says the most bitter things that occur to him. The notion that if you remonstrate with people for trying to kill each other, it must be because you expect to make money by it, is characteristic in its truly savage simplicity. It is an explanation that would suggest itself to nobody but a barbarian, and a gloomy barbarian at that. A cheerful, humorous barbarian would never think of such a thing.

Lord Granville's circular to the Powers, giving an account of what England has done, and proposes to do, in Egypt, contains the proposal that the Suez Canal shall be placed under the protection of international law as an arm of the sea, open to all vessels, and no fighting to be allowed within it, or, we presume, within a marine league of either end. Of course, however, this plan assumes that the banks are to be properly policed in the interest of neutrals, for the owners of Egypt might otherwise block it. The *Spectator*, commenting on it, says with much simplicity: "If we are at war, we have an unbroken, open waterway from Southampton to Bombay, and can fight in any part of it except the Canal." It must be satisfactory to the British voter to know that his fighting privileges are not to be curtailed, and that he will, no matter what disposition is made of the Canal, still be able to fight all the way from Southampton to Suez on this side, and all the way from Suez to Bombay on the other. We suspect this is really also the view which the British Foreign Office takes of Mr. Blaine's Panama Canal. It is quite willing to let him do what he pleases on the Canal, as long as it retains the privilege of fighting outside, because it is shrewd enough to know that an interoceanic canal, which you cannot leave because an enemy holds the sea outside, is for practical purposes a useless piece of property. It may afford fine opportunities for picnics and excursions in steam launches, but for commerce it would be worth very little. A funnier operation than fortifying its banks—which, we believe, is one of the things Mr. Blaine wants to do—could under such circumstances hardly be conceived, because you would also have the forts entirely to yourself, and their value would be wholly ornamental. Any canal can be blocked to a hostile vessel by the cheap expedient of sinking in it a barge full of stones.

The superiority of the Repression Act, as a means of stopping assassination and outrage in Ireland, over Mr. Forster's Coercion Act is daily becoming more manifest. The change of venue in criminal cases from the county towns to Dublin, and the trial before a city jury, has secured conviction in several of the worst cases, and these convictions have so demoralized the criminal class, which really seems to be a small one after all, that inform-

ers are now offering themselves in abundance. An association of assassins somewhat like the Pennsylvania Molly Maguires seems to have existed in Dublin for some time, and there is little doubt that such murders as that of Lord Mountmorres and that of the Joyce family were executed under the direction of emissaries sent out by it, while the Phœnix Park murders, and the attack on Field, the juror, were executed by the head men themselves in Dublin. Of course, the difficulty such men have in keeping faith with each other is enormous. Convictions of murderers shake the nerves of murderers still undetected who have had accomplices, and large rewards, such as have been offered in the Field and Cavendish cases, greatly increase the temptation to each man to get rid of his anxiety and get the money, by making a clean breast of it, especially as he does not know the day he will be anticipated by one of his confederates. The strain on the nerves of these Dublin wretches for some months back must have been terrible, and it is no wonder that some of them have now found it unbearable. Unhappily those who made the attack on the juror Field cannot be hanged, as he has survived his injuries, but the assassins of Lord Frederick Cavendish are apparently in sight, and not very far off.

At the same time, it must be said that, if we are to judge from a recent speech of Lord Hartington's, his wing of the Liberals is likely, when Mr. Gladstone is out of the way, to mix up the question of Irish Home Rule and Irish crime and outrage in the old hodge-podge of which the results have been so bitter for both England and Ireland. The plan on which the government of Ireland has been conducted for two centuries is to treat the lawlessness produced by grievances as a reason why grievances should not be redressed, although assassination, brigandage, and sympathy with criminals have been always the world over, and not in Ireland only, the consequences and accompaniments of misgovernment. Lord Hartington now says that Home Rule is not to be thought of. If this view should be put forward prominently by the Liberal party, the result will probably be that Home Rule will be thought of more than ever in Ireland, the only place in which thinking of it does any harm, and will drive all moderate Irish members out of public life, and return so large a body of Home-Rulers to the next Parliament that they will hold the balance of power, and make legislation impossible without a coalition of the two English parties. If there be any plain inference deducible from Irish political history, it is that Irish discontent has a tenacity fully as great as that of English power, and that, no matter how much cool persistence Englishmen may have, they will find their match among Irish traitors. The contest has lasted now so long, with nothing but sorrow and damage on both sides, that there is something pitiful in hearing Englishmen like Lord Derby and Lord Hartington gravely advising that it be kept up.

The Fenians in this city and elsewhere are now trying to repudiate connection with the Dublin assassins, and probably can truly say that the Fenian organization does not preach or countenance assassination. But it does preach and exist for the promotion of outrages which are always close on assassination, such as explosions, burnings, and so forth, and which the bulk of its ignorant members do not distinguish from assassination, and which can rarely be carried out without the destruction of life, and which its rascally chiefs, though they call these "war," can hardly be dunderheaded enough to consider "war" themselves. Moreover, although they have had numerous opportunities of denouncing the Irish murderers, and separating themselves from them, the Fenians have never done so. They have, on the contrary, made common cause with them in the eyes of the civilized world, and disgraced the Irish name by denouncing and vituperating the magistrates, police, judges, jury, and everybody concerned in bringing these wretches to justice. In fact, they seem to be engaged in making the sympathy of the civilized world with the Irish cause dependent on their winning it over to the belief that assassination is a good and praiseworthy thing. Finally, although it is true that all Fenians are not Irish assassins, it is very certain that there is no Irish assassin who is not a Fenian.

Lord Dufferin has made another step in advance with the Egyptian question by drawing up a scheme of government which is to contain some of the features of the parliamentary system. The Khedive is to have a council of twelve "responsible ministers," and then there is to be a Legislative Council of fourteen, half nominated by the Khedive and half chosen by some system of double election which is not described in the despatches, beyond saying that "abundant precedents for it exist in the American Constitution and others." Besides these, there is to be an elective Assembly of forty-four members, to be occasionally convened to discuss certain subjects. This last one is not to take part in legislation, but simply "to give voice to classes hitherto inarticulate." In case the Ministerial Council and the Legislative Council do not agree, the Khedive is to decide. There is evidently some mystification, however, about the term "responsible ministry." All ministers, under every form of government, are responsible to somebody. In fact, the term "minister" implies responsibility. Under the worst despotisms the ministers are responsible, but as they are only responsible to the despot, it does the people no good. Ministerial responsibility is considered valuable in a modern state only if it is responsibility to a representative legislature. It does not appear that the proposed Egyptian responsibility is to be of this kind. If the Ministers differ with the Legislative Council, they are not to go out of office. The Khedive is to decide between them, which means, of course, that they are to be responsible to the Khedive, inasmuch as if he decides in their favor they are to have their way. But the old Egyptian Ministers were responsible to the Khedive, so that under this head the country will gain nothing by the new constitution.

It is difficult to say what the Legislative Council will amount to in practice, but it cannot amount to very much, inasmuch as the Khedive is to nominate half of its members, and they will be naturally made of just the same materials as the Ministry. Against both the Ministry and these seven, the remaining seven, who are to be chosen by double election, are not likely to have much weight, even if they ever attempt any opposition or criticism at all. About the body which is to "give voice to classes hitherto inarticulate," perhaps the less said the better. The inarticulate classes in Egypt are subject to the bastinado for every variety of offence—for not paying their taxes, for not paying their debts, for being saucy to public functionaries, for being late at forced labor; and they take it without any consciousness of disgrace or oppression. It will evidently need a good deal of moral and mental elevation to give inarticulate persons of this kind much desire to make themselves heard in the way of complaint. One might feel hopeful about this scheme, complicated as it is, by considering it as the beginning of genuine parliamentary institutions, if the Khedive were the kind of man who could be expected to nurse it into vigor and maturity. But all that is known of him warrants the belief that he has little if any force of character, and that he is likely to be hereafter what he has been heretofore—the weak and vacillating tool of those who surround him, with but little interest in institutions of any kind, so that the new constitution, if adopted, will probably have just as much vigor as English influence and support give it. If England chooses to stand by and see that the Legislative Council has legitimate influence, and that the members of the Assembly of Forty-four are not flogged when they get home for giving tongue too freely, it may grow into something like self-government.

The French Ministry has resolved to expel Prince Napoleon, but not to take up any position with regard to the members of other dynastic families, and to remain neutral as to the Floquet bill. This bill will probably not pass, as its operation would undoubtedly be both cruel and unjust to the Orleans princes, who are living in a very quiet and inoffensive way, and some of whom are serving in the Army. The propriety of expelling even Prince Napoleon is very doubtful. There is no place in which he will be so harmless as in France. The situation is being made a little more theatrical by the reported discovery of a great Legitimist and Catholic conspiracy for the beginning of a civil war in the west of France, under the command of Charette, a fanatical Monarchist politician. The Legitimists have been growing increasingly bold of late, under the good-natured indifference with which the Government regarded them, and they have at some of their banquets talked very plainly of the necessity of taking up arms to suppress the Republican iniquity. It is not unlikely that these threats and disturbances will now multiply. The Republic has just reached the period in its life when all French Governments find the ground under their feet become unsteady. The task before it is to outlive the twentieth year, which, since 1793, no régime has ever surpassed.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 17, 1883, to TUESDAY, January 23, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON Monday the United States Supreme Court rendered a decision that Section 5519 of the Revised Statutes, relating to conspiracy to deprive any person of equal protection of the laws, is unconstitutional. The ground of the decision is that the law infringes upon the reserved rights of the States; that there is nothing in the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments to the Constitution that confers authority upon Congress to enact such a law; that if Congress had jurisdiction sufficient to punish private persons for the commission of one class of crimes in a State, by virtue of the same authority it would have the power to legislate as to all crimes in a State. The decision is believed to affect a vital part of the Civil Rights Law.

Senatorial election contests have proceeded during the week in a number of States with peculiar and persistent stubbornness. In Massachusetts two ballots were taken on Wednesday with no result, Senator Hoar gaining two votes on the second, and being within eight votes of an election. On the first ballot, Thursday morning, Senator Hoar was re-elected, receiving 148 votes, nine more than a majority. All but two of the Crapo men voted for him. This gave rise to a rumor that the change had been effected through a forged despatch, purporting to be from Mr. Crapo, requesting his supporters to vote for Mr. Hoar. A thorough sifting of the report shows that no underhand methods were used to secure the Crapo votes. Governor Cullom, of Illinois, was elected Senator by the Republicans on Wednesday, and Senator Plumb, of Kansas, was renominated unanimously by the Republicans of the Kansas Legislature. Deadlocks on the election of Senators still continue in the Legislatures of Minnesota, Michigan, Nebraska, and Colorado. On Tuesday Senator McPherson (Dem.) was reëlected by both houses of the N. J. Legislature, John E. Kenna (Dem.) was elected by the West Virginia Legislature, and Senator Coke (Dem.) reëlected in Texas. Joint sessions have yet to ratify the first two.

In the Senate, on Wednesday, a bill was introduced by Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, providing for the appointment of a commission to investigate the subject of railroad transportation. The Post-office Appropriation Bill was further considered, an animated debate resulting on the paragraph appropriating $185,000 for special mail facilities on trunk lines. It was passed on Thursday. After a long debate on a motion, during the consideration of the Tariff Bill, reducing the duty from 60 to 50 per cent. *ad valorem* on china, porcelain, parian, and bisque ware, it was defeated by a close vote. The Senate continued to debate the Tariff and Post-office Appropriation Bills on Friday. The latter was passed on Saturday. It contains a provision for two-cent letter postage after July 1, 1883. On Monday there was an effort to hasten the Tariff Bill by a resolution for night sessions, but no agreement was reached. There was a sensation during the debate caused by the production of letters written by Mr. Kenner, of the Tariff Commission, showing the strong bias for protection to certain interests with which he did his work in the Commission. On Monday, during the Tariff debate, an amendment was carried to put all lumber and timber, except what is in a finished state, upon the free list. Tuesday was spent in debate on the metal schedule.

In the House of Representatives on Friday a bill was reported which proposes an important change in the methods of paying for expedition on Star-routes, and amends the existing law, under which Star-route frauds became possible. On Saturday the House considered the Naval Appropriation Bill in Committee of the Whole, and continued the debate on Monday.

A caucus of the Republican Representatives in Congress was held on Friday afternoon at which, on motion of Speaker Keifer, it was resolved that the Republicans would proceed to consider the Tariff Bill in the House on Tuesday, immediately after the Naval Appropriation Bill had been disposed of, and that it should have preference over all other legislation, excepting appropriation bills. Mr. Haskell, of Kansas, made a statement in regard to the Ways and Means Committee's bill. He estimated the total reductions on the basis of last year's importations as follows: Sugar, $12,000,000 to $15,000,000; wool and woollen goods, $3,000,000; silk, $3,000,000; metals, $2,000,000, nearly.

The House Committee on Public Buildings has recommended the purchase of the house in Washington in which President Lincoln died, for a sum not exceeding $12,000.

On Wednesday the National Republican Committee met in Washington, delegates being present from most of the States and Territories. Mr. Dorsey's resignation as Secretary was accepted, and Mr. Martin, of Kansas, was elected to fill the place. Mr. Wm. E. Chandler presented the report of a special committee appointed to prepare a plan for the choice of delegates to the next National Republican Convention. He submitted a number of plans to be voted on seriatim. Senator Logan moved as a substitute for all the new propositions that the basis of representation shall remain as heretofore, and his motion was adopted by a vote of 23 to 15. This makes the Convention consist of two delegates for each Senator, two for each member of Congress, two delegates for each Territory, and two for the District of Columbia. The four delegates-at-large for each State are to be chosen by a popular delegate State Convention, and those representing the Congressional districts by either separate district conventions, or by subdivisions of the State Convention. The next meeting of the Committee will be held on December 12, when the date of the National Republican Convention will be settled.

Considerable talk has resulted in Washington from the fact that Richard J. Hinton, late proprietor of a newspaper in that city which published the Garfield-Dorsey correspondence, has been appointed a Special Agent of the Treasury Department, and has gone to the Mexican border to investigate a supposed extensive system of smuggling.

An indictment was found on Wednesday, by the Grand Jury of the District of Columbia, against Frank H. Fall, charging him with endeavoring corruptly to control the vote of Juror Brown in the first Star-route trial. Frank E. Shaw was indicted on Friday on a similar charge.

Ex-United States Senator Spencer, who is a fugitive witness of the Star-route trial, has sailed from Halifax for England.

Representative John W. Shackleford, of the Third North Carolina District, died in Washington, on Thursday, at the age of thirty-nine.

The General Term of the Supreme Court of this State has reversed Judge Haight's decision denying peremptory writs of mandamus to compel certain railroad companies to receive and transport freight with all convenient speed. This litigation grew out of the freight-handlers' strike last summer. The Supreme Court grants the motions asked for in each case. This is a point gained for the merchants who brought the suit.

A bill to prohibit the sale of State lands in the Adirondack region, in order to preserve the forests, passed the State Senate at Albany on Tuesday. On Thursday, in executive session, the Senate voted to postpone final action on the Governor's nominations for Railroad Commissioners until January 26, in order that specific charges might be presented against Mr. O'Donnell.

The prohibitory amendment to the Constitution of Iowa, adopted by the popular vote last June, was declared invalid by the State Supreme Court on Thursday, because the record of the House of the Eighteenth Assembly failed to show that it had passed, and the House measure differed from the amendment as passed by the Senate; further, because subsequent action in the Nineteenth Assembly could not correct the carelessness of the Eighteenth Assembly.

Judges Lowell and Nelson, of the United States Circuit Court, granted in Boston, on Friday, the injunction prayed for by Theodore Thomas, which restrains Joseph G. Lennon from performing Gounod's "Redemption" in that city. The order, however, allows of the performance of the trilogy with organ and pianoforte accompaniment, and it will be so given.

The past week has been marked by a series of terrible accidents, which have been unusually destructive of life. On Wednesday the steamer *Josephine* blew up in Port Susan Bay, near Seattle, W. T., killing six or more of the passengers and crew. A panic was caused in the Grand Opera-House, Milwaukee, on Thursday night, during a performance of "The Lights o' London," by the explosion of calcium-light apparatus on the stage. Five of the stage hands were hurt, two fatally. Order was soon restored in the audience. The Quincy House, one of the largest hotels in Quincy, Ill., was burned on Friday morning. Many of the guests were still asleep, though some were at breakfast. All escaped, but lost everything. A wreck occurred on the Central Pacific Railroad near Colfax, California, on Friday, and several persons were killed and injured. The latest estimate places the loss of life by the Milwaukee Hotel fire at fifty-nine. Scheller, the bar-keeper, has been arrested, charged with setting fire to the building, and the evidence against him is strong. The brig *Mariposa* was run down by a steamer off Fisher's Island on Saturday, and all but one of the crew were drowned.

The overland express train which left San Francisco by the Southern Pacific Railroad at 9:30 A. M. on Saturday, stopped near Tehichipa station to cut out an extra engine taken on to assist in pulling up the Tehichipa grade. While making the change the train started back northward down a grade of 129 feet to the mile. The train gathered headway quickly, and was soon dashing down the grade at the rate of a mile a minute. At a sharp curve the coach and smoker, which were ahead, broke the coupling and separated from the rest of the train, making the turn safely. The sleepers and the mail, express, and baggage-cars were dashed against a high bank and then thrown back, rolling down an embankment. The lamps and stoves at once set fire to the wreck, which was instantly in a blaze. A search for the dead showed that fourteen persons had perished.

On Sunday afternoon, at 4 o'clock, a number of terrific explosions occurred at the Giant Powder Works, at Point Clement, near San Francisco, destroying the mixing house and six packing houses. Eight tons of powder exploded, killing about thirty Chinese workmen. The assistant superintendent was also killed. All houses within a radius of half a mile were wrecked. The loss by the explosion is about $100,000. A fierce fire followed, which was with difficulty extinguished. The cause of the explosions is a mystery.

On Monday morning a boiler at the *Ledger* paper mills, near Elkton, Md., exploded, wrecking half of the immense building, killing two men and injuring eight others.

A great snow-storm, followed by very cold weather, prevailed in the West on Friday and Saturday. The cold wave reached the East on Sunday night.

News was received in Washington on Thursday that the Alaskan Indian Aneguin, of the *Jeannette* crew, who was saved with

Melville's party, had died of smallpox in Siberia, with Ensign Hunt's party.

Henry Kip, of Buffalo, Vice-President of the United States Express Company, died in New York on Wednesday.

It is reported that a gift of $250,000 has been made by the citizens of Cambridge, Mass., to Harvard College, to be disposed of in the erection of new dormitories, in which the rent of each room shall not exceed $50 a year.

FOREIGN.

After Prince Napoleon's arrest in Paris on January 16 he explained in an interview that he did not aim at personal power, but asserted that he believed a parliamentary régime was only practicable under a constitutional monarchy. In the Chamber of Deputies M. Floquet, Vice-President, immediately brought forward a motion prohibiting the presence in France or Algeria of any members of former French dynasties. Urgency was voted for it by a large majority. The press of Paris ridiculed this motion as extreme. On Saturday the French Ministerial Bill dealing with the pretenders was introduced in the Chamber of Deputies. It authorizes the President of the Republic, by a decree given in Council, to expel members of the former reigning families whose presence in France compromises the safety of the State, those returning to be liable to five years in prison. The princes who now serve in the army are to be placed on the retired list. This last clause caused an uproar in the Chamber. Another bill has been introduced modifying the Press Laws of 1881. It provides for the punishment of outrages against the Republic, and makes the offenders amenable to the Correctional Tribunals. A vote of urgency was also adopted for these measures.

The Paris newspapers of Friday and Saturday published details of an alleged organization of civil war in the west of France, with the help of Catholic workmen's clubs. It was said that a great Legitimist conspiracy called the "Catholic Alliance" had been discovered, forming a vast association, directed by Baron de Charette. Thirty-two legions, of 1,000 men each, had been organized from Finistère to Tours, and six hundred horses had been purchased as a nucleus for insurgent cavalry. It was said that the conspirators had $3,000,000 in London banks. Some newspapers asserted that this report was circulated in order to push M. Floquet's extreme proposal in the Chamber of Deputies.

The Paris Bourse was subjected to a slight panic on Monday, owing to the revolutionary rumors. On Tuesday, reports were abroad that the Cabinet had resigned. The result of the elections in the bureaux of the Chamber of Deputies on that day for members of the committee on the bills dealing with the pretenders to the throne was four in favor of the Government bills with certain restrictions, six in favor of M. Floquet's bill, and one in favor of M. Ballue's. A Cabinet crisis is imminent.

At the trial of the Anarchists in Lyons, France, on Friday, Prince Krapotkine, MM. Émile Gautier, Bernard, and Bordat were found guilty and sentenced each to five years' imprisonment and to pay $400 fine, to ten years' police supervision, and to five years' deprivation of civil rights. Thirty-nine others were given lighter sentences, and four were acquitted. The condemned will probably appeal.

Gustave Doré, the famous French painter and designer, died suddenly in Paris on Tuesday, at the age of fifty. It is said that his designs number 45,000.

The Hamburg-American steamship *Cimbria*, while on her way from Hamburg to Havre, was run into, Friday morning, during a dense fog, by the British steamship *Sultan*. The *Cimbria* sank in a few minutes. The disaster occurred in the German ocean, off the Island of Borkum, twenty-six miles northwest of Emden. The *Cimbria* left Hamburg on Thursday, with twenty-three cabin passengers, 362 steerage, and a crew numbering ninety-two. She ran aground before leaving the Elbe, but got off with the flood tide, with the assistance of the *Hansa*, without having received damage, and she put to sea at 2:30 o'clock in the afternoon. On Friday morning she came in collision with the steamer *Sultan*. A boat with thirty-nine passengers arrived at Cuxhaven Friday night. Seventeen other persons were saved by the steamer *Diamant*, and another vessel landed eleven. The officers did all in their power to save lives at the time of the collision, but the vessel sank too soon. It is estimated that fully 400 lives were lost. The passengers were mostly emigrants from East Prussia. The *Cimbria* was a vessel of 3,025 tons burden. She had seven water-tight compartments.

The ship *Vorwarts* was sunk on the Baltic on Monday, and eight persons were drowned.

In the German Reichstag the reception of large sums of money from America for the flood sufferers has been announced during the week, and thanks have been enthusiastically voted.

Prince Frederick Charles Alexander, brother of the Emperor of Germany, died in Berlin on Sunday, at the age of eighty-two. The Emperor and Empress partook of the sacrament with him only a half-hour before his death. His last words were, "Long live the Emperor." Prince Charles entered the German Army at an early age, and made the artillery his favorite branch of the service. For many years past he has been chief of the whole Prussian artillery force. His only son is the famous "Red Prince" of the Franco-Prussian war. In 1881 Prince Charles celebrated a jubilee on the occasion of the seventieth anniversary of his appointment as an officer of the Prussian Army.

At a sitting of the Provincial Committee in Strassburg, Germany, on Thursday, 17 Deputies out of 56 protested against the exclusion of the use of the French language in the proceedings of that body.

A Governmental scheme, formulated by the Egyptian Ministry, approved by Lord Dufferin, and transmitted to the British Foreign Office for approval, proposes that the Khedive of Egypt shall have a Council of twelve responsible Ministers, and that a Legislative Council of fourteen members shall be formed, one-half to be nominated by the Khedive and half to be chosen by a system of double election. There is also a provision for an elective Assembly of forty-four members, to be convened occasionally to discuss special subjects. Legislation is to be initiated by the Council of Ministers, but before becoming law it must be submitted to the Legislative Council. The Khedive will decide in case of differences between these two bodies.

A fight has occurred between a body of 500 Egyptian troops and the forces of the False Prophet in the Sudan. Two hundred and forty of the former were killed and the rest were taken prisoners.

The Marquis of Hartington, British Secretary of State for War, in a speech at Bacup, England, on Friday evening, referring to Irish affairs, said that the Irish problem could only be met by firm determination. He did not think the matter was hopeless. The law must be strengthened to meet the exceptional condition of the country. The Government meant to show that murder would meet its just reward. Home Rule, he said, could never be permitted in Ireland. It had been suggested that the Government should find funds to establish peasant proprietary in Ireland, but he strongly condemned the idea of paying out the hard-earned funds in the English exchequer for such a purpose, unless it could be shown that the people were capable and willing to work. Although he could not say that crime had been eradicated, there were clearly good results from the exceptional legislation in regard to Ireland

The twenty-one persons recently arrested in Dublin, charged with conspiracy to murder officials, were before the police court in that city on Saturday. Startling revelations were made by an informer named Farrell. He swore that several of the prisoners, including Mr. Carey, a member of the municipality, were present at a Fenian meeting where the informer was asked to join the inner circle formed for the assassination of officers. He acknowledged having taken part in a plot to assassinate a juror. He swore that one of the prisoners, named Hanlon, informed him that he had taken part in the attempt to murder Field; that Brady stabbed Field, and that Kelly also participated in the affair. Farrell also testified that the city had been marked into districts, and military inspections were held occasionally, at which most of the accused men were present. The organization, he said, had existed for several years. Farrell said picked men formed an assassination committee. They were ignorant of each other. Daniel Curley gave him (Farrell) a revolver, and told him to stop Mr. Forster's carriage opposite Ellis Quay, when Jim Kelly and Joe Brady would do the remainder. The plot failed through a mistake. On the day of the Phœnix Park murders, the witness met Brady in a public house in Georges Street, with McCaffrey. Brady asked the witness when he would be done with his work. He said at 7 o'clock. Brady said that that would be too late. On being cross-examined, witness said that no order for assassination was ever received from the Fenian Society. The orders used to be given from the Assassination Society. The prisoners were all remanded for one week. The appearance of three of them exactly corresponds with the description of the three murderers of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke.

Mr. Michael Davitt appeared on Thursday before the Queen's Bench Division in Dublin to defend himself against the charge of inciting to lawlessness in a recent speech at Navan. He urged that the principles which he advocated did not interfere with the administration or the observance of the law. Mr. Healy made a similar defence. The court reserved its decision.

Mr. Gladstone, with several members of his family, went to France on Wednesday for recuperation.

Mr. George Darwin, son of the late Charles Darwin, has been elected Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy in Cambridge University, England.

A great strike is in progress among the workmen of the Caledonia Railway in Scotland.

The largest gasometer in Glasgow, Scotland, exploded on Saturday night. Eight persons were injured. A shed belonging to the Caledonian Railway Company was also blown up. Fenians are supposed to have originated the explosions.

Three terrific explosions of gunpowder in the town of Muiden, Holland, on Friday, unroofed nearly all the houses there, and damaged neighboring towns and villages. About a score of lives were lost.

A great part of the city of Kherson, in South Russia, was burned on January 16.

A great landslide occurred on Thursday, in the valley of Faverges, Switzerland, destroying the village of Marais. The inhabitants were able to escape.

There have been numerous destructive earthquake shocks in Murcia, Spain, recently.

A bloody battle took place near Tehuantepec, Mexico, the latter part of last week, between the Tehuantepec Indians and the Seventh Battalion of Mexican troops. Fifty of the latter and eighty of the former were killed and many wounded. The Indians were defeated.

Cetewayo, the Zulu chief, has been enthusiastically received in South Africa on his way to Ulundi.

THE FORCE BILL IN THE SUPREME COURT.

THE section of the Revised Statutes which the Supreme Court on Monday decided to be unconstitutional (U. S. R. S. 5519) is a part of the Ku-Klux Act of 1871. It reads thus:

"If two or more persons in any State or Territory conspire, or go in disguise on the highway or on the premises of another, for the purpose of depriving, either directly or indirectly, any person or class of persons of the equal protection of the laws, or of equal privileges and immunities under the laws, or for the purpose of preventing or hindering the constituted authorities of any State or Territory from giving or securing to all persons within such State or Territory the equal protection of the laws, each of such persons shall be punished by a fine of not less than $500 nor more than $5,000, or by imprisonment, with or without hard labor, not less than six months nor more than six years, or by both such fine and imprisonment."

The act was passed by Congress for the purpose of protecting the negroes and loyal whites in the South from a secret, oath-bound society of white men, organized for the purpose of committing outrages. As a sample of the appeals for aid from the South at the time, which led to this legislation, the Governor of North Carolina, Mr. Holden, wrote to the President in 1870 as follows: "There exists in this State a secret, oath-bound, armed organization, which is hostile to the State government and to the Government of the United States. Bands of these armed men ride at night through various neighborhoods, whipping and maltreating peaceable citizens, hanging some," etc., etc. "These outrages are almost invariably committed on persons, white and colored, who are most devoted in their feelings and conduct to the Government of the United States." Next year what was supposed to be permanent legal provision was made for such cases. The act was very long and elaborate; it contained, besides the section quoted above, numerous others, designed to prevent interference with United States process, and with the exercise of the Federal franchise, and the performance of their duties by Federal officials. These provisions must not be confounded with Section 5519; many of them are probably open to no constitutional objection, certainly not to the objections which have proved fatal to this one. The military features of the act were those which attracted most attention at the time, but they are not involved in the present case.

We ventured to urge in these columns, at the time of the passage of the bill, that the general method of legislating against "conspiracies" in it was unconstitutional, and even involved an idea subversive of our very system of government. The bill provides, we said (*Nation*, April 20, 1871),

"under many artful involutions of language, that conspiracies and combinations for the purpose of depriving persons of their rights and privileges, or of the equal protection of the laws, shall be crime against the United States, punishable by its tribunals";

involving the monstrous conclusion that

"the ordinary crimes of violence committed throughout the States . . . are justiciable in the national tribunals. The extreme care with which the word conspiracy is everywhere used does not change this result. A conspiracy is in no way essentially different from an offence done by one or by many, without concert. . . . There is no legal magic in the word conspiracy, no power to confer jurisdiction, and no strength is added to the statute by its use. If valid now, it would have been equally valid had its penalties been applied in terms to acts of violence done by single persons."

With regard to the idea that such legislation could derive any validity from the Fourteenth Amendment, forbidding any State to "make or enforce any law" abridging the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States, or to "deny to any person" the "equal protection of the laws," we said that this prohibition was on its face directed against *State* action, and that if every private crime committed in a State involved a denial to the person injured of the protection of the laws, then the amendment gave the United States courts jurisdiction in the case of every murder, theft, burglary, libel, and assault and battery throughout the Union. Either this, or the act was so far mere waste paper. For this "disloyal" view of the subject, we were severely criticised at the time by those who, like the late Mr. Sumner, thought that what the country wanted was "the Centralism of Liberty" and the "Imperialism of Equal Rights;" nevertheless, the view we advanced is precisely that now laid down by the Supreme Court.

The facts in the Harris case, which brought the clause in question before the Supreme Court, were these. Some time in 1877 a Tennessee deputy sheriff, named Tucker, arrested four men (whether white or black does not appear in the record) to answer certain criminal charges not set forth. While in custody of this State officer, the four men were attacked by an armed body, of whom the defendant Harris was one, and so beaten and maltreated that one of them died. The Grand Jury indicted the assailants under Section 5519, and the defendants demurred to the indictment, or, in other words, admitted the facts charged, but denied that they could be punished, on the ground that the Constitution did not give Congress jurisdiction over the offence.

The Supreme Court does not seem to have had much difficulty in deciding that the section is utterly invalid. The authority for it must be found, the Court says—and none of its advocates ever claimed anything more than this—either in the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, or Fifteenth Amendments. Now, the Thirteenth Amendment merely abolishes slavery, and the Fifteenth forbids denial of the right to vote on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. It is impossible to see how these provisions confer upon Congress the right to punish for violence upon the highway, or a conspiracy to commit such violence. As to the provisions of the Fourteenth Amendment—"No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws"—the Court says:

"The section in controversy cannot be based on the Fourteenth Amendment, since that has reference to State action exclusively and not to any action of private individuals. The language of the amendment does not leave this subject in doubt. When the State has been guilty of no violation of its provisions, when it has not made or enforced any law abridging the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, when no one of its departments has deprived any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, or denied to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws; when, on the contrary, the laws of the State as enacted by its legislative, construed by its judicial, and administered by its executive departments, recognize and protect the rights of all persons, the amendment imposes no duty and confers no power upon Congress."

In the indictment in this case, the Court continues, there is no intimation that the State of Tennessee, by act of its legislative or judicial divisions, or through its Executive, has done anything in contravention of the Fourteenth Amendment. On the contrary, the acts on which it is based are crimes of private individuals. These are within the ordinary criminal jurisdiction of the State, which is not transferred to the United States by the Fourteenth or any other amendment.

The decision settles the point forever that the Fourteenth Amendment merely adds new limitations upon State action to those already existing in the Constitution (*e. g.*, the clause forbidding States to impair the obligation of contracts), and does not change in any way the fundamental structure of the Government.

ENFORCEMENT OF STATE DEBTS.

MR. MOORE, of Tennessee, proposes to introduce at an early day in the House a constitutional amendment, repealing the existing Eleventh Amendment, and giving the creditors of a State the right to sue it in the State courts. This has doubtless been suggested to him by the recent scandalous proceedings in his own State, and the enormous defaults made by counties, cities, and towns all over the West. In 1879 thirty counties in Missouri, besides many towns and cities, were in default. Kansas had somewhat the same story to tell. Judgments were obtained against some of them, but we suspect very little money was ever recovered from them by process of law, so difficult is it to force a whole community to be honest. In most cases the creditors compromised, or let their claims lie, to avoid fresh vexation and expense. Daniel Webster was consulted over forty years ago as to the power of American States to contract loans, and their obligation to repay them, and he gave a very emphatic opinion to the effect that they were abundantly competent to borrow, and were bound in honor to repay; but only in honor. He evidently did not think that they were exposed to any compulsory process.

The Eleventh Amendment was undoubtedly intended to protect them against this process on the part of individuals. Recently, under the influence of the scandalous conduct of some of the States, the question has been raised whether the claims of an individual against a State cannot be assigned to his own State, and whether it cannot then sue on them. The experiment is now being tried by the State of New York, which has accepted an assignment of individual claims against the State of Louisiana, and has authorized the Attorney-General to sue on them. The case is before the Supreme Court, which has heard the argument and will probably soon give judgment. Should it decide that it has jurisdiction of the controversy, and can issue execution against a State on a debt, we shall, however, have reached the most interesting stage of the proceedings, and the one which has received least consideration. How would the court execute a judgment against a State, supposing

there was no money in the Treasury which could be seized? It could not compel an unwilling Legislature to levy a tax for the purpose of satisfying a judgment. A Legislature cannot be constrained by any process. It may be dispersed or disregarded, but not coerced, as the officers of a defaulting county or city can be.

It is said that the courts could, in case of need, themselves appoint officers to levy a tax on a delinquent and recalcitrant county. But would it go so far as to undertake through its officers the taxation of an entire State, and would the Army and Navy be employed to support them in levying on a hostile population? This would, of course, be tantamount to taking military possession of the State during the period necessary to satisfy the judgment, and would be an undertaking of great difficulty and delicacy. The theory on which this power is claimed for the general Government is that on entering into the Union the States gave up the right of making war on their own account, and therefore the Union is bound to do for them by law whatever they could themselves have done by armed force, in asserting claims or redressing wrongs. On the other hand, the right or expediency of going to war to enforce payment of money lent to a state by private citizens is now repudiated by all modern states, and has not been resorted to in any recent case against an independent power. War on behalf of money-lenders is justly regarded with increasing horror.

There is another consideration in this matter, of considerable weight, which is not to be overlooked. An undertaking on the part of the National Government to satisfy judgments for debt issued from its courts against States would really be equivalent to a Federal guarantee of all State liabilities. It would, in other words, constitute itself an agent for the collection of all State debts, and an agent, too, who could not afford to fail in his self-imposed duty. The guarantee would cover the debts contracted by State Legislatures over whose doings the Federal Government has neither control nor supervision.

That this would enormously improve State credit is obvious; but is it desirable to improve State credit by any agencies except the growth of the State population in industry, order, legality, and integrity? Would it be well to announce to money-lenders all over the world that in lending money to an American State hereafter they need not consider the character of the men who rule it, or its financial history, or the habits of its people, or its natural resources; that the National Government would see them paid, no matter what the State Government was?

All these are matters to be weighed in attempting any legislation on this subject. The problem is not one by any means to be disposed of by the adoption of a constitutional amendment giving the Supreme Court jurisdiction of State debts. Such an amendment would have to be followed by legislation making full and minute provision for executing the process of the court.

Such contingencies as the refusal of State Legislatures to levy a tax in obedience to the judgment would have to be provided for in minutest detail, because in such cases the Legislature would probably be supported by the people. The general Government would then have on its hands the very serious task of levying a tax on a hostile population—a task to which hardly any government in the world has ever found itself equal, and for which the American Government is less fitted than most others. It has to be borne in mind that thus far in our history the general Government has never undertaken to coerce a State as such. It has put down rebellion among the people of a State, and has treated the State Government as abolished or destroyed by the fact of such rebellion, and it has withheld certain rights or privileges from States—such as admission to the Union, or full representation—until it complied with certain prescribed conditions. But it has never said to a State, in good and regular standing within the Union, that its Legislature must pass a certain act or appropriation, on pain of deposition or military execution. In attempting such coercion on behalf of State creditors, therefore, we should be attempting a wholly new thing, and one which would radically change the relations of the States to the Federal Government. Hitherto the Federal Government has acted on persons in its administration and legislation, and kept the States within constitutional limits by nullifying such of their laws as infringed the Constitution. If the Union took charge of their debts, it would enter on a new path, and undertake to prescribe to them not simply what they should not do, but what they should do.

THE LEGITIMIST REVIVAL.

THERE has been no odder piece of news from France since Sedan than the discovery of a plan of armed insurrection on the part of the Legitimists, by organizing "thirty-two legions of 1,000 men each," with a cavalry "nucleus" of 600 horses (the troopers, apparently, not being yet ready), and $3,000,000 in bank in London as sinews of war. It is almost more ridiculous than the Duchesse de Berri's rising in La Vendée in 1832, which ended in her concealing herself from the gendarmes in a chimney. After that period the Legitimists of the extreme divine-right school may be said to have wholly disappeared from politics until 1870. They lived in their country houses and farmed, made little pilgrimages to Germany to pay their respects to the Comte de Chambord on his birthday, and heard the Mass of the Holy Ghost in little chapels on the anniversary of Louis Sixteenth's death. Those who were rich enough passed the winter in Paris in a social coterie which neither foreigners nor Republicans ever entered, and in which even Orleanists were ill at ease, or else came up for a few weeks to little hôtels on the left bank of the Seine, in which the landlord was pious and "the King" was talked of familiarly at the table d'hôte. A few, but very few—one of the Larochejacqueleins was among them—gave in their adhesion to the Empire and took service under it, but they suffered for it socially. Many enlisted in the curious body called "the Pontifical Zouaves," and served as the Pope's contribution to the garrison of Rome during the French occupation, and were supposed, on account of their piety, to be worth three times the number of wicked Frenchmen or Italians. At one time they had the famous Lamoricière at their head, and under him actually tried to stop the entrance of the Piedmontese into the States of the Church, in 1859, by the use of carnal weapons, but were badly beaten at Castelfidardo, and had to break up and go home, the Pope being after this unable to support them.

For the next ten years the Legitimist world was a very dull world. There was nothing going on in it. After Sedan, however, there came what appeared to be the dawning of a new day. The French Army was almost annihilated, and all men in office were thoroughly discredited and disheartened. When the Assembly was elected which was to make peace, and erect a new framework of government on the bloody ruins with which France was covered, the voters, for want of anything better, dug out all the Legitimist country gentlemen they could lay hands on, most of whom had never been heard of in politics by any of the existing generation, and were probably amazed by the call on them, and sent them to the Assembly. This apparently gave the legitimate monarchy a chance of restoration which no man in France ever expected to see again. The majority, led by dukes and marquises, were satisfied that their first duty was to bring back the King. When they found M. Thiers opposed to it they got rid of him, and put Marshal MacMahon in his place. At this juncture they might possibly have brought Henry V. back and proclaimed him if he had been the right sort of man. They are said to have had the carriages prepared for the royal entry to Paris, and the acquiescence of the military chiefs was certain, and judges and functionaries would have been willing enough, when the King's obstinacy ruined the whole scheme. He resolutely refused to hoist the tricolor, and his most ardent supporters confessed sorrowfully that he could not come back to France under the white flag. So they had to postpone everything to that unknown period when, to use their own phrase, "God's hour will strike."

Since then they have been gradually expelled from both houses of the Legislature, until they have only a small minority. They have also been, to a very large extent, removed or have retired from the judicial and administrative offices which they managed to get hold of during the five or six years following the fall of the Empire. They lately tried to gratify their newly-acquired taste for movement and activity, and procure the means of power in the modern world which they so much despise, by stock speculation, and for this purpose got up the Union Générale, with the Pope's blessing as part of the capital. The disastrous result is well known. Its managers have gone to jail, or are to go if they can be caught, and many owners of the finest names in France have had to undergo the humiliation of not being able to pay their "differences," just like any unlucky American speculator, who never goes to church, and lets his daughters run about alone. Probably the horrible quiet which followed

on the "Krach" of last year has proved a hell to the quick bosoms of the party, and they have begun their little military preparations as a sort of distraction, and doubtless with that belief which ardent desire so often generates, that everything is on their side—that the Army is ready to join them, and that the people are tired of the godless Republic. They will hardly be undeceived within the present century. There is nothing more enduring in the land of dreams than the fanaticism of loyalty, especially when, as in the case of the French Legitimists, the cause of the King and that of the Church seem so closely united by all the circumstances of the age.

INTELLECT AND EDUCATION IN ENGLISH POLITICS.

LONDON, Dec. 30, 1882.

AN amusing little controversy arose here not long ago as to which it is of our two great political parties that can claim a superiority in intelligence and education. Formerly the Tories were deemed to be the stupid party—the phrase is attributed to Mr. J. S. Mill—and did not much object to the description, because rank and wealth used to have in England a way of looking down on intellect as plebeian, so that to be great without being intellectual meant that one was possessed of other and more respectable elements of power. But Lord Carnarvon, who is honorably distinguished among the nobility by having not only a really old and dignified lineage (a very rare thing in the upstart peerage of England), but by his scholarship and general mental culture, lately claimed for the Tory party that it included three-fourths of the men who are intellectually eminent, and whose opinions on politics are therefore presumably better than those of the crowd. Some Liberal who was stung by this, wrote to the newspapers, giving a list of men of letters and science whom he asserted to be Liberals; and our journals discussed the point for a while, of course with no result, for many of the persons cited as Liberals were not really so, and in a matter of this kind the mere accumulation of well-known names goes for very little: it is the amount of a man's intellect and the extent to which his attention has been given to politics that make his opinion valuable, and entitle it to outweigh that of ordinary people.

However, just when the controversy was dying away, it was revived by another event. One of the seats in Parliament for the University of Cambridge became vacant by the retirement of Mr. Walpole, and the contest which took place for the vacancy excited some attention, because a University seat is regarded as a specially honorable one, reserved for politicians of distinction. For this seat the Tories put forward Mr. Cecil Raikes, a politician of some experience, who was, under the Government of Beaconsfield, Chairman of Committees in the House of Commons, and so enjoys a good standing in that assembly as an authority on matters of procedure. He was already member for Preston, but resigned the representation of that town in order to win the more dignified place. He is only a moderately good speaker, and not a man of any particular cultivation, without any claims to eminence either in literature or science, and no special knowledge of educational questions. The Liberal candidate run against him was Mr. James Stuart, Fellow of Trinity College, and Professor of Applied Mechanics in the University—a man who had distinguished himself by his ardor and skill in teaching, and still more, perhaps, by his exertions in founding systems of local lectures by University graduates in the great towns of the middle and north of England. He had never taken any part in politics, and so far might be thought to stand at a disadvantage, but as respects what are called "academical qualifications," he was much superior to his rival, who had no more aptitude for representing a university than any other Conservative member. However, when the voting took place, Mr. Raikes was returned by an enormous majority, having received more than 3,000 votes, as against Mr. Stuart's 1,300. This result was welcomed by the Tory organs as another evidence that educated men were on their side, while the Liberals endeavored to explain it away as they best might. It surprised no one who has attended to such matters, for in both Oxford and Cambridge the large majority of graduates are clergymen of the Church of England, nearly all of whom are Conservatives, and it was ridiculous to expect that people would vote for a candidate who represented opinions they condemn merely because he was eminent as a teacher of science. The teachers resident at Cambridge, the professors of the University, and tutors of the colleges, were no doubt mostly on Mr. Stuart's side, but they are a drop in the bucket (not over three hundred) compared with the whole constituency. In Oxford the victory of a Tory candidate would have been at least as complete; in the universities of Scotland, Liberal as Scotland is, the Tories secured one of the two seats by a large majority at the last general election, and were defeated by a very small majority only in the contest for the other. In Ireland the Conservatives always hold the two University seats. There is not the slightest doubt that, if all the graduates in the United Kingdom were polled, the number of Tories would prove to be at least double that of Liberals. So far, then, education is on the Tory side. Nor would the result be different if the great professions were to be taken. The medical practitioners are more frequently Conservatives than Liberals. The bar is still more decidedly Conservative.

How is this phenomenon to be explained, and what significance or weight does it possess? How far may it fairly be allowed to tell in favor of Conservatism as a policy? Does it justify Lord Carnarvon's statement that intellect is on the Tory side?

It is due partly to the accidental association of the practice of college graduates with certain classes in the community, and in so far has little or no political consequence; partly to a certain state of mind and temper among educated people generally in England, which is really significant, and therefore worth examining. The English universities are, more conspicuously than the universities of any other country, institutions for the education of the upper classes. Of the sixteen or seventeen hundred youths who annually graduate at Oxford and Cambridge, the large majority either belong to what would be called the wealthier classes, the landed gentry, the great merchants and manufacturers, the successful professional men, or else become clergymen of the Church of England. Now, both the clergy of the Church of England and the wealthier classes—more especially, of course, the landowning gentry—belong to the Conservative party. The Nonconformists, who are nearly all Liberals, are only beginning to acquire the habit of resorting to Oxford and Cambridge, from which, till eleven years ago, they were practically excluded. Thus the graduates are naturally Conservatives, not because they are graduates, but because they belong to sections of the population which are Conservative. Their University education, it may certainly be urged, does not break through and overpower the tendency to Conservative opinions which they derive from their birth, their profession (if clergymen), and the sentiment of those they associate with. But neither can it fairly be said that it is this University education which makes them Conservatives, for the other causes are quite sufficient to account for that fact.

However, the question has really very little interest so far as it relates to University graduates, because they are not necessarily a highly-educated class. More than half, probably quite two-thirds, of our youth leave Oxford and Cambridge without having received any considerable intellectual impulse. They are in so far the better for having been there that they have lived in a society larger and more varied than they could otherwise have seen, and have formed agreeable, and even improving, friendships. But they may get their degree without having gained much knowledge or training, and may be no better fitted to form a political opinion than any sensible man who reads the newspapers. A little classics and mathematics does not go far toward political insight. It is more important to inquire why many men of real intellectual power or extended knowledge, who would probably have been Liberals forty or fifty years ago, are Conservatives now. It used to be the presumption that our eminent literary or scientific man was a Liberal; this presumption does not now exist. Perhaps it is even a little the other way, if one may reckon as Conservatives those who, while calling themselves Whigs, are really opposed to Mr. Gladstone and the policy he represents. Liberalism used to be far stronger than Toryism in our press; now it is not stronger in London, though no doubt still stronger in the provinces, where nearly all the best-written papers are Gladstonite. The great historians of the last generation, Hallam, Macaulay, Milman, Grote, were all Liberals. Now some of our best historical names, such as those of Stubbs and Gardiner and Merivale, cannot be classed on that side. It is the same with the poets, with the philosophers (so far as we have any), with the men of science. The disposition among men of superior powers used to be to advocate and welcome political changes; now it is quite as much a disposition to fear and deprecate them, preferring the arrangements under which society actually works.

The reason of this may be found in the difference between the condition of England now and its condition fifty years ago. Then a great number of abuses existed which had to be swept away, which obviously interfered with the freedom and happiness of the individual, and which could not be justified upon principle. Nothing could be said for them except that they existed and maintained the power of the then governing class. Against these abuses men of active and penetrating minds naturally rebelled. They ranged themselves on the side of reason against prejudice, of progress against stagnation. They were successful. These abuses were swept away; the most crying faults of our social and economical system were cured, the greatest gaps in our administration filled up by the creation of new departments, such as the Education Department. Considerable changes were made in the distribution of political power which satisfied that sympathy with the claims of the masses which possessed so many of our best minds. The best illustration of the then dominant tendency of intellectual opinion is furnished by the free-trade controversy. The advantages of free trade for England were argued by Richard Cobden and his coadjutors as a matter of economic science. They were opposed partly by mere ignorance and dulness, partly by appeals to the supposed material interests of the agricultural class. Hence men of intelligence, men who

could understand scientific reasonings and felt that they ought to prevail, naturally took the side of free trade, and became hostile to the Tory and protectionist party because it was the party of obscurantism. The same thing happened, though less conspicuously, in the struggle over elementary education against the pretensions of the Church of England clergy, and in the contest for opening the universities to Nonconformists. Here, also, the Tory party was the ecclesiastical party, and might be branded as the party of obscurantism and exclusion, while the Liberals fought for the extension of education, the admission of all classes and sects equally to its benefits, the dethronement of the clergy and clericalism. All these controversies are now practically over. The principles of free trade, despite the attempts lately made to set up an agitation for reciprocity—attempts which failed before they had taken any hold on the nation—are accepted by Conservative as well as by Liberal statesmen, and are no longer, so to speak, part of the peculiar stock-in-trade of the Liberal party. Clericalism has been defeated all along the line; elementary education is unsectarian, and so are the universities. Here, therefore, also the Liberals have lost their old advantage. The questions which now divide the two parties are not questions on which it can be said that lovers of light ought to array themselves on one side, and lovers of darkness on the other. A man who is eager, hopeful, filled with sympathy for the humbler classes, persuaded that their impulses will be generally toward what is good, and that they may therefore be trusted with more power than they yet possess, will enlist on the Liberal side. A man who is cautious, cool-headed, averse to sentimental arguments, penetrated by a feeling of the difficulties which attend the working of democratic institutions, will tend toward Conservatism. So, too, will he who is well satisfied with things as they are, and, while admitting that they might be improved, conceives that as the crying grievances of the working-class and of the Irish have been redressed, the time has come to pause. Now, a person of intellectual power and culture may just as well belong to either of these latter classes as to the former; and the differences of nature which dispose men to be Conservatives or Liberals are rather differences of temperament and of sympathy than of mere intelligence. It is for this reason that Mr. Gladstone's wonderful intellectual gifts do not gain him so much support from literary or scientific men as the sentimental or emotional quality of his character excites distrust from those men of culture who pique themselves on trying everything by the dry light of reason.

Perhaps one may carry this line of observation a step further. There is a tendency among philosophers and historians to be always in opposition to the prevailing political tendencies of their time, just because they are the keenest to perceive the faults and dangers of those tendencies. Plato and Thucydides were the most acute critics of the Athenian democracy, while the great thinkers and poets who have lived under despotic governments have usually been apostles of freedom. Since 1832, the popular party has been generally in the ascendant in Great Britain, and seems to many to be on the eve of attempting large constitutional changes. It is natural, therefore, and not only natural, but wholesome, that there should be an active literary opposition to the democratic movement of our time; and that opposition would doubtless be far stronger were it not that the Conservatism of the upper classes, which often finds expression in an arrogant and selfish assertion of their own interests, repels some of the literary and philosophic talent of the time, and drives it into the Liberal camp. This, however, is exceptional. On the whole, the influence of the richer classes tells strongly for Conservatism among the men of education and culture. If there were any exciting issues before the country, such men would take sides according to their views of what reason and history taught; but in a time like the present, when the issues are not exciting, and when reason and history cannot be claimed for either side exclusively, mere social influences count for a great deal, and draw into the Tory ranks many persons who do not by extraction or wealth belong to the upper class. We shall soon have an opportunity of judging what the literary fighting power of the Tory party is, for some of its leaders—prominent among whom is Lord Carnarvon—announce that they are establishing a new review or magazine for the express and sole purpose of advocating Conservative principles. Though it is to deal not only with politics, but also with literary and artistic topics—with religion, philosophy, history, manners, agriculture—all these subjects are to be dealt with in a strictly Conservative spirit and exclusively, it would seem, by Conservative writers. This is a new departure in our magazine journalism, and excites much curiosity. Its promoters say that there is a great deal of "dormant talent" in the Conservative ranks which they desire to evoke, and that Radicalism has hitherto been allowed to have too much of its own way in the magazines. But it need hardly be said that the whole thing is a question of money. No Conservative talent need have lain dormant a day longer than it pleased, because our editors want good writing only, and do not care on which side it is employed: they have no political aims, and if they insert more Liberal than Conservative articles, it can only be either because more are sent to them or because they are better written.

Y.

THE "SALVATION ARMY" AS AN INDEX OF ENGLISH OPINION.

LONDON, December 28, 1882.

MY purpose in this letter is not to praise, to blame, or even to criticise the movement of which the Salvation Army is the embodiment, but simply to call the attention of your readers to the curious light thrown both by the movement itself, and still more by the attitude of the English people toward it, upon the condition of belief, opinion, or sentiment in England.

The very existence, in the first place, and still more the extraordinary success, of the Salvation Army throw doubt on the truth of the view often expressed and still oftener entertained, that the present age is, in England at least, an era of unbounded scepticism and of very prevalent religious incredulity. If, indeed, a reader confines his attention (as most of us do) to the books and periodicals which have the greatest vogue among the well-to-do portion of the community, and assumes that such writers as Matthew Arnold, as the author of 'Supernatural Religion,' as the Rev. Stopford Brooke, or even Professor Seeley, or that such writings as the *Fortnightly Review*, the *Nineteenth Century*, or the *Pall Mall Gazette* represent the ordinary beliefs or disbeliefs of the British public, he may fairly enough conclude that what is technically called religious faith is undermined throughout the whole country. Whether such an inference could rightly be drawn even as regards the convictions of the classes to whom the writers or periodicals I have mentioned mainly appeal, is, in my judgment, a very doubtful question. No one is less prone than I am to underrate the importance of that general disintegration of beliefs which, being a result of the unparalleled freedom of discussion that has existed in England for more than a generation, is the most striking and impressive phenomenon of the day; but it is, I am convinced, an error to identify a condition of feeling which affects all forms of belief, whether political, historical, or social, with religious scepticism, which, if it exists, is simply one specimen of the break-up of dogmatic systems.

Still, if any one maintains that among wealthy Englishmen there exists an amount of avowed theological scepticism such as has not existed, or at any rate been apparent, in any other age, he will find many arguments to urge in favor of his opinion. What I am concerned to notice is, that assertions as to the religious scepticism of the present age must, if they are to correspond with facts, be restricted to particular classes of Englishmen. The Salvation Army is a perfectly natural outgrowth of the condition of English society; it is a plant born of the soil—it is not an exotic, it has not been fostered into growth by any artificial culture. General Booth and his friends have appealed, and have appealed with great success, to the ordinary beliefs of orthodox English Protestants. The very basis on which the existence of the Army rests is the enthusiastic conviction of General, officers, and soldiers that the dogmas of Christianity, as understood by English Protestants, are true. The success of the campaign on which the Army has entered depends in great measure on the fact that thousands of men and women, whose lives fall far short of the Christian or any other standard of duty, are in their hearts convinced that the dogmas of Christianity are true, and can, therefore, by strenuous and sincere appeals to their consciences, be roused, for a time at least, to the attempt of acting up to their own convictions. How would it be possible to collect an army for the object of preaching salvation through Christ among men having no belief in Christianity; or to terrify with fears of eternal punishment listeners who had ceased to believe in the existence of hell? Secularism, I shall be told, prevails among the artisans; the influence of Mr. Bradlaugh must be balanced against the authority of General Booth. The train of thought thus suggested undoubtedly deserves consideration. Mr. Bradlaugh, General Booth, and Cardinal Manning are each signs of the times. The characteristic of the age is that all forms of belief or disbelief grow up and flourish side by side. This, however, does not affect the fact, which is beyond dispute, that the power with the public of General Booth is infinitely greater than that of any secularist in the country. In any contested election, the active friendship of the General would be of infinite value to a candidate. Few were the would-be M.P.'s who, in 1880, would not have been glad to have in their pockets a letter of recommendation from Mr. Spurgeon. The friendship of Mr. Bradlaugh might possibly (though this is very doubtful) benefit a candidate who wished to represent Northampton; in any other borough throughout England Mr. Bradlaugh's patronage would be fatal to the success of even a popular candidate. Few are the men who, when trying to get into Parliament, would boast of being supported by the *National Reformer*.

The success and influence of the Salvation Army is, it should be noted, no isolated phenomenon. If the artisans of England are deeply imbued with secularism or agnosticism, it is very strange that the borough elections should in hundreds of cases be practically decided by the Nonconformists. Neither Dissenting ministers nor the congregations who hear and support them are supposed to be free-thinkers. When Mr. John Morley, to the great regret of all readers who value manly honesty of

thought and outspoken vigor of expression, recently retired from the editorship of the *Fortnightly Review*, he expressed in his farewell address a doubt whether scepticism or free thought (I do not profess to quote his words) had made great progress in England. It were hardly possible to call a more competent or unbiassed witness to the truth of the observation which I press upon your readers—namely, that the existence of the Salvation Army, combined with other circumstances, is hardly consistent with the belief that religious incredulity is in any sense a characteristic of the majority of the English people. We may probably go a good deal further than this, and infer with justice that the English are still, as a body, not only sincere Christians, but also strict Protestants. For the last forty years Romanists, Puseyites, Ritualists, Anglicans of every form and color, have attacked English Protestantism on every side on which it is, or is supposed to be, assailable. The assailants have had in the Church of England a fortress or vantage-ground from which to attack all forms of thorough-going Protestantism. Among certain classes, at any rate, the cause which, for want of a better term, one may call the cause of Sacerdotal Christianity, has made progress. But the sudden rise of a religious movement like that of the Salvation Army, led by laymen, and grounded apparently on the ideas which have always been the basis of Puritan Low Church, Evangelical, or (speaking generally) Protestant forms of Christianity in England, suggests the idea, confirmed by many other facts, that neither Roman Catholicism nor any form of Anglicanism exerts, or is likely to exert, permanent influence over the great body of the English people. Cardinal Manning is a popular representative of Romanism. He is liked, respected, and admired by a large number of wealthy and educated Englishmen, and Englishmen who are not, and are not likely to be, carried over to Rome. But if you tested his influence by the rough-and-ready criterion by which I have tested the influence of Mr. Bradlaugh, you would probably find that the Cardinal had hardly more weight with ordinary Englishmen than has the secularist lecturer. If it were not for the Irish vote, no candidate for an English constituency would care to come before the electors as the friend or follower of Cardinal Manning.

The criticism, in the second place, passed by liberal-minded writers on the proceedings of the Salvation Army exhibits in a marked way one of the most singular and least satisfactory features in the moral and intellectual attitude of educated Englishmen. The one point which these critics have not in general cared to deal with is the truth or falsehood of the theological doctrines preached by General Booth and his officers. Much candor has been shown in appreciating the good side of the General's efforts. Much has been said, both with candor and with truth, of the objection to vulgarizing religious worship and of attempting to arouse attention at the cost of impairing the sentiment of reverence. What appears at any rate odd, or rather would have appeared odd at any other period of English history, is that persons, some of whom cannot be supposed to agree in the fundamental dogmas on which the religious teaching of the Salvationists depends, write as though the zeal and good intentions of the Army and its leaders dispensed a sympathetic critic from the necessity of saying, or perhaps even of making up his own mind, whether the doctrines preached by the Salvationists, or the facts, or alleged facts, on which these doctrines ultimately depend, were true or false. It will and may be urged that the practical admonitions addressed by General Booth to crowds sunk in lives of sin and misery are of value, and may command our sympathy and respect even though we are not able to believe the dogmas which give force to his preaching. The same argument would, it should be noted, justify a sympathetic criticism of the pilgrimages to Lourdes on the part of critics who, like myself, believe the visionary young woman at Lourdes to have supported a false doctrine by statements which, if not delusions, were as knowingly false as any of the hundred lies told by the Claimant. The train of reasoning or feeling, in short, which justifies sympathetic criticism of religious doctrines in which you do not yourself believe, rests at bottom on the idea, to which modern writers occasionally give definite expression, that, in matters of religion, edification is of far greater consequence than truth.

The conduct, in the last place, of the public, and I fear I must add of the Government, in respect of the attacks made by roughs on the Salvationists, betrays singular indifference to the duty of insuring to all citizens the free exercise of their legal rights. On this matter facts speak for themselves. General Booth and his followers are not, it should be noted, by any means unpopular, either with the well-to-do and so-called respectable classes, or, as far as appears, with the great mass of the people. There are, however, to be found in every large town numbers of roughs who, particularly when instigated by the publicans, are willing enough to break up by force meetings which, though perfectly legal, are offensive to the tastes or prejudices of the kind of persons who form "skeleton armies." There are, in short, in every part of the country, lots of ruffians prepared to deal with General Booth much as Mr. Dempster and his friends tried to deal with Mr. Tryan. One would have supposed that the violence of a disreputable mob bent on interfering with the right of public meeting would have aroused the indignation of respectable men of all classes. The general feeling of the public seems, however, to have been one of apathy. The Salvation Army and the Skeleton Army, the Saints and the Roughs, ought to be allowed to battle their quarrel out together; in any case, persons who sympathize with neither force ought not, according to the prevailing view, to be disturbed. If the blackguards of Little Pedlington objected to the hymns and sermons of General Booth, and threatened to dissolve the General's prayer-meetings by force, then the General and his friends, it was argued, were causing a breach of the peace, and the duty of respectable magistrates was to hinder a meeting which, though perfectly legal, was likely to excite the anger of ruffians and to prompt the said ruffians to break the law. To put the matter in the plainest terms, the popular view (which was to a certain extent countenanced by the Government) is that assemblies otherwise perfectly legal become unlawful if they are held in places where they are likely to offend the feeling of the populace. The law courts have happily corrected the monstrous delusion that the exercise of their legal rights by peaceable citizens could be limited or hindered according to the will or the caprice of a lawless mob. The judges have performed their duty, and have done the best they could to impress upon the nation the simple, and one would have thought obvious, principle that if Jones has a right to meet his friends and sing hymns or preach in an orderly manner, his right to do so cannot be affected either by the fact that Bill Sykes and a lot of scoundrels threaten to punch Jones's head, or by the fact that a muddle-headed bench of magistrates hold that anything must be unlawful on Jones's part which leads Bill Sykes to break the peace.

The courts have done their duty. It is not, however, certain whether even now the people or the executive have realized the justice and the necessity of insuring to the members of the Salvation Army, as to all other citizens, the free enjoyment of their lawful rights. Here, as in the conduct of the House of Commons with regard to Mr. Bradlaugh, may be perceived a symptom of one of the most threatening dangers of the day. This danger is the growth of a feeling that the practical exercise of legal rights ought to be dependent upon the popularity of the class or person who claims to exercise them. The majority of the House of Commons were unable to see that the question of Mr. Bradlaugh's admission to his seat was not a question of morals, but of law. Hosts of Englishmen appear unable to perceive, or rather to feel, that violent interference by ruffians with the Salvation Army compromises the whole right of public meeting. Assume, in the face of all evidence, that the Salvationists are a body of canting hypocrites; assume, what has certainly not yet been proved, that the proceedings of the Army are so conducted as to be a nuisance to quiet people, and therefore ought to be put down by legal means: these assumptions, even if true, do not go one step toward lessening the danger and the inexpediency of allowing violent mobs to take the law into their own hands. The cause of General Booth is, in this matter, the cause of every Roman Catholic, Secularist, Quaker, or Jew throughout the land. It is, in fact, the cause of every man who is or may be the advocate of an unpopular cause. The mob who attack the Salvationists to-day may burn a Roman Catholic chapel to-morrow, or may take a fancy a week hence to wreck a Jewish synagogue. Recent experience does not justify the conviction that the principles of toleration and justice are so firmly grounded in the conscience of Europe that English mobs can be allowed to play at persecution.

Your readers must forgive me for having bored them with the commonplaces of political morality. The thing to be noted is, that these commonplaces, obvious as they are, have not as yet impressed themselves firmly on the minds of the English public. One circumstance to a slight extent explains, though it does not justify, the obtuseness of popular sentiment with regard to the Salvation Army. It is clearly just and expedient that the Salvationists should enjoy undisturbed all the legal rights of citizens; it is clear that among these rights must be included the unrestricted right of meeting in public, in a lawful manner, for the promotion of any lawful purpose. It is not, however, quite so clear—the matter is one on which I have no intention of pronouncing any opinion whatever—that the Government ought not to possess the power by law of occasionally restricting, on grounds of general policy, the unlimited right of public meeting. The English people, at any rate, it may be suspected, feel that, in politics no less than in religion, things may be lawful which are not expedient, and therefore are apathetic in duly supporting the exercise of rights which common sense suggests it is, under certain circumstances, inexpedient to exercise.

A. V. Dicey.

GRUCKER'S LITERARY DEVELOPMENT OF GERMANY.—I.

Paris, January 6, 1883.

German literature is distinguished by the part which critical science — the theoretical study of literary and of æsthetic principles—plays in it. The critic comes before the poet, and sometimes inspires him. The most famous poetical inventors and writers—Lessing, Klopstock, Goethe, Schiller, Novalis — have been

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philosophers; they have all been, to use the German terminology, objective and subjective at the same time. Boerne says that "the Germans always start from principles. Is it necessary to take out a spot in a coat? they first begin by studying chemistry, and they study it so well and so long that meanwhile the coat has fallen to pieces." M. Grucker, an Alsatian by birth, now Professor of Foreign Literature in the Faculty of Letters at Nancy, has just given us an excellent 'History of Literary and Æsthetic Doctrine in Germany.' It is full of the most valuable information. He shows us how weak, how divided and barren Germany was left after the Thirty Years' War. "Modern German literature," he says, "from Opitz to Gottsched, taken in the whole, is not the product of the free expansion of the national and popular genius; it is the result of a slow and difficult work of imitation, of artificial reproduction, aided, provoked by the study of rules, of poetics, of models borrowed from abroad." Herder says the same thing: "We came too late, and as we came too late, we imitated others. We imitated the French, the Spaniards, the Italians, the English; we hardly knew why. Our venerable Opitz was an imitator more than a poet, and in Weckherlin almost everything is borrowed from abroad."

In the middle of the eighteenth century German literature first becomes original; but the work of inspiration continues to be always accompanied and helped by the work of criticism. Criticism, in fact, becomes then a real science; it has a depth, an importance, unknown in other countries; it becomes a branch of philosophy, of literature, of history. The marriage, the close connection, which is established between literature and philosophy is the characteristic trait of German development. Every literary reform is caused by a philosophical reform. The philosophy of Wolf acts on Gottsched, the philosophy of Leibnitz on Lessing, the philosophy of Kant on Schiller, the philosophy of Fichte and the philosophy of Schelling on the Romantic school. Such a connection has existed in other countries: it is, for instance, impossible not to feel the influence of Descartes on the great French writers of the century of Louis XIV.; it is impossible not to see how the sensualism of the eighteenth century acted on Voltaire and his contemporaries. But the connection is nowhere so close, so complete as in Germany. Ritter has justly said: "More than any other, our literature is impregnated with philosophical ideas. Our greatest philosophers have in themselves something of the poet, and, as for most of our poets, it is difficult to say if they are poets rather than philosophers."

M. Grucker begins by giving a very graphic picture of German literature in the sixteenth century. This literature was essentially popular, but already Germany looked for models abroad. The powerful satirist Fischart was an imitator of Rabelais. There were two schools independent of each other: on one side, a neo-Latin literature, learned, but without life; on the other, a popular literature, trivial, coarse, represented by Sebastian Brant, by Hans Sachs. The legend of Faust, which was then created, combined, as it were, in its impersonality the popular inspirations with the boundless love of science and of intellectual domination which was already felt.

German had not even found a definitive language. Luther had used the Misnian dialect of Upper Saxony, which became the official *Kanzeleisprache* of the Emperor; it soon triumphed over all the other local dialects. But after Luther, the language which he had formed was invaded by all sorts of Greek and Latin locutions. "German words," says Rückert, "were only there like servants who carry the train of a gown." The new Latin movement was fatal to the language, and it is a marvel that the work of Luther was not entirely lost, especially when the French language, already formed, so elegant and so precise, became the social language in all the courts and circles of Germany.

After the horrors of the Thirty Years' War, the German spirit seemed completely dead. All the Princes became imitators of Louis XIV.: they all had their Versailles, their Marly. The first reaction against the invasion of foreign words and ideas was the modest creation of societies which called themselves *Sprachgesellschaften*. M. Grucker gives their history. The most important had been established at the beginning of the war, in 1617, at Weimar—the *Fruchtbringende Gesellschaft*. The founders were Ludwig and J. Casimir of Anhalt, Ernst, Friedrich, and Wilhelm, Dukes of Saxe-Weimar, and a few gentlemen. The object of the society was "respect in its integrity and in its true spirit for the noble maternal tongue, and its employment in their speeches and writings." The society was essentially aristocratic, but it admitted professors, poets, and writers. It lasted during the Thirty Years' War; some of its members were on the Protestant side, some on the side of the Emperor. It died only toward 1767, at the beginning of the wars against Louis XIV. M. Grucker mentions other societies less known — the *Aufrichtige Tannengesellschaft*, established in Strasbourg in 1633, the *Deutschgesinnte Genossenchaft*, founded in 1643 at Hamburg by Philip von Zesen and Dietrich Petersen. These last were German in the extreme; Zesen called Venus "Weidinne," Vulcan "Gluthfang," Aurora "Röthinne," and so forth. In his eyes, Latin and Greek were dialects of German, and he believed that there were Germans at the siege of Troy. His attempt fell into ridicule, and it became an insult to be called a *Zesianer*. There is not much to be said of the *Gekrönte Blumenorden* established in 1641 at Nuremberg. The school of Nuremberg, as it is sometimes called, was devoted to allegory, to emblems, to bucolics; its members wore the classic names of shepherds —Damon, Floridor, etc.

The work of all these societies was less important than the work of a single man, Opitz, who first gave to German poetry rules, models, and principles. Opitz, it is true, unfaithful to the national and popular poetry, inspired himself with classic antiquity; he was, nevertheless, the reformer and the father of modern German literature. He played the part of Boileau: he was a sort of literary regent, the founder of criticism, a master of style and of prosody. Opitz was born in Silesia; at the age of twenty, when he was a mere student, he attempted a defence of the German language in his "Aristarchus sive de contemptu linguæ teutonicæ." It was a bold attempt, in an unknown young man, to protest against the abandonment of the national idiom, and to claim for it an honorable place by the Greek and Latin languages. His book, 'Von der deutschen Poeterey,' is a complete German 'Ars poetica.' This book has great analogies with the 'Illustration de la Langue française' of J. Du Bellay. Opitz was a great admirer of Du Bellay and of all the poets of the French Pleiad. But while Du Bellay wished to force as much Latin as possible into the French language, Opitz aimed to bring back the German language to its original purity; his reform was more rational than the reform of Du Bellay and of Ronsard, and therefore it was more successful. Opitz had his defects, as he was, in his private life, very selfish, cowardly, and worldly, and, in his own poetical attempts, dry, didactic, and sententious. He had no passion; he tries to defend poetry from the utilitarian point of view; in the various forms of poetry he sees chiefly the exterior and material parts. Still, his "reform" was of great use, as he really founded the laws of German prosody; his was the first serious attempt toward the constitution of a purely national literature. He became very popular in his lifetime, and was called "the prince of the German lyre." During the second part of the seventeenth century and the first part of the eighteenth the name of Opitz remained in Germany as the personification of true literary principles. He is the centre round which gravitate Paul Fleming, the best poet of his time, the author of fine sonnets and psalms, the epigrammatic Friedrich von Logau, the satirical Rachel, the religious Simon Dach, etc. Philip Harsdoerfer and his school, called the school of Nuremberg, also attempted the regeneration of German national poetry, but their work had not the same character as that of Opitz: they were more artificial, they applied themselves to what may be called the artifices of poetry, of rhythm and style; their influence was not permanent.

The work of reform found a powerful ally in Leibnitz. His writings on the German language had a very powerful influence. Leibnitz was one of those powerful minds which embrace all the science of an age; his principle was the independent and innate activity of all things, and their universal harmony. A language was, in his eyes, an organism which had its own laws of development. He was a great admirer of France, which in his time was at the head of civilization; but he was also a patriot, and his patriotism embraced the whole of Germany. He admired sincerely the German language, and he wrote two pamphlets, entitled 'Ermahnung an die Teutschen ihren Verstand und Sprache besser zu gesinnen, über samt beigefügtem Vorschlag einer Teutsch-Gesellschaft,' and 'Unvorgreifliche Gedanken betreffend die Ausübung und Verbesserung der teutschen Sprache.' It is only recently that the German work of Leibnitz has been properly valued; his patriotism had been unjustly put in doubt—people only saw in him the philosopher, the diplomat, the cosmopolitan. He was obliged to use constantly the French and Latin languages, but he wrote often in German, and he truly appreciated the Teutonic language. He fully esteemed the efforts of the "language societies," but he thought they had devoted themselves too much to frivolous objects and to poetry. He desired that German should be employed on serious and substantial objects. The decadence of the German language seemed to him to be the outward form of the decadence of the nation. "There is between the language and the character of a people the same relation as between the moon and the sea." Leibnitz desired warmly the establishment of a German academy for the German language. He hoped to see his wish realized in the Academy of Berlin, founded in 1701, thanks to the influence of his pupil, the Queen Sophia-Charlotte. But French was the official language of this Academy, and scientific work soon became its exclusive preoccupation. Even at this hour, the Academy of Berlin is essentially an academy of sciences.

Leibnitz found an ally in the person of Christian Thomasius, the son of his own master, Jacob Thomasius, the apologist of Descartes. Thomasius the son was himself a Cartesian; he separated jurisprudence from theology; he did the same for morals, regarded as an independent science. He delivered his lectures at Leipzig in German, and he founded the first German periodical, under the somewhat compendious title of *Freimüthige, lustige und ernsthafte jedoch vernunft- und gezetzmässige Gedanken,*

oder Monatsgespräche über Alles, fürnehmlich aber neue Bücher. His profession of faith is condensed in a pamphlet called 'Von der Nachahmung der Franzosen,' the programme of the intellectual emancipation of Germany. Thomasius does full justice to the French, to their best qualities; but his admiration is not blind. He may be considered as the founder of the *Popularphilosophie.* He was one of the chief promoters of the use of the German language in every department of social and intellectual life.

Correspondence.

THE *NATION* AND PROHIBITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some, at least, of the readers of your journal read, in the issue of Jan. 11, your answer to the letter of Mr. Turnbull on prohibition with some surprise and more pleasure. Its positions, if consistently and firmly applied in their own spirit, can hardly fail to result in all the action that the sober advocates of prohibition are asking. Notwithstanding the variety of opinion and practice on the subject of temperance, you believe, if we understand you, in a law that shall repress intemperance, and look to its ultimate extinction in prohibition, and that this end is to be reached as rapidly as law supported by public opinion can be made to perform its function of repression. Prohibitionists might wish to alter somewhat the emphasis of your response, but would hardly desire to modify its fundamental principle. The fact that "a great majority of moralists, legislators, and teachers approve of or do not sharply condemn" the daily use of intoxicating drinks, is a reason neither with you nor with the prohibitionist against the use of law as an adjunct of public opinion, in overcoming a social evil rooted in social sentiment. In this relation of its work to public sentiment, the temperance reform does but follow in the steps of the anti-slavery movement. This one principle contains, we apprehend, for the sound mind, the entire temperance programme. Every other question becomes ultimately a question of facts under it. Honest majorities are entitled to shape the law to the ends of restriction and prohibition, provided they shape it wisely and execute it firmly. Majorities are won on this subject, as on all subjects, by effort; and the power to execute a law lies in the same direction with the ability to secure the law, and is attained by the same means. A "good license law" will no more enact itself or care for itself than a prohibitory law. Indeed, it has less power to care for itself than a prohibitory law, as it keeps good the seeds of mischief, and implies a weaker and more wavering social sentiment.

If we add to this first truth another principle contained in another portion of the same issue of your journal—"no punishment prevents all crime, and the object of punishment is always to diminish the amount of crime; and if it does this, it is efficacious, even if much crime is still committed"—we shall see that the entire question between the *Nation* and the prohibitionist is one of the interpretation of existing facts. The prohibitionist would say that the facts, in Maine for instance, under the above principle, fully justify prohibition. The law is so thoroughly sustained by public sentiment, and so widely enforced, as greatly to reduce intemperance, as powerfully to aid moral means in the formation of public sentiment, and as steadily to prepare the way for still better results. It thus sufficiently, if not fully, sustains its dignity as law, and is kept for the purposes of execution, and not for those of expression.

John Bascom.

University of Wisconsin, Madison,
January 20, 1883.

[It would be difficult for us to conceive of two agitations so dissimilar as to their objective point than the anti-slavery and prohibitionist agitations. The one aimed at the protection of certain individuals from wholesale robbery — *i. e.*, the deprivation of all civil rights at the hands of certain other individuals; the other aims at a compulsory change in the private personal habits of some persons, in order to set a good example to other persons. Your duties to your neighbor, in all outward relations to him, have hitherto been enforced by all systems of legislation. They all compel you to refrain from violence to him, to refrain from slandering or provoking him, and to pay him what you owe him, in money or goods. The anti-slavery agitation sought to give the negro the benefit of the Ten Commandments. The prohibitionist agitation, on the other hand, seeks to impose self-denial on each man in the regulation of his own life in his own house, so that others whom he never saw may not be led into temptation. This may be a good kind of legislation, but it is a new kind, and enormously difficult of enforcement; and it is a good objection to a law, always has been, and always will be in every rational community which does not play at lawmaking, that it cannot be enforced, or can be enforced only with great difficulty, which always means, only in a small number of cases.

The prohibitory movement does not therefore follow in the steps of the anti-slavery movement. It opens up an absolutely new path of its own. It aims at converting a moral duty, and hitherto a self-regarding duty, into a public and legal duty, and tries to get legislation which it admits cannot be enforced, on the plea that if it gets time it will create public sentiment enough to enforce it. The wildest and most fantastic legislation might be justified in the same way. There is in this field no limit to absurdity. The proposition that "the power to execute a law lies in the same direction with the ability to secure the law, and is attained by the same means," we do not fully understand. If it means that you can always execute any law you can get passed, it is notoriously untrue. If it means that you are entitled to have any law passed that you would like to see passed, because your motives are good, it is simple nonsense. As to the experiment in Maine, the prohibitionist who would say that it justified prohibition under any principle we have laid down would, in our estimation, say what was not true, and give a wholly deceptive impression of its working. The law is openly and systematically violated, to our personal knowledge, in a way that no other law on the statute-book is or could be. These misrepresentations and delusions are a very bad feature in the agitation. A considerable number of sumptuary laws, intended to regulate the private lives of citizens, have been passed before now in the New England States and other countries, but public opinion did not grow up to them, and they have been abandoned. They were doubtless in some degree obeyed. We do not say this will be the case with the prohibitory laws, but we do say that the friends of prohibition seriously injure their cause by their exaggerations, perversions, and evasions.—Ed. Nation.]

CO-EDUCATION IN WISCONSIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The remarks in your review of 'Towhead,' as to the degree of importance to be attributed to its picture of life at the "University of the Three Lakes," are perfectly just. I should never have given any thought to what is obviously a novelist's license in placing fictitious characters and occurrences in a real locality, but that I see some Eastern periodicals have taken the fiction for good earnest, and are crying out in alarm at the dangers of co-education. I do not intend to deny that the incidents described in this book *might* possibly have taken place here, where Miss McLean spent a few months, just as they might have taken place at Mt. Holyoke, where she also spent some time, and just as we know for a certainty they do take place in society with young girls who are not attending any school at all. But this is certainly no truthful picture of the relation of the sexes under co-education. I think that any unprejudiced observer would agree, first, that improprieties of conduct are far less common here than in society at large; secondly, that they have been steadily diminishing during the ten years or so that the system has been in operation. The great majority of our students, especially the girls, come here to work, not to flirt; and I have never known a more industrious, better-behaved, and more lady-like set of girls than those in our class-rooms. Those who do not care to study find themselves out of their element very soon, and go somewhere else. Anybody who chooses to consult the first chapter of 'Cape Cod Folks'—a book of genuine humor and descriptive power, which I read with the greatest enjoyment—will find a candid statement of the reasons why the authoress left one school after another, I have no doubt this University among them. I enclose an extract from a review of the book in our students' paper, which shows how it is regarded by the students themselves; and the remark made to me once, in perfectly good faith, by one of our young-lady students, that she understood the girls in Eastern schools often behaved with great impropriety, shows how easy it is to see the bad side of things in other communities and other kinds of institutions.

William F. Allen.

University of Wisconsin, Madison,
January 16, 1883.

RELIGIOUS DISCIPLINE AT HARVARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Harvard College has long had the reputation of being the most liberal university in this country. That this reputation is a just one in most respects I do not at all dispute. But as far as her attitude on the subject of religious training is concerned, the Cambridge university is as far from liberal as the most orthodox and strict of her sister colleges of the West. Her position is at once illogical and childish. According to the present arrangement, every student is compelled to go to chapel exercises four mornings in every week. All members of the three lower classes are required to attend some designated church every Sunday in the college year with the exception of six. Seniors, however, are allowed to use their own discretion in

regard to their attendance at church. In chapel the presence or absence of a student is marked by a special monitor. As far as church attendance is concerned, the matter is left entirely to each student's honor; he is required only to sign a paper at the end of the year stating that he has attended the church to which he had been assigned every Sunday in the year, except when specially excused. That this whole system is a ridiculous one is perfectly obvious. It simply offers a premium on dishonesty. Men who would scorn to tell an untruth, and consider their word sacred in all other matters, do not scruple to tell the most barefaced lies when the matter of attendance at church or chapel is in question.

Every other Tuesday morning the names of dozens of students are posted as having been fortunate enough to have their petitions granted. Most of the petitions are requests to be excused for absence from church or chapel on such trivial grounds as sore throat or a cold. As morning prayers do not come until a quarter before nine, it is hard to see how a cold can prevent a man's going to chapel at that time, when he is obliged to go out just as early to get his breakfast, and probably attends a nine-o'clock recitation. With the same reckless disregard for the truth, men will sign a paper at the end of the year stating that they have attended church on every Sunday in the year, when they have not seen the inside of a church for years. Indeed, it is quite a common boast for a man to say when he graduates that he has never been in church since he entered college, four years before. Such regard for the truth does Harvard's system of religious training inculcate in its victims! And yet President Eliot, in his last report, makes the remark that "the service [that at morning prayers is referred to] is impressive, edifying, and interesting, and he who can attend it for years without sometimes being touched by it and moved to better living, must be a very insensible and earth-bound person." President Eliot forgets that when a man is compelled to listen to anything, the subject is apt to become very distasteful, however interesting it may be under other circumstances. As a matter of fact, this service, "impressive, edifying, and interesting" as it is, inspires most students with a vindictive and life-long hatred of all the forms and associations connected with it. Many a student has vowed that after he left college he would never enter a church again.

The statistics in regard to the various religious beliefs entertained by the students that were taken a year or so ago were most imperfect and unreliable, as they were taken with the express intention of deceiving. At that time, the members of one religious sect in college desired to be allowed to build a chapel in the grounds. To influence the authorities, a zealous member of the society, through one of the papers—an organ of his—attempted to show that the members of that sect were in the majority. To do this, the returns were falsified to a large extent. Men who were known to belong to other sects were often not approached, but put down as "not visited." Many men would put themselves down as belonging to that particular church to humor the canvasser. Known sceptics were not visited at all. In one class in college in which there were, to my certain knowledge and among my acquaintance, at least a dozen "agnostics," but three agnostics were given. None of my acquaintance saw the canvasser at all. The list was drawn up for a purpose, and the designers did not scruple at any means to bring about the desired end. As a result, the public have the opinion that Harvard is more religious than she really is. The fact is, that there are many men here with no avowed religion who are driven into radical scepticism by the odious system of religious training in vogue. Forced religious training will always make men antagonistic to religious orthodoxy. They know that the Faculty and Corporation are fully aware of the number of lies that are told, and the apparent unconcern with which these lies are received makes students suspicious of men who can countenance a system that allows such evils.

It is not hard to show how illogical the system is. If seniors are allowed to exercise their own judgment in regard to church attendance, why should they not have the same privilege in the case of morning prayers? And if seniors are to decide for themselves on the plea of more advanced age, why should not the parents of the under-class men decide for them? The bad logic of the regulations is as plain as a pikestaff, and no amount of preaching and praying will atone for the evil the system does.

This is the system that caused a college paper last year to remind Harvard graduates about to vote for overseers that these overseers were the men who, in spite of the expressed desire of the Faculty, kept this system fastened upon us, and to call upon the graduates to depose all opponents of voluntary prayers. So, in the same way, I, in the name of the students of Harvard University, call upon every alumnus to oppose the election of any man to be an overseer in that University who is not in favor of voluntary prayers and common sense. A STUDENT.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., Jan. 16, 1883.

THE INTERESTS OF AMERICAN ART.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you allow me to be so rude as to suggest, through your columns, that an "American Artist," who writes in the *Nation* for December 14 a very lame defence of the protective policy, so far as art goes, is thinking more of his pocket (and mistakenly, at that) than of the good of art and its cultivation in America? He don't see the subject fairly.

The patronage of art is peculiar in its relation to political economy. Articles of an already created necessity will come in or be made at home, and the question of a protection to the home manufacture is one which can be supported by plausible arguments, although even here I hope it will be seen before many years that the protective policy is one of making water run up hill—it always costs more in the end to the nation at large than it comes to, and should never be resorted to except when it relates to articles whose home production is necessary to our independence and safety. But a protective tariff on works of art is a double fallacy. It is only the seeing of pictures which induces purchasing them, and therefore the more good pictures people see the more they are induced to purchase. The importation of pictures is in the main of two classes: good pictures by European masters, and cheap pictures which come in as furniture. The former do not compete with the pictures of our native artists, as they are high-priced and bought for their reputation or surpassing excellence *in their kind* by people who can afford to buy everything they fancy strongly in this way. Their introduction should be encouraged in every possible way, firstly, for their refining influence on public taste; secondly, as affording a school of art at home which gives a better training to our own painters; and thirdly, because the effect of a development of taste leads to the more bountiful patronage of the home art so improved. Every true artist will pray for the introduction of as much good art as possible, and without any hindrance of the tariff; the artists (?) who live by painting pictures which a cultivation of the public taste would render unsalable are not entitled to consideration, and ought to be encouraged to adopt some other profession or trade.

Now, as to the bad pictures—*i. e.*, the cheap, trashy things which are turned out at small prices by poorly-paid hack painters—they also interfere with no good art, as no one buys them who knows what art is, but people who want something cheap to decorate their walls with; and if they don't take these they take chromos of the same character. They are not obliged to have pictures as they are to have books, and making these poor canvases as dear as the work of our own painters of repute would only prevent them buying anything, while, on the contrary, beginning with these as cheap objects, their ambition rises with cultivation, and they will presently have something better in their best room. But as a rule, people buy pictures of favorite artists if they care for art, and cheapness is no recommendation any more than it would be for diamonds.

The "*art interests* of the whole people," of which an "American Artist" so patriotically talks, demand the best art to be diffused as widely as possible, and that art shall not be raised in its cost to the people without regard to its true value by any artificial restriction. They demand the art education of the whole people as well as of the particular artist who is to do the work for the people, we will hope, by and by. Our legislation makes a partial and absurd provision for the supposed interest of artists, as against those of art, by exempting from duty the works of American artists residing abroad; but on what grounds should a painter or sculptor especially be exempted from paying taxes on his work because he lives and labors abroad, where he can exist and work more cheaply than at home, and pay no taxes of any kind, any more than an American shipbuilder who builds his ships in a foreign dock-yard? The sculptor abroad employs foreign labor to as great an extent as the shipbuilder—all the practical work is done by men whose labor is as taxable as that of the workmen in electro-plated ware or shipbuilding. Why is this, but to aid in the education of our artists—not certainly to enable them to live abroad (which for native art is the worst of all policies); and if to aid that education, why not logically carry it further and let pictures come in to educate us? The protection of books does come logically into our illogical system of political economy, because the capital and labor involved in the production of books are pure trade interests, and, combined with our systematic piracy of foreign brains, the tariff on books probably does not make books dearer or discourage their production, for the books which without the tariff would be printed abroad are now printed at home, but the pictures will not be painted at home even if our tariff should be prohibitory. Men who paint great pictures at Paris would not be induced to come to New York to paint them by the imposition of a duty, which is the case, *mutatis mutandis*, with books; and when we have a native Bastien-Lepage painting in New York he will command as high prices as he who now paints in Paris. *Cæteris paribus*, a native art will always be preferred by all people who love art, because the motive will have a stronger appeal than a foreign motive would. The law of supply and demand has no bearing, for the rule is reversed—the supply creates the demand, and the demand increases with the supply. Within certain limits, not yet reached with us, the production of good pictures as a general thing stimulates purchase.

Our protective system is a gross absurdity from beginning to end, but the absurdity bursts into blossom in the art department. We tax ancient art, which we need for study, so heavily that it amounts to prohibition, though protection is out

of the question, and we don't need the trivial revenue we get from it. We have no old art to protect, and the tax on it only tends to keep it out of the country, while our art education calls for it with an increasing persistency. We encourage our artists to go abroad, again, when we ought, from æsthetic as well as economical reasons, to make it for their interest to stay at home: living abroad cheaply, they pay no taxes, and get assistant labor cheaply; living at home, they pay taxes and employ dear labor if they employ any. Therefore we take off the tax from the former category and thereby handicap the latter. I belong to the former, but it does not prevent my seeing the absurdity of the system. If I am any judge of the merits of the question, what we want in the interests of art and the artists is exemption of all purely artistic work from any duty whatever, and equally so of all applied art or articles of ornament and household decoration produced more than a century ago—*i. e.*, bric-à-brac, furniture, etc., etc., in which utility is the secondary consideration.—Yours truly,

ANOTHER AMERICAN ARTIST.

FLORENCE, December 29, 1882.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To offset that "Old Subscriber" in Richmond whom you have so recently lost, I enclose $3, for which you will please send the *Nation* for '83 to a new subscriber, likewise in Richmond. I hope he may make a better use of it than the one you have lost, and may concern himself far more about seeking a remedy for this plague-spot on the civilization of the South than about your motives in probing it.

ANOTHER OLD SUBSCRIBER.

[The following letter, which appeared in the Richmond *State* of January 18, is an important contribution to the discussion so long carried on in these columns.—ED. NATION.]

"*To the Editor of The State:*

"In your editorial of December 28, headed 'Why We Are Slandered?' you took the New York *Nation* most severely to task for its malice toward the South, as exhibited in its recent articles on Southern homicide. Your concluding paragraph was as follows:

"'So plausible and so cunningly contrived has been the *Post-Nation's* trickery, that it has recently published letters of commendation from two individuals in Virginia—one of them writing from Richmond—who were either fools or knaves, being either too silly to detect the injury that paper is doing our people, or too treacherous to refrain from endorsing slanders against their own friends and neighbors. Their affected "liberalism," however, is made naught by the exposure of the *Post-Nation's* over-zeal in its foul work of abuse, and these two writers from Virginia, if they be real and known, should not fail to suffer the penalty of their treachery, and be forced, as the slanderers of their own people, to remain forever renegades from society, unworthy of the trust of honest men.'

"One of these writers, Mr. Editor, is as 'real' as people usually are, is 'known' by some few people in Richmond and elsewhere, and, without any 'affectation' in the matter, he sees that it would be plainly illiberal to take umbrage at the terms used, seeing that editors of daily papers have to write in great haste, often, too, in the heat of political controversy, and that in this case the words were directed against some anonymous writer, the spirit of whose article you misunderstood. Everything personal being thus buried out of sight, I gladly avail myself of your courteous offer to let me defend in the columns of your paper the article in the *Nation* of December 21, over the signature of 'X. Q. Z.,' an article prompted, I assure you, by a devoted love for our common country. I do it the more cheerfully, as I fully recognize the noble work the *State* has done in striving to uphold the cause of honesty in opposition to the spirit of repudiation that has been so prevalent in our land.

"The charges of the *Nation* may be briefly stated thus:

"1st. That the South is characterized by a barbarous homicidal spirit pervading it to an extent unknown in any other civilized community.

"2d. That the homicides by which the South is thus peculiarly disgraced take place among its better class of citizens, and occur in settlement of social or business disputes. With the murders committed by ruffians it has nothing to do.

"3d. That the Southern sense of the sacredness of human life is so greatly weakened that these homicides are rarely punished. This last point is perhaps the one on which it lays the greatest stress. It has offered its columns to any Southerner who will send reports of the hanging of the men guilty of these 'social and business homicides,' but not one has yet been published.

"In an editorial some time ago the *Nation* took the ground that this lawless spirit has much to do with retarding the influx of immigration and capital into the South.

"I leave you, Mr. Editor, to tell your readers whether I have fairly stated the *Nation's* position.

"The rebukes of this journal have sometimes been so stingingly severe as to make any true friend of the South writhe with mortification and pain, and feel his blood boil. Many Southerners deny the charges altogether, and attribute them to sheer malice on the part of the *Nation*. But of one thing I have become convinced, after much discussion and careful attention to the matter, that, whatever may be the motive that actuates this Northern archer, his terrible shafts inflict such keen pain because they are barbed with too much truth, and I am earnestly anxious to see the South I love roused to a right view of the matter. I therefore wrote a brief article for the *Nation*, taking the ground that the wise course for its Southern readers was to give their main attention to determining whether the charge is in any fair degree true of us; and if so—'and many devoted Southerners,' I said, 'lament that it is only too true'—to do all in their power to correct the evil.

"I base my patriotism, Mr. Editor, upon this principle: 'Righteousness exalteth a nation, but sin is a reproach to any people.' The fact is manifest that we in the South are too greatly chargeable with the sin of which the *Nation* accuses us. I know men who fought for the South during the war, and no doubt are as true patriots now as then, who say that the charge in the main is true. I know three Virginia editors who in private will say the same thing.

"The Louisville *Courier-Journal* (as quoted by the *Nation* of January 11) says of Polk's defalcation: 'If he had killed a man in heat and passion, or if he had coldly assassinated him, the effect would have been different, and his condemnation much less certain. In the Southern States we can find it in our hearts to forgive a murderer, but the crime of theft we punish more rigidly when we catch the thief.' The Charleston (S. C.) *News and Courier*, also quoted by the *Nation*, admits the frequency of these brutal street-fights in the South, attributing them to a general public sentiment that lacks the 'finer courage' which would resort to the law for the redress of private wrongs. In 1880 a South Carolina judge, in his charge to the Grand Jury respecting the carrying of concealed weapons, said in substance that South Carolina was red with the blood of its sons shed by the hands of their brothers.

"As to the hanging of these murderers, who of us ever hears of it? Isn't it almost an impossible thing to get a white man hung in the South? A few days ago I read in a Lynchburg paper that in the first eight weeks of his Governorship Alexander H. Stephens pardoned forty-nine convicts out of the penitentiary, twelve of them being murderers!

"As to the animus of the *Nation*, I have this to say, that while I myself prefer to believe it to be honest in disclaiming any malice toward us, yet in this state of affairs we cannot afford to attend to that. A man returning home at night and told that his house is on fire, does not bother himself with the animus of his informant. In such a crisis he would hardly stop to notice this; and yet, if he were thus enabled to rescue those dearest to him, he would hold himself, in a certain measure, indebted to his informant, even if the latter showed great glee in giving the tidings.

"Now, Mr. Editor, what shall those of us do who desire to see this blot removed from the reputation of our beloved South? I know of a Southern journal that took up the matter some years ago, but now is content to let it rest, because it met so much criticism and misrepresentation at the hands of Southerners. If we try to do a little good by addressing the *Nation's* Southern readers, our motives are misunderstood and violently assailed. Will you not, Mr. Editor, throw your influence on the side of right and of law, and induce other Southern journals to do the same? Perhaps the *Nation* will then retire from the discussion, and the *State* will have the proud distinction of again battling in a righteous cause, in spite of the violent prejudice it will encounter. But if our own papers will not do this, then I say—and I say it boldly, and because I love the South—I bid the *Nation* Godspeed in its work of stirring up the Southern conscience, and trust it will calmly hold on its way till this crying evil is abated.

"I thank you, Mr. Editor, for your kindness in allowing me so much of your valuable space to maintain views with which you, perhaps, do not altogether sympathize.—Yours, respectfully,

"ADDISON HOGE.

"HAMPDEN-SIDNEY COLLEGE, PRINCE EDWARD COUNTY, VA."

"P. S.—Since I wrote the above I have received the *Dispatch* of Friday, with an account of a typical Southern murder, such as the *Nation* charges against us. It was a street murder, one count in the *Nation's* indictment; murderer and victim were both 'prominent men,' second count; it was a 'business homicide,' as the *Nation* calls it, the dispute being about a sum of money owed by one to the other, third count; the 'concealed weapon' was on hand, fourth count; and, finally, the tragedy is 'deeply deplored,' fifth count. Now, remember, indignant Southerners, that the *Nation* offers its columns to any of you who will report a case where one of these 'terrible tragedies' is so 'deeply deplored' as to result in the hanging of the manslayer. The files of the *State* and *Dispatch* for the last few months could, no doubt, show a dozen or more similar murders, but I have never yet read of a hanging, though I do read of acquittals and pardons. Now let us watch and see whether the authorities of Monroe, La., will visit any fitting punishment on McClain.

"I hear people say, 'Why don't the *Nation* correct the sins of the North? It could find plenty of work to do.' I reply: Do our own papers render this needless by their own endeavors to correct such a gigantic evil? In a paper which I have taken for years I remember several rather recent (I think) editorials taking the New York dailies to task for their immense conceit in supposing that New York is the whole country. But, as far as I recollect, I have never yet seen it lift a finger toward educating its thousands of readers in the only right view of this matter—certainly not in the last few months since the *Nation* took the matter up. A. H."

THE DATING OF BOOKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Another practice which cannot meet with too severe condemnation seems to be gaining ground among publishers. I allude to the habit of placing *no date* on published books. Perhaps this is less reprehensible, from a strict moral standpoint, than giving a false date, but it is certainly very annoying.

For example, the latest edition of Perry's 'Elements of Political Economy' was published by Charles Scribner's Sons in 1879 or 1880, but no date whatever appears on the title-page. The edition is merely called a "new" edition, and the number of the edition even omitted, so that readers are at a loss to tell how new it really is.

TRUE DATE.

MILWAUKEE, January 7, 1883.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO. have brought out Dr. Holmes's 'The Poet at the Breakfast Table,' in the style of its elegant companion volume, 'The Autocrat,' issued just before Christmas. The old Holmes mansion in Cambridge is represented in the frontispiece. With 'Twice-Told Tales' and 'Mosses from an Old Manse,' the same publishers begin a Riverside Edition of Hawthorne's works in twelve volumes, crown octavo, including in an appendix 'The Ancestral Footstep.' Each volume is to contain a brief introduction by Mr. George P. Lathrop, and an original etching, and by midsummer the edition will be complete. The two before us are quiet specimens of tasteful bookmaking, and Mr. La-

throp's prefatory notes are correspondingly direct and business-like. They give the necessary information concerning the circumstances out of which each composition grew. Two references to the "eleventh volume" of this edition, while no numbering appears upon either cover or title-page of the initial reprints, are explained by the easily overlooked bastard title.

A commendable anonymous translation of such parts of Plato as reveal the personality of his master was published some five years ago by Charles Scribner's Sons, under the title 'Socrates.' This has now been reissued in a cheaper, pamphlet form.

The Maine Historical Society have reprinted the newspaper reports, which had become unprocurable, of their proceedings in celebration of Longfellow's seventy-fifth birthday, February 27, 1882. The result is a handsome volume, containing a steel portrait of the poet, and views of the Stephenson house, in which he was born, and of the Longfellow house proper (Portland: Hoyt, Fogg & Donham).

A second edition of Sachs's 'Text-book of Botany, Morphological and Physiological,' could not be made after the lapse of seven years without some modifications. The Clarendon Press intrusted these to Mr. Sydney H. Vines, of Christ's College, Cambridge, and they consist in a rewriting of the first thirty-two pages, in sundry corrections and additions in the text and notes, and in an appendix. This beautiful and authoritative work is therefore prepared for at least another half decade of usefulness (New York: Macmillan & Co.).

We have received two additional volumes of the Clarendon Press Series: (1) 'Æschylus: Agamemnon,' by A. Sidgwick, known to Americans as the author of two works on Greek Prose Composition, adapted for use in this country by Professor White, of Harvard, and as one of those minutely accurate scholars who regard a false quantity as something analogous to the unpardonable sin, and an ingenious conjectural emendation of the text of a Greek play as a masterpiece of high art. He has certainly given us a very scholarly and useful edition of the 'Agamemnon.' The critical apparatus accompanying the text is unusually full and carefully selected. Of the convenience, the typographical neatness, and general excellence of these editions of the classics, we have before repeatedly spoken. (2) 'Uniplanar Kinematics of Solids and Fluids, with Applications to the Distribution and Flow of Electricity,' by George M. Minchin, Professor of Applied Mathematics in the Royal Indian Engineering College, is a purely mathematical treatise on the laws of motion where the motion is confined to one plane, or planes parallel to one plane. It takes us at once into the domain of the differential and integral calculus, which, in the end, is really the shortest and only scientific and satisfactory manner of treating the subject. To get the full benefit of the work, it is advisable to have at hand the 'Treatise on Statics' by the same author, one of the volumes of the same series.

A second edition of Mr. Henry C. Lea's 'Studies in Church History' is now passing through the press.

Roberts Brothers, Boston, have reprinted the 'Autobiography of Mrs. Fletcher,' which we noticed upon its first appearance. This confirms the correctness of our opinion that the book would have a place of its own for the sake of its testimony to the general spirit of the times, in spite of its lack of novel or specially interesting incidents.

The Rev. J. B. Harrison's letters on "The Condition of Niagara Falls," contributed to the New York *Evening Post* and *Tribune* and Boston *Advertiser*, have been gathered into a pamphlet, and may be had of the writer (whose address is Franklin Falls, New Hampshire) by those who are desirous of joining the good work of redeeming a continental pleasure-ground from disfigurement and desecration. Petitions accompany the pamphlet.

William S. Gottsberger has in press and will shortly issue a translation of Dr. Georg Ebers's new romance, 'Ein Wort.'

'A Life of Adoniram Judson,' the famous pioneer missionary to Burmah, by his son, the Rev. Edward Judson, is in the press of A. D. F. Randolph & Co.

John W. Lovell Co. have arranged with the Rev. R. Heber Newton to publish the sermons, now in course of delivery, on "The Right and Wrong Uses of the Bible," in one volume.

A limited number of copies of the late Richard D. Webb's 'Life of John Brown'—the very last of the Dublin edition (not made from plates)—has been sent to this country by Mr. Alfred Webb, to be sold for the benefit of Mrs. Brown. They can be procured at the office of the *Woman's Journal* in Boston, the price being $2. This is the standard biography of John Brown, and the photographic portrait which accompanies it is also the best that has been published. The book, from its scarcity, already commands an advanced price.

The '*Tribune* Almanac' for 1883, edited by Mr. Edward McPherson, is now obtainable. Every editor and most politicians know its utility; but any citizen will find it valuable for reference. Besides electoral statistics, it gives abstracts of recent acts of Congress and of party platforms; constitutional amendments; tables of trade, banking, revenue, public debt, illiteracy; lists of public and State officers, etc., etc.

We can recommend for brevity, intelligibility, and general soundness Dr. B. C. Faust's 'Laws of Health,' which has been translated and prepared for school use by the publisher (Brooklyn, N. Y.: Hermann Kopp & Co.). Some dogmatism will be detected, as in teaching that "the head should rest on a pillow *a hand's breadth* in height"; and the instruction in the appendix about diluting and otherwise correcting cow's milk for infancy we believe to be antiquated.

Miss Hewins continues, in the January *Bulletin* of the Hartford Library Association, her good offices to the young by printing a full list of works on English and American History for children, thus anticipating a portion of her forthcoming 'Books for the Young,' which will be published by F. Leypoldt.

Some belated but still available "Reading Notes on Herbert Spencer and his works" appear in the January *Bulletin* of the Philadelphia Mercantile Library, prepared by Mr. John Edmands.

The Bridgeport (Conn.) Public Library has just had the good fortune to be made heir to a fine building, valued at $90,000, admirably suited to its needs. The legacy was contained in the will of Mrs. Pettengill, widow of a former editor of the Bridgeport *Standard*.

The seventeenth annual report of the Commissioners on Inland Fisheries (Boston, 1883) indicates by its very title the lead which Massachusetts has taken in pisciculture. It appears that four years were lost by an experiment with California salmon, which were found not to thrive on the Atlantic coast. The distribution of German carp has not produced such results as might have been expected, owing to the negligence of the recipients in protecting them against other fish, etc.

There has recently been published in England a little book which all lovers of books would like to read, but which no lover of books ought to read if he has any respect for his eyes. 'The Book-Lover's Enchiridion: Thoughts on the Solace and Companionship of Books, Selected and Chronologically Arranged by Philobiblos' (New York: Scribner & Welford) is its title, and its form is a tiny 32mo or 48mo, printed in diamond type. To read its 237 pages is almost impossible without the use of a strong glass and of stronger language than is becoming in a book-lover. The matter of the book is worthy of a better setting; it is a collection—not altogether exhaustive or highly critical—of the wise things said by sages of all times and climes in praise of books, beginning with Solomon and ending with the quotation of Longfellow's sonnet on his books. The compiler is of a more catholic taste and of a wider reading than most of his fellow-Englishmen, as is proved by the abundant quotation from American writers, such as Irving, Emerson, Alcott, Holmes, and Beecher. But the compiler does not seem to have met with the books on reading prepared by Bishop Potter, President Porter, and Mr. F. B. Perkins. The little book is vilely bound in a white linen, covered with some palpable white color in fraudulent imitation of the purity of vellum.

The thirty-first volume of *L'Art* (J. W. Bouton) is rather overweighted with the long series of inedited designs by Jean Cousin for Imbert d'Anlezy's 'Liber Fortunæ.' No other feature is so marked. The old masters treated are Rubens (his works in the Louvre), Lucas van Leyden, Luca della Robbia, and Jacob Jordaens—all more or less fully illustrated. The English school are described with numerous portraits and specimens—Madox Brown, Burne Jones, Millais, Leighton, T. Faed, F. Holl, Kate Greenaway, etc. The Salon of 1882 and the Union Centrale des Arts Décoratifs are still further reviewed; and several chapters are devoted to the Museum of Cologne. There are several interesting examples of the Chaldean antiquities in the Louvre, and of the Bulak Museum. M. Plon vindicates Benvenuto Cellini for his importunities in the matter of pay for his "Perseus." Champfleury returns to a subject he had already touched with a light hand in *Le Livre*—the types and manner of the designers of the Romantic vignettes. Most interesting is a newly-discovered head of Henri IV. at twenty, among the portraits in the National Library. As usual, the volume is lavishly provided with full-page etchings. A human as well as an artistic interest attaches to the domestic scene entitled "Camille Desmoulins."

It is pleasant to see in a French work such faultless spelling of English proper names as may be seen in Prof. W. F. Allen's review of American historical productions in the September-October number of the *Revue Historique* (Paris: Germer Baillière et Cie.)

Apropos of the recent troubles about Parliamentary oaths in Italy, Prof. R. Bonghi has a learned article in the *Nuova Antologia* for December 15. He reviews the cases that have arisen under the English Constitution, including Mr. Bradlaugh's, and in an appendix collects the oaths of various constitutional countries. Though the United States is represented, our "iron-clad oath" is not recorded.

Most annual necrologies will bear correction, and our last was no exception to the rule. It was not Luigi Palmieri, of the Vesuvius Station, who died, but Marino Palmieri, Professor of Physics at Naples.

—The Librarian of the Cincinnati Public Library writes us:

"There are two misstatements of fact in the paragraph in this week's *Nation* upon this Library which you may or not think of sufficient importance to correct. First, the Library has not *abandoned* its plan of publishing class-lists; it has only temporarily *suspended* their issue. Second, the catalogue now being printed is not a dictionary catalogue like the Poole catalogue of 1871. It is called a finding-list, and is more

nearly like that of the Chicago Public Library, issued by Mr. Poole. That is to say, it is a classified list of books, with only the authors, short titles, and numbers given in most cases. The arrangement is by subjects, and about 300 pages are now in print."

—A correspondent writes us, with reference to a recent communication:

"The following is the only example of the use of the word 'lie' with the meaning referred to by 'H. W. H.' that I remember in my reading. In the 'Life of Bishop Wilberforce' there is a letter from the present Bishop of Ely (Dr. Woodford) describing Bishop Wilberforce's examinations for Ordination in which this sentence occurs: 'Hence, in sketching to the candidates, on the first morning, what he called the *lie* "of the day," he always put foremost the hours of prayer and medication' (vol. i., p. 332). The italics of the word 'lie' and the remembrance of the particular phrase show that such a use of the word is uncommon."

—Apropos of the letters we have recently published on archæological exploration in Greece, Mr. William Hyde Appleton writes us from Swarthmore, Pa.:

"But be it observed, with regard to Olympia, that it is not yet two years since the Germans left the place. The antiquities are for the most part housed and on exhibition. I visited Olympia last May, and feel amply rewarded for some little inconvenience suffered on the journey. I received from Mr. Demetriades, the Curator of the museums, a most cordial reception, though a stranger to him and unprovided with a single letter of introduction. During the two or three days of my stay he gave me every attention, and furnished me with every facility in his power for the prosecution of my studies. As regards the deficiencies at Olympia and elsewhere, I agree with your correspondent that 'it is less the will to remedy this state of things that is wanting to the Society than the resources, where there is so much to do.' These resources, too, may at any moment be augmented, for a long chapter might be written upon the benefactions of wealthy Greeks to their country. Indeed, I was told at Olympia that money either had already been given, or was about to be given, by a private individual for the very object in question—the erection at that place of a suitable museum building."

—The *Atlantic* for February contains an article on "Stage Rosalinds," by Mr. Richard Grant White, which those who are interested in the Shaksperian stage, including Mrs. Langtry and her critics, will find well worth reading. *Rosalind* is a part which every well-advertised female star takes as a matter of course, just as every male star takes *Hamlet*. There is, however, a vast deal more latitude allowed actors in the way of putting *Hamlet* on the stage than actresses appear to have in *Rosalind*. Indeed, every new actor is at liberty to get up, as far as he has ingenuity for such a task, a *Hamlet* of his own. Booth's *Hamlet* differs widely from McCullough's, and Fechter's was different from both. A great part of the entertainment in the case of any new actor who takes the part consists, at least for old play-goers, in the fact that the performance is sure to be full of surprises to them, both as to conception of the character, the text, and finally the make-up and dress. In "As You Like It," however, notwithstanding its great popularity, all actresses still perform and dress the part of *Rosalind* very much alike, and Mr. White declares that they dress it all wrong. To put his criticism in a very few words, *Rosalind* is a woman passing herself off as a young man, and for a considerable period of time, and under a variety of circumstances, completely deceiving a man madly in love with her as to her identity and sex. The stage *Rosalind*, as we know her, however, dresses so that the most casual observer sees at once that she is a woman masquerading in male attire. She ought, according to Mr. White, to be dressed as men were in Shakspere's time—*i. e.*, in a doublet and trunk hose; the doublet being a short jacket, and the hose being stuffed out, as we see in pictures of the time, so as to entirely destroy the outline of the figure below the waist. With high boots, a coarse russet cloak, and a black felt hat with a feather, *Rosalind* could easily make up so as to deceive *Orlando*. According to the text, she should also "smirch" her face with "a kind of umber," and, at any rate, she ought to use some preparation for making it masculine and unrecognizable to *Orlando*. But Mr. White perceives clearly enough why it is that his suggestions are not likely to find much favor on the stage. *Rosalind* has become a popular part for pretty actresses, in great measure because it gives them a chance of exhibiting their personal attractions of face and figure as few other parts do. But if they had to disguise both during the greater part of the play, what would there be left? Nothing but an opportunity for good acting of a beautiful play, which, insinuates our critic, is not what our leading actresses care about, or the public cares to have them care about. Prof. G. L. Woodberry has an article on Landor, and he gives a very intelligible explanation of some of the reasons why he is a favorite with critics, and anything but a favorite with the public at large. The second part of Longfellow's "Michael Angelo" and another instalment of "The Ancestral Footstep" lend considerable literary interest to the February *Atlantic*.

—The "Midwinter" *Century* has an article on the "Evils of our Land Policy," by Mr. Edward T. Peters, who endeavors to show that the railroad land-grant system, supplemented by the "bonanza" farm system, is stimulating an unhealthy agricultural development in the far West, and in some of his facts he is corroborated by Mr. E. V. Smalley in a paper on "Features of the New Northwest." Mr. Smalley's list of "queer names" in Northwestern geography, including such designations as Needy, Glad Tidings, Sublimity, Hardscrabble, Humbug, Louse Creek, Whiskytown, Jump-off-Joe Creek, shows that the reaction against the classical system which gave us in this State Rome, Utica, Syracuse, Troy, and so on, has gone to the extreme of naturalism, and, indeed, from a case like that of Eltopia (said to be a euphemism for an earlier "Hell-to-Pay") a tendency toward a reaction of a certain sort may be inferred. In defence of the land monopolist or "bonanza" farmer, of whom both Mr. Peters and Mr. Smalley fall foul, it may be said that, for the rapid settlement of the public lands, the concentration of large tracts in single hands was a necessity; that if it had been prevented, the process must have been very slow, and to go back now is out of the question; and also that the large holdings will inevitably be broken up into smaller farms as fast as cultivation on a smaller scale becomes profitable. The whole development of the Northwest, as shown by Mr. Smalley himself, reverses what we are accustomed to regard as the order of nature. Roads are made not to provide for the necessities of an existing population, but before there is any population to use them; towns do not grow up from a previous development of the country at large, but are created in advance of the rural population or the appearance of a diversified industry. In the same way the "bonanza" farmer appears first, and opens the way for the small capitalist, the honest yeoman, who in theory ought to precede him, if not prevent his appearance. Miss Emma Lazurus writes on the "Jewish Problem," and strongly advocates the return of the Jews to Palestine, or some national reëstablishment of that sort. The Palestine scheme, however, seems to be entirely abandoned for the present, and we know of no practical plan that has taken its place. Anything which would save the Jews from such persecution as they are still subjected to in many parts of the world, would be gladly welcomed by most Christians; but the idea of a people of the Jews' very cosmopolitan habits and pursuits being gathered together in any one place, and settling there to build up a country, is a difficult one to conceive of as actually practicable. Mr. Cushing's interesting "Adventures in Zuñi" are continued, with some curious illustrations of Zuñi religious performances, and Mr. Howells begins a new novel, called "A Woman's Reason," the opening chapters of which are very pleasant reading. The illustrated articles are all well worth looking at, and the poetry is better than the average. "A Reception by President Lincoln," by C. Van Santvoord, is one of those pictures of the *curia Presidentis* in the time of the Rebellion which now have a real historical value. Mr. Stedman, by the way, has a poem called "The Constant Heart," in which he defies spelling reform.

—In *Harper's*, Mr. Herbert Tuttle has an article on "German Political Leaders." Being illustrated, it shows us what sort of faces many politicians have with whose names we enjoy a cable acquaintance, besides giving some account of their careers and opinions. To the average Anglo-Saxon reader the article will be an awful revelation of his complete ignorance of German politics, and suggest what a godsend Bismarck has been in making him feel for the time as if he were really quite at home in them. Mr. John Fiske writes instructively about "Maryland and the far South in the Colonial Period," and Mr. Robinson, the author of 'Under the Sun,' which was reviewed in these columns not long ago, contributes an article on "Our Birds and Poets," in which he maintains that American poetry, in its treatment of birds, "is characterized by a tenderness that in the same degree is quite foreign to the poets of the Old World." This he attributes to several causes—among others unfamiliarity with "classical fancies" and prejudices on the subject of birds, and a national intolerance of prejudice of all kinds. He seems to assume it as proved that the world before the rise of American literature was "down" on birds. While we sympathize with them as they ought to be sympathized with, we should doubt very much whether the influences which Mr. Robinson mentions as having produced a tenderness for birds in this country have not exerted fully as much force in England. If, however, our poets are more sympathetic with birds than their congeners on the other side of the water, it may be perhaps owing to the same general cause that has made our artists take so kindly to landscape painting, and this is probably very difficult to ascertain. That the American imagination in general does turn with a delicate sympathy to nature in all its aspects is, we fancy, true; certainly many pages from Emerson, Hawthorne, Whittier, Lowell, Bryant, and Longfellow might be produced to prove it. A general tendency of this sort would make a sympathetic treatment of birds as one manifestation of it seem antecedently probable. The second part of "Artist Strolls in Holland," by Mr. Boughton, and "The Local Associations of Whittier's Poems," by Mr. George M. White, are illustrated articles of some permanent value, and the latter contains some entertaining specimens of Whittier's conversation. There is not apt to be much critical discussion in *Harper's*, outside of the "Easy Chair," in which post of observation Mr. Curtis this month draws a lesson from Anthony Trollope's career. It is one which the literary Bohemian never likes to hear, for it tells him that Bohemianism is not only, as it always has been, unprofitable and disreputable, but that it is "played out"; that literature has

become a regular profession in which, to succeed, you must work steadily and with regularity, just as you would if you were a physician or a lawyer. We may suggest, in addition to what he says on this subject, that as long as most literary men were Bohemians, and lived from hand to mouth, success was determined purely by talent or genius; but now that writers are able by steady occupation to earn a respectable livelihood, the man of genius or talent may provide himself for his struggle with his rivals with a little capital; and a man of middling talent, with capital and the sense of confidence that capital gives, will often beat a seedy Bohemian of genius hard pressed by creditors and other natural enemies. This at least is a view that Darwinians may take of the subject.

—The annual report of President Eliot of Harvard for the year 1881–82 does not lack the customary interest which these documents possess for other similar institutions and for the public at large. Parents everywhere are concerned to know that the graduates of other colleges are coming in increasing numbers to Harvard to obtain the degree of A.B., and are welcomed and considerately treated; that special students who have had no regular college training are likewise on the increase, owing to the facilities extended to them and the rank and honors allowed them according to their merit, and that the President is anxious to have scholarships provided for them; and that recent concessions enable students to shorten the college term one year by more thorough previous preparation. So every college faculty must feel the force of Harvard's example in assuming "for the first time a direct responsibility for the character and extent" of athletic exercises, prohibiting games with professional clubs, allowing no student to engage in an athletic contest except upon a certificate of the director of the gymnasium, or to belong to a boat's crew unless he knows how to swim, etc. Nor will the experiment of morning prayers *after* breakfast be overlooked, especially since the President vouches for the present service as being "impressive, edifying, and interesting," whereas the superseded service in the early morning before breakfast was notoriously the reverse. Then, again, the Divinity School is to turn away all candidates not bachelors of arts or capable of passing a satisfactory examination in the Greek and Latin classics and the Greek of the Gospels; and its professional equipment and instruction tend toward enabling young men to "study theology as they do metaphysics, political economy, or zoölogy," without first binding themselves to any theory or creed. The Corporation and Board of Overseers have shown themselves during the year less liberal than the College Faculty—the one having rejected a proposal to make attendance at prayers voluntary, the other having sided with the Medical Faculty in postponing, if not disapproving, an attempt to secure medical instruction for women by means of a fund raised outside the University. As usual, every department would be thankful for larger endowments; but the Bussey Institution and the Dental School are almost pathetic instances of neglect, and are maintained solely by faith and self-abnegation on the part of the instructors.

—Some months ago Dr. George J. Romanes, F.R.S., published an article on "The Scientific Evidences of Organic Evolution" in the *Fortnightly Review*, which was fully endorsed as an epitome of his theories by the late Mr. Darwin, who urged the writer to give it a more permanent form. It has accordingly been issued by Macmillan & Co. as one of the "Nature Series" of scientific treatises, with some additions and alterations, and may now be said to be one of the best, if not the best, summary of the modern scientific gospel accessible to the reader who lacks time to read more extensive works, but who wishes to know what are the beliefs of the best-informed naturalists of the day and the principal reasons for their beliefs. The evidence for the evolution of higher from lower forms of life is cumulative. The sciences of geology, morphology, zoölogical topography, embryology, etc., each provide strong support for Darwin's general theory, but together they present a body of proof irresistible to an educated mind. Mr. Romanes devotes a brief chapter to each of these sciences; and besides naming some of the positive considerations, he strengthens his cause by showing, negatively, how the old theory of special creations ends in contradictions, complications, and constant *reductio ad absurdum*. "To withhold assent," he says in conclusion, "from so vast a body of evidence is token not of intellectual prudence, but of intellectual incapacity. With Professor Huxley, therefore, I exclaim, 'Choose your hypothesis; I have chosen mine,' and 'I refuse to run the risk of insulting any sane man by supposing that he seriously holds such a notion' as that of special creation."

—We spoke the other day, on the authority of M. Ulbach, of the improvements made lately in Amsterdam. Mlle. Marguerite Van de Wiele has written a letter from Brussels recording the changes which her native city has undergone. In her girlhood it was a city of gardens. Even in the business quarters, even in the most crowded streets, one might come across great shady stretches of green, often the relics of old convents; for in the Middle Ages almost the whole city seems to have belonged to convents, monasteries, nunneries, of Carmelites, Bogards, Benedictines, Visitandines, Béguines, Ursulines. Their lands occupied whole blocks, when cross-streets were further apart than they are now; but they have gradually been cut up and parcelled out. The National Bank has taken one, business houses have extended over others, and now the last one is to disappear to give place to a Palace of the Thousand and One Nights, something like the Parisian Edens, apparently, a theatre devoted to "leg" pieces, where magnificent shows and a *corps de ballet* of ravishing beauty will render good acting quite unnecessary. If it is so, the gardens will be revenged some time, for the Palace will certainly burn down, as the Alhambra did the other night. It is pleasant to hear that with these new buildings Brussels is not losing all the charm of antiquity. There is a certain antiquarian spirit there which is very proud of the Flemish houses, each with its façade ornamented with the form of some animal—fox, wolf, stag, lion, as it may be. They care so much for the architectural beauty of the city that the authorities some time ago, during the building of the new boulevards, offered a prize of $4,000 for the most artistic façade that should be erected—something of a contrast to American building committees, who appear to expect to get good designs for a statue, a monument, or a public building by offering prizes of two or three hundred dollars. The successful façade at Brussels is one of the boasts of the city. Its animal is the cat, and its motto, "Hier is't in den kater en de kat."

—M. Louis Olivier describes in the *Revue Scientifique* for December 23 Professor Marey's modification of the method of instantaneous photography, which renders the process more easily applicable to the study of animal locomotion. The principal objection to the use of the camera as employed by Muybridge is the expense, since it is necessary to have a separate instrument for every attitude to be photographed. In Professor Marey's method, a disc with a slot in the edge rotates in front of a single camera. The figure to be photographed, clothed entirely in white, moves in front of a black background, toward which the camera is directed. Whenever the slot in the revolving disc comes opposite the lens of the camera, a picture of the moving object is obtained. The plate thus shows a series of figures representing successive attitudes of the man or animal passing in front of the camera. If the figure simply alters its attitude without locomotion, as in the case of a man boxing or fencing, it is of course necessary to give the plate a lateral movement in order to prevent the superposition of the successive pictures. The black background necessary for these experiments is secured by means of a screen, sloping toward the back and painted black on its lower surface, the ground under it being also covered with a black carpet. A piece of chalk thrown through the air in front of this dark cavity leaves its impression as a white line on the sensitive plate of a camera directed toward it. It is not improbable that astronomers may employ this method in studying the flight of meteors.

—A more enjoyable concert has not been heard in this city for a long time than that which was given at Steinway Hall on Thursday afternoon as the third of Mr. Tretbar's popular matinées. The audience was much larger than on the two previous occasions, which tends to show that if these matinées are only continued long enough, they will in course of time become as great a necessity and as popular as the Philharmonic concerts. Dvořák's new overture, "My Home," Wagner's "Siegfried Idyl," and the ballet music from one of Rubinstein's operas, were the orchestral pieces executed under Mr. Thomas's direction. The Dvořák overture, which is fresh from the press, is based on two Bohemian folk-songs, one of which, "Kde domóv muj?" (Where is my home?) has furnished the title for the piece. The themes are interesting, well developed and contrasted, and effectively orchestrated. As far as our experience goes, it seems to us to be the best of the sixty-two works hitherto published by Dvořák. The "Siegfried Idyl" is well known here, but it may not be generally known that its leading theme, which recurs again and again, is taken from the third act of "Siegfried," where it forms part of the long duet between *Siegfried* and *Brünnhilde*. Its treatment there and in the "Idyl" gives evidence of Wagner's marvellous skill in presenting a theme from every possible point of view, and in a kaleidoscopic variety of colors. It was well received by the audience, as was also the ballet music from one of Rubinstein's operas, surely the loveliest ballet music that has ever been written.

BANCROFT'S CENTRAL AMERICA.

The Works of Hubert Howe Bancroft. Volume Sixth. *History of Central America.* Vol. i., 1501–1530. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. 1882.

Mr. Morison, in his clever estimate of Macaulay, in the series of "English Men of Letters," says that "it is perhaps a low-minded objection to Macaulay's conception of history to remark that its application to lengthy periods is a physical impossibility. . . . If his plan had been carried out, it would have required fifty volumes, if not more." Evidently such an objection as this has caused no anxiety to Mr. Bancroft, when he first thought of "throwing himself into the arduous but fascinating tasks of authorship." His gigantic scheme of literary labor contemplates the production of not less than *thirty-nine* volumes, of which the six that have already ap-

peared average fully seven hundred pages each. We shudder at the prospect before the "world of readers" of the next generation on the Pacific slope; for it is not "an encyclopædia"—which was Mr. Bancroft's first idea—but "history which he has seated himself to write": 'A History of the Pacific States of North America.' Hitherto such portentous collections of volumes have been styled "materials," or "memoirs," or "documents for the service" of the historian, in whose deep abysses he is supposed to mine for the precious ore which is to be wrought into a harmonious and beautiful work of art. But this is not Mr. Bancroft's idea of a history. Evidently he prides himself upon his condensation within the limits of thirty-nine volumes, as he says, "it would have been far easier and cheaper to have sent a hundred volumes through the press."

Plainly he could have had nobody but himself in mind when he penned these words. Where, may we venture to inquire, does he expect to find readers in this brief life, or purchasers of his costly volumes in "this working-day world"? The method by which he has undertaken to produce such an enormous quantity of printed matter he has explained very lucidly. It may be compared in some respects to the manner of obtaining and tabulating information practised by "commercial agencies," with whose processes, doubtless, the author is more familiar than with the training and mental habitudes of historical students. It is by "the employment of assistants to bring together, by indices, references, and other devices, all existing testimony on each topic to be treated." To be sure, he admits that "completeness of evidence by no means insures a wise decision." But from the manner in which the hosts of "authorities" are marshalled by this joint-stock literary enterprise, it would appear that for them "A book's a book, although there's nothing in't." To us it appears very much as if a desire to gain some of the "cheap notoriety" which Mr. Bancroft courteously imputes as a motive to those whose judgment happens to differ from his own respecting the credibility of the early Spanish chroniclers, inspired the printing of the list of "authorities quoted"—some fifty pages in length. If his object were, as he says, "to impart a certain bibliographic value to his work," why is no notice taken of the only bibliography of the subject that has ever been attempted? We refer to the modest, but accurate and sensible, 'Notes on the Bibliography of Yucatan and Central America,' by Mr. Bandelier, published in the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society for October, 1880. Yet a slight comparison of the two lists reveals many deficiencies in the portentous array of thirty thousand volumes given by Mr. Bancroft, among which figure such "authorities" as Captain Marryatt's veracious 'Narrative of the Travels of Mons. Violet,' by the side of every speech ever made in Congress upon the Mexican boundary question, and the learned tomes of *Graham's*, *Harper's*, and *Scribner's* magazines. Long as the list is, an habitual searching of ordinary sale catalogues of "Americana" would supply many a missing volume. But the writers most "conspicuous by their absence" from his library are the recent and contemporary workers in the field of early American history, ethnology, and antiquities. We miss the names of Morgan and Powell, of Bandelier and Valentini, of Rau and Putnam, of Short and Brinton, among Americans, as well as of Bastian and Léon de Rosny and Lucien Adam, in Europe—to say nothing of the scholars of Mexico and Yucatan. Does Mr. Bancroft regard such writers as these as "knowing little either of the Mexicans or their conquerors," worthy of being classed, to use his own civil language, "among those who seek fame through foolishness"? It is plain that something more than negligence or oversight has occasioned such hiatuses in a literary apparatus made at a cost of half-a-million of dollars. It is evidence of a set purpose to ignore the opinions and conclusions of the men who have labored to do away with the reproach that has so long attached to the phrase "American archæology." But it is an ostrich-like sagacity that supposes such writers as these are not read, even if their names are not to be found upon a list of "authorities quoted."

Nevertheless, we do not mean to imply that this volume and its predecessors upon 'The Native Races of the Pacific States' do not possess many and great merits; and we cannot express too strongly our admiration for the man who has seriously taken in hand such an unprecedented task. With no special preparation or aptitude for this work, and with merely the training which a successful career in business had given him, he has manifested such a love of knowledge for its own sake, such a spirit of self-sacrifice for the future benefit of the community in which he has lived and accumulated his fortune, such energy and pluck and persistency, as justly entitle him to the respect and gratitude of his contemporaries, and insure his perpetual remembrance by posterity. Single-handed, he has attempted and has accomplished a feat which the oldest historical society in the land, with its lifetime of nearly a century, and its membership embracing the most scholarly and industrious workers of each generation, would be proud to have achieved. Alone he has amassed the library, gathered the manuscript material, and erected the building to preserve for posterity the muniments of the history of a large section of our common country. But all this public spirit and energy, with all its attendant success, do not necessarily afford any assurance of his fitness for the task of writing history; and we believe he will never find an imitator of his truly original device of seeing with other men's eyes, and thinking with other men's minds, as a special preparation for historical investigation.

But we will let our author describe for himself some of the feelings with which he has approached his herculean task, merely premising that, so far as our knowledge extends, their like has never before been exhibited except by certain compilers of American town and county histories:

"We of this new Western development are not disposed to exalt brute battling over-much." "Events pure and simple are by no means more important than the institutionary development which they cause or accompany." "We hear much of the philosophy of history, of the science and signification of history; but there is only one way to write anything, which is to tell the truth plainly and concisely." "The exact historian [must not forget that] the actions of men are governed by proximate states of mind, and these are generated both from antecedent states of mind and antecedent states of body, influenced by social and natural environments." "As to the relative importance of early history here and elsewhere, it is premature for any now living to judge." "It is historical barbarism, of which the Homeric poems and Carlovingian tales not alone are guilty, to throw the masses into the background, or wholly to ignore them." "The historian should be able to analyze and to generalize; yet his path leads not alone through the enticing fields of speculation, nor is it his only province to pluck the fruits and flowers of philosophy, or to blow brain-bubbles and weave theorems."

This is not precisely the tone of thought or style of language of "Macaulay and Motley, Froude, Freeman, Prescott, and Irving," whose works Mr. Bancroft acknowledges to be "wonderful in their way," which his readers will find to be a very different way from his own. But it evidently is a crude echo of the half-comprehended thoughts of the "scientific school" of historians of the present century. Of them it has been well said that their principles teach that "the past ought to be examined, not for artistic purposes, in order to compose graceful narratives; not for political purposes, in order to find materials for party warfare; not for theoretical purposes, in order to construct specious, but ephemeral, philosophies of history; but simply for accurate and verifiable knowledge." For them, "simple, unornate statements of the results obtained is the only style of treatment consonant with the dignity of genuine inquiry." Judged by such standards as these, we are forced to pronounce the results of our author's labors not altogether a success. We do not always find the knowledge "accurate and verifiable," and his "style of treatment" can scarcely be called "simple and unornate." Such flowers of rhetoric as—"slowly rattles along the dim present, well-nigh buried in its own dust," or, "a varied experience arising from a nearer contact with progressional events," or, "societies formed on one skeleton, a most earthy, red, and ignoble one," "self-begettings of enlightenment," "wavy grain supplanting the tangled wild-wood," and "gardens materialized from the mirage," are scattered through the work with far too lavish a hand. Why the author should wander back through the ages to inform his readers that to the right of sanctuary is to be "attributed in a measure the existence, or at least the importance of Athens and Thebes," after he had traversed in his own fashion the whole field of sixteenth-century civilization and sociology in his introductory chapter, we fail to comprehend. As for his literary judgments pronounced upon the merits and qualities of the eminent writers who have treated of the same period of history, they seem to us as remarkable specimens of the "impudently absurd" as any *jugement saugrenu* noted by Matthew Arnold:

"Mr. Irving has been praised for his genial manner, his gentleness of thought, and his charming style. . . . Among these is found his highest merit; and yet one would sometimes wish him not quite so meritorious. Elegance and grace eternal tire by their very faultlessness. He is too wordy; his details too long-drawn." . . . "Prescott was a more exact writer than Irving, though Prescott was not wholly above the amiable weakness of his time. In the main he stated the truth, and he stated it fairly, though he did not always tell the whole truth. He would fain please the Catholics, if it did not cost him too much."

What Mr. Bancroft's estimate of Mr. Helps may be, we are not informed; but of Robertson we are told that "although his statements are full of errors, intensified by dogmatism, but for which he cannot always be blamed, all who have come after him have profited by his writings." It would be fortunate if as much could be said of all historians, our author included.

Yet, despite such faults of temper and treatment, which may be accounted for, if not condoned, by reason of his antecedents and his surroundings, and making fair allowance for the state of mental isolation from criticism and suggestion in which the work has been produced, we must pronounce our judgment to be that Mr. Bancroft has given to the world a very valuable repertory of information, a most useful assistance for all who would attempt to master the details of the history of the period it covers. We wish, however, most sincerely that he had been content to confine himself to the laborious task of gathering and preserving the materials of history, leaving it for his successors to embody in a literary form the fruits of his toil. But it would seem as if such continence were scarcely possible for human nature, so prone are men to attempt tasks beyond their powers,

as has been more than once manifested in the kindred field of classical archæology.

The grave fault of the work is, that it endeavors to perpetuate erroneous ideas about the condition of the inhabitants of this continent at the time of the Spanish Conquest. The author has deliberately chosen to adopt the "romances" of the old chroniclers and the "dreams" of Stephens, in the very face of all the evidence of modern criticism and of recent exploration. He still stands out stoutly for an "Aztec empire" and a "Maya civilization," with the easy credulity of an earlier age. On this point he must be allowed to speak for himself:

"There was little in the social or political systems of Europe of which the counterpart could not be found in America, . . . and there were institutions then existing in America at whose feet Europe might have sat with benefit. . . . Every quality and grade of government presents itself, until full-blown monarchy is attained, where a sole sovereign becomes an emperor of nations with a state and severity equal to that of the most enlightened. . . . Like their cousins of Spain and England, the sovereigns of Mexico had their elaborate palaces with magnificent surroundings, their country residence, and their hunting-grounds, their botanical and zoölogical gardens. . . . There were aristocratic and knightly orders, nobles, plebeians, and slaves, pontiffs and priesthoods, land tenures and taxation, seminaries of learning and systems of education, . . . laws and law courts of various grades, and councils and tribunals of various kinds; military orders, with drill, engineer corps, arms, and fortifications; commerce, caravans, markets, merchants, peddlers, and commercial fairs, with a credit system and express and postal facilities. . . . Their medical faculty and systems of surgery they had; . . . also their literati, scholars, orators, and poets; with an arithmetical system, a calendar, a knowledge of astronomy, hieroglyphic books, chronological records, public libraries, and national archives."

All this we are gravely asked to believe of a race who possessed no written language or what can properly be styled an alphabet; who were still in the period of transition from the "stone" to the "bronze" age, not having yet even learned the use of beasts of burden; and whose fabulous "Seven Cities of Cibola" have been plainly identified with the Zuñi pueblos, whose mysteries and traditions we are in a fair way of penetrating through the self-sacrificing devotion to science of Mr. Cushing and his wife. But this is far from being all that Mr. Bancroft has to tell us about the "Aztec civilization." "The conquerors, when they entered the country, examined with admiration the manufactures of gold, silver, copper, tin, and lead, wrought to exquisite patterns with surprising skill." But he has nothing to say about "iron," which is generally regarded as the keystone of modern civilization. "They gazed with astonishment on huge architectural piles, on monumental remains speaking louder than words; on temples, causeways, fountains, aqueducts, and lighthouses, surrounded as they were with statues and intricate and costly stone carvings." Pray, what has become of all these marvels of a civilization worthy to be compared with that of Europe, over which the chroniclers so gloat? Where are to be found the ruins of these "architectural piles"? After the lapse of more than two thousand years, we still have the exquisite productions of the ancient Greek goldsmiths, preserved in the grave-mounds of the semi-civilized monarchs of the Thracian Chersonesus, to delight our eyes in the Museum of the Hermitage at St. Petersburg. What Spanish museum or collection, what monastery or palace has its specimens to show of the pretended equally marvellous workmanship of the Mexican jewellers? Does any one believe that such wonders of skill and beauty and costliness as the chroniclers prate about would not have been transmitted to their sovereigns by the conquerors, as the surest possible means of winning or retaining their favor? Where are all those marvels now? Have they all vanished in less than four centuries? Why does the soil of Mexico now never give up something worthy of its "ancient civilization," as well as that of Greece, or of Turkey, or of Africa? Who has ever seen anything that can properly be called a work of art that was indigenous to this continent? After all that has been said, the vaunted carvings and statues, the "Chac-Mool" and the "Indio Triste," are nothing more than the uncouth, realistic work of half-barbarians. What is their architecture more than a piling up of stones shaped by mere "rule of thumb"? We could scarcely hope to have better proof of the relative position of the ancient Mexicans in the scale of humanity than is afforded by the truthful portraits of them that have lately been disinterred, moulded upon their rude vessels of clay. He must be a very prejudiced partisan who can discover in these any higher type of race than was presented by the faces of the Zuñi chiefs whom we have so recently seen. No; it is all a myth that is told about an ancient Aztec "civilization," if the word be understood in any legitimate signification.

Mr. Bancroft is a stickler for facts. He believes that "the highest delight of a healthy mind, of a mind not diseased either by education or affection, is in receiving the truth." We wish he had been willing to manifest a little more of this spirit by admitting facts like these, which ought to be perfectly well known to him, after the years he has spent in the study of the remains of "the native races." But he prefers to pin his faith upon the exaggerated descriptions, the extravagances, and the wholesale fabrications of the Spanish chroniclers, whose impossibilities and inconsistencies have been so often pointed out in wearisome detail. We recommend to his careful consideration Bacon's favorite maxim of Heraclitus, the Profound, "The dry light is the best soul."

MRS. CHILD'S LETTERS.

Letters of Lydia Maria Child. With a Biographical Introduction by John G. Whittier, and an Appendix by Wendell Phillips. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE opening letter in this collection, written at the age of fifteen, at once introduces the reader to a mind of unusual precocity. From few girls of that age do we expect such facility of expression (to say no more) as is displayed in the following lines from Miss Francis to her brother Convers (June 5, 1817):

"I have been busily engaged in reading 'Paradise Lost.' Homer hurried me along with rapid impetuosity; every passion that he portrayed I felt: I loved, hated, and resented just as he inspired me! But when I read Milton, I felt elevated 'above this visible diurnal sphere.' I could not but admire such astonishing grandeur of description, such heavenly sublimity of style. I never read a poem that displayed a more prolific fancy, or a more vigorous genius. But don't you think that Milton asserts the superiority of his own sex in rather too lordly a manner? Thus, when Eve is conversing with Adam, she is made to say—

"'My author and disposer, what thou bid'st,'" etc.

In another respect this letter is as characteristic of the writer as any in the book. It shows the intensity of her attractions, and her extraordinary capacity for sympathizing with that which for the time being absorbed her. Her correspondence abounds in superlative judgments on men who excited her admiration, beginning with her future husband. Thus, in her journal: "January 26, 1825. Saw Mr. Child at Mr. Curtis's. He is the most gallant man that has lived since the sixteenth century, and needs nothing but helmet shield, and chain armor to make him a complete knight of chivalry." So of Theodore Parker, and others. The young girl whose passions were so played upon by the blind bard is as susceptible as ever (without having forgot her Milton) at fifty-four:

"The outrage upon Charles Sumner [1856] made me literally ill for several days. It brought on nervous headache and painful suffocations about the heart. If I could only have done something, it would have loosened that tight ligature that seemed to stop the flowing of my blood. But I never was one who knew how to serve the Lord by standing and waiting; and to stand and wait then! It almost drove me mad."

And at fifty-eight (Sept 20, 1860):

"It seems as if slavery would be the death of me. If all I suffer on the subject counts as vicarious atonement for the slaveholders, they are in a hopeful way. My indignation rises higher than it used to in my younger days. According to the general rule, I ought to grow calmer, but I do not. If the monster had one head, assuredly I should be a Charlotte Corday."

Her husband's opinion of her—"David thinks I am preëminently distinguished for the supremacy of heart over head; that I am almost ridiculously a woman in my affections"—was perfectly just. The heartiness of Mrs. Child, in actual intercourse as in these letters, was more conspicuous than intellectual superiority, which nevertheless cannot be denied her, even if she could not lay claim to great originality. It is impossible not to warm to a nature like that displayed in her unaffected accounts of her endless labors in behalf of the poor, the oppressed, the repentant. Now it is a story that must be written for bleeding Kansas, and that being off her hands she feels bound to "stir up the women here to do something" for the emigrants in that distracted Territory; so begs a piece of cheap calico of Charles Hovey, "he himself deeming that money and energy had better be expended on the immediate abolition of slavery, and dissolution of the Union if that could not be soon brought about," but she not thinking it best to wait for either of these events before she made up the cloth, as cold weather was coming on. At the same time, "it seemed as if my heart would burst if I could not do something to help on the election [of Fremont]. But all I could do was to write a song for the Free-Soil men. . . . I have been told that the Boston *Post* was down upon me for the verse about President Pierce. I couldn't help it. His name would not rhyme to anything but curse!" Later we see her ransoming the fugitive Sims by her own efforts, obtaining the required sum of U. S. Marshal (afterward Major-General and Attorney-General) Devens, who had executed Sims's return to slavery. In the early days of the war she prompts Whittier to write an abolition song for an army not yet consciously one of liberation; then betakes herself to knitting for the army, and giving lavishly of her scanty means for the "contrabands." After the draft riots in New York, she turns back a gift of two hundred dollars, that it may swell the fund for the relief of the colored victims of that ferocity. In her will she leaves an annuity to the aged drunkard whom she reformed (herself being seventy-two) and took into her service as her "man Friday."

We get glimpses of her love of music, of pictures, of flowers, of the rainbow. We see the merry twinkle in her eye when she retorts to Mrs. Senator Mason, of Virginia: "I have never known an instance where the 'pangs of maternity' did not meet with the requisite assistance; and here at the North, after we have helped the mothers, *we do not sell the babies.*" Or when she quotes Edmund Quincy's ready reply to her saying (1863) she had never "seen the hand of Providence so signally manifested as in the events of

this war [of the Rebellion]," "Well, Mrs. Child, when the job is done up, I hope it will prove creditable to Providence." A woman who worked hard and cheerfully with her own hands, Mrs. Child could leave her work "in the midst," and sit down "with a dirty gown and hands somewhat grimmed," and be "high up in the blue in fifteen minutes" with a Transcendentalist clergyman. "I defy all the powers of earth and hell," she says, "to make me [*i. e.*, 'the case containing me'] scour floors and feed pigs, if I choose meanwhile to be off conversing with the angels." And again, at sixty:

"I have a great many questions laid up to ask Plato when I see him. He has been at the high school so long, he must know a great deal. . . . My soul goes about 'pervading' all departments of the universe, 'wanting to know'; and the only answer I get is, 'Go about your business.' So I go about it. I have just done fifteen pair of mittens and three pair of socks for the Kansas troops. I can trust them never to surrender a fugitive slave; so I work for them with a will."

The revolt of woman indicated in our first extract does not furnish the keynote of Mrs. Child's correspondence. Hardly more than once does it recur, even incidentally, and then in a sober letter to Senator Sumner contending for woman suffrage. Her great cause was abolition. Still, her private thought was ever by choice on matters spiritual, and her most representative work is perhaps not her famous 'Appeal in behalf of that class of Americans called Africans' (1833), but her more voluminous and laborious 'Progress of Religious Ideas' (1855). She was nearly, as her 'Letters from New York' (not, of course, included in the present collection) show, a convert to Swedenborgianism, and never quite lost her drawing toward it as toward Fourierism. She longed to her latest day for a creed, and could never bind herself to any. Some of the most forcible passages in the letters now published relate to the subject of religion:

"Did you see Mr. H——'s sermon, preached soon after his return from Palestine? He thinks the truth of the Bible is proved by the fact that Jordan is still flowing, and the Mount of Olives still standing. He says his faith was greatly strengthened by a sight of them. By the same token he ought to consider Grecian mythology proved because Olympus and Parnassus are still standing; and a sight of them ought to strengthen his faith in Jupiter and the Muses" (1856, p. 93).

"I opine that we have nothing to do with the question whether the views that seem to us true can meet the wants of the 'ignorant, silly, sensuous, suffering masses.' . . . The Italian peasant woman is doubtless comforted by praying to a doll dressed up in tinsel, which she worships as the 'Mother of God.' I would not, if I had the power, make it illegal for her to comfort herself in that way; but shall I refrain from philosophic utterance lest it should make her doll fall out of its shrine? The doll will not and cannot fall so long as the 'ignorant, sensuous, suffering masses' have need of her. The work that needs to be done is to bring the world into such a state of order that there will be no 'ignorant, sensuous, suffering masses,' and consequently no further use for consecrated dolls" (1873, p. 214).

It cannot be said that with these letters added to the long list of her published works there is any need of a further memorial of Mrs. Child. At the same time, some defects in the editing, which was purely a labor of love, make the work before us, in spite of Mr. Whittier's introduction, an unnecessarily disconnected biography, and even diminish somewhat its value as a contribution to American history. There are apparently a few errors in the dating of letters, and certainly some misplacing, and the time of year, though ascertainable from the context, is not always set down or observed in the arrangement. Some initials have not been explained and are not connected in the index with the full names to which they belong. Certain contemporary allusions, as to 'Sartor Resartus,' the invention of the daguerreotype, the visit of Fanny Elssler, Perfectionism, etc., might have been improved for entertaining foot-notes. Most of all, this work fails to throw light on the problem why so exceptionally gifted a couple as David Lee and Lydia Maria Child did not make more of themselves—if this expression serves to convey the reader's sense of an anti-climax in their public careers. He was a scholar, a classical teacher, a journalist, an able lawyer, at one time a member of the Massachusetts Legislature, an indefatigable writer, who rendered infinite service in unmasking the pro slavery conspiracy which fomented the revolt and subsequent annexation of Texas. She bid fair to be the most popular authoress in America, and her recorded publications show a continuous production of books and pamphlets from 1824 to 1878, ranging from works of the imagination to cookery-books, from New England history to the history of religions, from juvenile periodicals (the first ever established) to political tracts. It is well known that her open association with the abolitionists, following her husband's example, cost her her literary popularity at one blow, and made literary ambition seem despicable to her, though it may be thought strange that the author of 'Hobomok,' 'The Rebels,' and 'Philothea' was not led to produce an anti-slavery romance anticipating 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' This book gives also abundant evidence of straitened circumstances and unrepining toil. It does not show clearly or account for the pause in Mrs. Child's anti-slavery activity between the date of her residence in New York, where she was editing the *National Anti-Slavery Standard*, and the beginning of the civil war on the plains of Kansas, or for Mr. Child's complete withdrawal from an agitation in whose beginning he bore so conspicuous a part. Doubtless his temperament was unpractical in a way in which his wife's, however strong its propensity to "pervade the universe," could never be. They were a very devoted and loving pair, and Mrs. Child's expressions of tenderness for her "mate," from whom she endured long separation without a murmur, are among the pathetic passages in a book generally full of cheer and courage and hopefulness.

Françoise de Rimini dans la légende et dans l'histoire. Par Charles Yriarte. Paris: J. Rothschild. 1 vol. 8vo.

CHARLES YRIARTE has illustrated Italy so charmingly and artistically, that any work of his deserves consideration. The small book before us with the above title, bound in vellum, with illuminated capitals, a vignette of the first design of Ary Scheffer for his famous painting of Francesca di Rimini, and three sketches by Ingres of the tragic episode, looks very inviting, and yet we see no justification for it. When Dante ended this historical episode with the famous line, "Quel giorno più non vi leggemmo avante" ("That day no further did we read therein"), he had said all that needed to be said on the subject. Any further research or hunting up of family records could not add one iota to the historical fact; it could only bring to light the prosaic details of a painful and fatal event to gratify the morbid taste of scandal-lovers.

The story of Francesca di Rimini is so well known that we need not repeat it here. Dante was a contemporary, already a recognized young poet; he may even have known personally Paolo "the handsome" (*il bello*), as all the chroniclers style him, when, in 1283, he was Captain of the People in Florence. Seven years later (1290), when Dante was twenty-five years old, at the very time when he was bewailing the loss of his Beatrice, the tragedy took place, and the report of it spread over Italy. One can imagine the powerful impression it must have left on the mind of Dante, whose sympathy, like that of all other Italian lovers, was entirely with the betrayed girl. During his exile, after wandering for fourteen years from court to court among the Ghibelline chiefs of Italy, Dante was finally invited and received as a guest at Ravenna by the nephew of Francesca, Guido Novello da Polenta, lord of the town, a scholar and a poet, who gave him a house and support for the rest of his life, and, when he died, five years after, buried him with public honors and delivered a long oration over his tomb. Dante, therefore, must have known all the intimate details of the tragic event; he may have heard them from the lips of Guido himself and other members of the family; he may have been shown the very rooms where Francesca was born, where she played as a child, where she married the "handsome" Paolo Malatesta as proxy for his lame, hunchback, one-eyed brother Gianciotto. (Neither M. Yriarte, by the way, nor any of the commentators, have noted this additional physical defect of Gianciotto, nor his cruel, treacherous nature as described in the passage of the xxviiith canto of the 'Inferno,' v. 76–90. "That traitor, who sees with only one eye," therein mentioned, is Gianciotto, the husband of Francesca, though most of the commentators make him a younger brother, Malatestino, which is an error.) Who could imagine, however, that mention of such a scandalous and tragic event would be the poet's way of repaying the hospitality received at the hands of the nearest relative of the murdered girl? Dante, in this episode, showed a poetic daring unexampled in the history of literature; with a touch of his magic wand he exalted the sinner into an ethereal atmosphere of beauty and pathos, yet used the blackness of hell for a background, so as to bring out more vividly the lovely form, "like a lily in the mouth of Tartarus," as Leigh Hunt says. What is still more wonderful, Dante does not in the least deviate from historical truth, but, although mourning with the deepest and most heartfelt sorrow the fate of Francesca, does not excuse her offence, and she is placed among the lost: only divine justice allows her the everlasting companionship of her fellow-sinner, as a compensation for the deception practised upon her and her forced marriage with the cruel and deformed Gianciotto.

There the figures stand. What has M. Yriarte done for them by his historical researches? Nothing authentic that in any way adds to Dante's Francesca, except to bring her down from a lovely poetical figure to the prosaic erring woman we knew before, and whom Dante did not in the least exonerate. *Cui bono*, therefore, to strive to get at the details, and, after all, with the most indifferent success? M. Yriarte begins with a chapter on the political state of Italy, which, though historically interesting, is too large a vestibule for this domestic tragedy, which concerns only two petty lords of small towns, whom history would have forgotten but for the fact that one perpetrated the murder and the other gave hospitality to the poet who immortalized it. He then institutes a minute inquiry into the ages and relationship of the several members of the family, comparing the historical records, none of which, however, add anything of importance to the simple narrative of Dante or Boccaccio. There follows a long discussion as to whether Boccaccio's statement that there had been imprudence, but not criminality, in the intercourse between Francesca and Paolo is historical or not. Boccaccio wrote some eighty years after the event; his authority, therefore, is no better than that of the other chroniclers who related what they had learned from tradition. Silvio Pellico, and after him every other

author who has written a tragedy or libretto of Francesca di Rimini, have followed Boccaccio, changing, however, the character of Gianciotto from that of a cruel and treacherous man into a sort of Italian Othello. The inquiry, therefore, has no positive result. It is also of very little consequence whether the tragedy took place at Rimini or Pesaro—a question to which M. Yriarte devotes unnecessary space. His conclusion is that, "after all, it is in vain that we pile up documents and go back to the original sources to learn whether she was more unfortunate than culpable, and whether she expiated an imprudence or a crime: it is the great poet who remains the great historian." If the poet is the great historian, why not leave the subject where he left it with such admirable delicacy?

Anatomical Technology as Applied to the Domestic Cat. By Burt G. Wilder and Simon H. Gage. A. S. Barnes & Co.

THIS large volume, by two professors of Cornell University, is a valuable addition to the list of scientific text-books. Its principal object is to give careful accounts of the methods most useful in anatomical work, and their application to the cat, as the material supplied to the students for initiatory practice. This topic takes up the bulk of the volume, and is dealt with accurately, thoroughly, and in a sufficiently complete manner. The book contains the best collection of practical descriptions of the manner of preparing bones, preserving soft parts, making injections, etc., with which we are acquainted. The directions for studying the anatomy of the cat are explicit and well arranged. A student who worked through the book, according to the author's intention, in the laboratory, would have a good foundation for more extended study.

In turning over the leaves, one is first struck by the coarseness of the illustrations, which are, however, accurate, and for the most part new. The majority have been manufactured by one of the cheapest and poorest processes now in use, and are marred by singularly awkward lettering. The names are placed directly upon the parts—in itself a good plan, but in these figures unfortunately executed; thus, in carefully-shaded drawings of the muscles, great white blotches are left, upon which the names are inscribed in coarse, misshapen letters. In many cases these blemishes appear like constituent parts of the object, and so confuse the picture that the eye hardly understands it. (See, for instance, fig. 127, of the ear.)

One's attention is also immediately caught by the very numerous new words, *termini technici*, the number and frequency of which give to the book one of its most obvious peculiarities. Many of these terms are entirely new, and a good proportion are odd abbreviations of old terms; thus, *vena cava posterior* has become *post-cava*. The wisdom of coining all these new words to supplant names already familiar to all the scientific world appears to us questionable. The authors seem to have overlooked the sanction of universal usage, for they endeavor to demonstrate the necessity for terminological reform by cataloguing terms not generally accepted, but used by single writers, often little known. There is an ample series of designations which are employed alike by nearly all writers, and it can hardly be considered desirable to cast aside such sanction in order to introduce new or forgotten sets of syllables. Why introduce *meson* and *mesal*, instead of median, when *meson* (in its various combinations) is already used to refer to the middle germ layer, but never to the median plane? We cannot prefer *cephalad* to headwards. In fact, there is a suggestion of pedantry throughout in the tendency to a somewhat Latinized style. "Lay the cat on its back" would have been preferable to the oft-reiterated direction, "Place the cat in a dorsicumbent posture." On the other side, we have to say that a number of useful and commendable terms are proposed, such as *ectal*, *ental*, and others, which might well come into general use.

The chief contents of the volume are gathered into an introduction and eleven chapters. The introduction is strongly flavored with oddity; it deals with the method of reference to publications, the decimal system, zoölogical classification (one page), terminology (twelve pages), definition of terms, the slip system of notes, has two pages of aphorisms, and finally states the authors' reasons for choosing the cat. This is nearly all good, save that it needs great abbreviation. The aphorisms are surprising, to say the least: "Technical terms are the tools of thought" (p. 12); "Correct methods are the keys of knowledge" (p. 52); "Carpenters and tailors do not learn their trades upon rosewood and cloth of gold"; "Fat is the anatomist's worst enemy" (p. 198). The authors have collected three pages of these epigrammatic attempts—we have counted up 65. A livelier sense of humor would have suppressed them. Of the eleven remaining chapters, the first describes the general outfit in apparatus and material; the second gives a general description of the skeleton; the third is devoted to accounts of important methods, which are well selected and written; the fourth returns to osteology in detail; the fifth is myological; the sixth takes up the viscera, and the subsequent chapters the remaining organic systems in succession. The main purpose of the authors is never lost sight of, but, throughout, the text is arranged to train the student how to do anatomical work. The authors are to be congratulated upon the good results of their evident painstaking. The volume bears the unmistakable marks of prolonged personal experience, which has secured uncommon accuracy.

The cat has been already twice the subject of extended treatises—once, many years ago, by the French anatomist Straus-Durckheim, and again, more recently, by St. George Mivart. The former is a classical investigation; the latter is a bulky student's text-book, and is therefore naturally to be compared with the work of the Cornell professors. Mivart deals with the cat from every point of view: gives a full account of its anatomy and the physiology of all its parts; describes its embryology; and discusses its psychology, relationships, geographical distribution, pedigree, etc., thus forming a very thorough introduction to the study of vertebrates; but his book gives no special directions for laboratory work. Messrs. Wilder and Gage have adopted a different plan, giving, as their title indicates, much attention to methods of dissecting. Moreover, they announce as being in preparation two similar volumes, one on 'Microscopical,' another on 'Physiological Technology.' When completed, they will form a whole to be criticised as such. Even then, if the plan of the present volume is continued, there will be wanting those wider views which, in Mivart's book, extend the knowledge gained from the cat by comparisons with other animals, thus rendering the study fruitful. To our mind, the chief defect of the volume we are reviewing is the tendency it has, in common with all of its class, to mislead students into thinking that practical work—the mere dissecting out of a muscle, for instance, and seeing it—is the end of the study. Teachers and examiners in biology are only too familiar with this result of "practical" work, by their contact with students who have only seen a schedule variety of objects and phenomena without grasping the ideas of which that variety should be only the exemplification. We think that the addition of much more comparative anatomy would have greatly increased the value and usefulness of this manual, while it would have avoided the very serious danger to which we have just alluded.

The volume closes with an extensive and, in some respects, excellent bibliography, which is, however, remarkable for certain omissions: there is no mention of Tomes's 'Dental Anatomy,' nor of the two manuals of comparative anatomy by Siebold and Stannius, and by Wiedersheim, which, with Gegenbaur's (cited), are the accepted highest standards. Only the first, and not the second, edition of Flower's 'Osteology' is referred to, and there are a number of special papers which ought to be added, such as Hertwig's on the teeth and skull, Gegenbaur's on the limbs, etc. Some of the titles, on the other hand, lengthen the list without really enhancing its value. The book has a good index.

Soldier Life in the Army of Northern Virginia. 1861-5. By Carlton McCarthy. Richmond: Carlton McCarthy & Co.

WE think we cannot be mistaken in saying (what is no small praise) that this book gives an insight quite unique into the domestic economy of a private in the field. It is written with much humor, intelligence, and shrewdness of observation by one who performed the rare feat of remaining in the ranks through the war. It has preserved so largely the flavor of twenty years ago that it must be much indebted to notes then taken. It continues the old fictions, gathered from rumor, of Northern numbers, cowardice, deceit, and meanness, with frank recognition of instances of the opposite qualities that came within the author's personal experience. But it is not a book which challenges serious refutation, and these opinions will no doubt be an agreeable spice to the readers for whom it was intended, while they add to its reality to us who think them caricatures. Leaving out these sectional touches, the life it describes is nearly as true of the Northern, especially the Western, troops as of the Southern.

The general reader of military history looks upon the movements of troops as of chessmen, and considers the statistics of losses with the same indifference as the stumpage of a pine forest. If he tries to recall that a soldier is a man, with human feelings and wishes, he probably considers that his condition is one of habitual misery, with occasional crises of fury and perhaps agony; that his fare varies from the usual simple sufficiency of regular rations to temporary want and meals of rats and old boots. This book shows, what experience abundantly confirms, that ordinary life in the field is free from extremes of hardship and mortal peril. The outdoor life, the fresh sleep *sous les belles étoiles*, the regular exercise, the simple fare, the constant variety, the occasional excitement, the exhilarating gratification of the gregarious instinct, have in them a charm, like that of the youth which was associated with them, which brightens as the past recedes. The rhapsodies of the author are not exaggerations of the delights of an undisturbed night, a "square meal," a leaf or moss bed, a camp-fire in the woods at night, with its lights and shadows and its thin, blue, fragrant smoke, and the talking, singing, smoking, and declaiming around it; the letters from home, and the luxury of clean clothes.

The author describes minutely the impedimenta of the Confederate soldier, which were reduced to the unprecedented lightness of a musket without bayonet, rubber and woollen blanket, and haversack; and sometimes even the last was omitted. Overcoats were generally discarded as not worth their weight, cartridge and cap boxes

were not needed when their contents could be carried in the pocket, and bayonets were seldom useful. Some of the observations will recall, to many, feelings once familiar. On the march "men of sense suffered greatly from a feeling of helpless ignorance of where they were and whither bound — whether to battle or camp." After the surrender, "a horrid feeling of vacuity oppressed the soldier and introduced him to the new sensations of liberty of choice, freedom of action, full responsibility." An imaginary battle is described with considerable skill in conveying the vagueness of the knowledge of its general cause those engaged in it would generally have. In the pursuit that follows: "Stuart, with a twinkle in his eye, his lips puckered as if to whistle a merry lay, is on their flanks, in their rear, and in their front." It only needs mention of this dashing cavalryman's awkward carriage and screech-owl voice to bring him vividly before us. "A large proportion of the eating of the army was done in the houses and at the tables of the people, not by the use of force, but by the wish and invitation of the people." This, of course, was impossible for the Northern troops, and is only one instance of the advantage of campaigning within the borders. This involves knowledge of the country, guides, secret-service information, defensive battles, and the spirit of resisting invasion. "No man can exactly define the cause for which the Confederate soldier fought." A large element in this cause was plunder: arms, ammunition, clothes, food, shoes, tobacco—everything coveted by the soldier was to be won by a successful battle. "Nearly every overcoat in the army in the latter years was one of Uncle Sam's, captured from his boys." We think this object had more to do with encouraging our opponents than the religious enthusiasm or fanaticism which our author claims for them. He says, "Discipline, the cold master of our enemies, never caught up with the gallant devotion of our Christian soldiers, and the science of war quailed before the majesty of an army singing hymns." There was never a superfluity of discipline on our side, but such as it was it certainly did catch up with the Christian soldiers. It was not our science of war that finally quailed, and we never had an opportunity to feel the majesty of an army singing hymns, unless "the Rebel yell" be regarded as such. A day or two after the parole at Appomatox, the author, with his comrades, on their weary way home to Richmond, saw General Lee on a lonely road riding entirely alone, erect, dignified, calm, and peaceful. It must have been a moving sight to them to see their old leader—one of the great generals of the century—his famous army transformed into a swarm of hungry tramps, riding without attendants, occupation, or country, from the field where he had just laid down his command, and with it his dream of being a second Washington of a great North American Republic. At the end of the book is a good colored print of the Confederate battle-flag, and a narration of its origin. Nothing is added, however, to what was already known on the subject.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Berghaus, H. Chart of the World. 10th ed. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Westermann. $4 80.
Düntzer, H. Goethe's Werke. Illustrirt. Parts 13-18. Stuttgart: E. Hallberger; New York: Westermann.
Hawthorne, N. Twice-Told Tales. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hawthorne, N. Mosses from an Old Manse. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hélène, M. Les Nouvelles Routes du Globe. Paris: G. Masson; New York: Westermann.
Hoffman, F. Basil and Adelbert; or, Each in His Own Way. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. 70 cents.
Hoose, J. H. First-Year Arithmetic. [The Pestalozzian Series.] Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Humphreys, F., M.D. Humphreys's Homœopathic Mentor; or, Family Adviser. Revised and enlarged ed. Humphreys Specific Homœopathic Medicine Co.
Hurst, J. F. Bibliotheca Theologica: A Select and Classified Bibliography of Theology and General Religious Literature. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Ice-Cream and Cakes: A New Collection of Standard Receipts. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Johnston, R. M. Dukesborough Tales. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Longfellow, Henry Wadsworth. Seventy-fifth Birthday. Proceedings of the Maine Historical Society. Portland: Hoyt, Fogg & Donham.
Monthly Reference Lists of the Providence Public Library. Vols. i., ii. Providence.
Olivier, U. The Forester's Daughter. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1 25.
Parloa, M. The Appledore Cook-Book. New ed. Boston: Andrew F. Graves.

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CONTINENTAL

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Loans on Bond and Mortgage (on real estate worth $1,062,200)	379,525 00
United States Bonds, at market value (Currency Sixes)	1,189,520 00
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Total Assets,	$4,450,534 50

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Reserve for Unearned Premiums,		$1,524,123 54
Reserve for all other Claims,		318,545 27
Allowed for Commissions and Taxes due in 1883,		50,000 00
CASH CAPITAL,		1,000,000 00
NET SURPLUS:		
Amount included in Safety Funds,	$1,200,000 00	
Unallotted,	357,865 69	—1,557,865 69
Total,		$4,450,534 50

Increase in Gross Assets during 1882,	$243,328 99
Increase in Net Surplus during 1882,	$151,144 88

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C F Bickford 620 26 83

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 1, 1883.

The Week.

SOME time ago one of our Western contemporaries accused us of a desire to "drive silver out of circulation." We advise it and all those who are still dreaming the dream of the great bles ings which the coinage of silver dollars will shower upon this country, to give their sober and serious consideration to a letter addressed on Friday by the Secretary of the Treasury to the Speaker of the House of Representatives. He sets forth that there are now 94,016,842 standard silver dollars and $26,521,692 in fractional silver currency piled up in the Treasury; that the vaults are crammed full; and that unless the law providing for the coinage of $2,000,000 in silver every month be promptly repealed, new storage room must necessarily be provided for this year's coinage. It is plain that this vast amount of silver, stowed away in such fashion, with confirmed stubbornness refuses to go out and cannot be forced into circulation; that it cannot be used in our foreign commerce; that it does no good to anybody; that we hold it at a loss of interest and a further loss caused by depreciation; that its accumulation can have no other effect than, in the course of time, disastrously to disturb our currency; and that the policy of purchasing $24,000,000 worth of silver bullion a year for the purpose of merely swelling this idle and expensive pile is an outrageous absurdity, disgraceful to an intelligent people. We have not the least doubt that Secretary Folger thinks so too.

There has been continued progress toward a better condition of trade generally during the last seven days. The foreign demand for breadstuffs has not slackened, and the foreign markets still show an upward tendency. In the cotton trade there is a better feeling. The London *Economist* of January 13, commenting on the fact that cotton is now lower than at any time since the War—except temporarily in the panic of 1873—expresses the general belief that any change in the cotton market can only be to higher prices. The prospect of a ready market for these two most important items of our exports is an encouraging feature in the general trade situation. At the West there has been active speculation in both wheat and corn in view of the good foreign demand, and corn has experienced some violent fluctuations as the result of the manipulations of the contending speculators on either side of the market. The dry-goods trade has shown some improvement in the interior, in parts of the country where traffic has not been interrupted by heavy snows, but the coal and iron trades continue dull. The influx of money seeking investment has been apparent during the week, and rates of interest for call and temporary loans have declined. There has been a growing disposition to invest in good railroad mortgages. Railway stocks, however, have been but little affected by the larger supplies of money. The average decline in stocks in the last five months has been from 13 to 14 per cent. on the market prices of, say, September 1. At this decline the market is very dull, but seems strong. The belief gains ground that stocks are reasonably safe to buy at present prices, but it has not become general enough yet to cause any improvement in the market. As compared with a week ago—say with January 23—prices of stocks generally are about 3⅜ per cent. lower. The greatest decline, however, has been in a few stocks, viz.: Union Pacific 3⅝, Lake Shore 1¾, Denver and Rio Grande 1¾, Canada Southern 1¼, Jersey Central 1⅞, Northwest 2⅝, St. Paul and Omaha 2¾, Texas and Pacific 1¾, and Delaware, Lackawanna and Western 2¼.

Interest in the fate of the Shipping Bill has fallen off because it was passed by the House of Representatives in a shape which satisfied neither side of the controversy. The policy of free ships was defeated. So was that of subsidies. When it went to the Senate it was referred to the Committee on Commerce, a subcommittee of which, Messrs. Conger, Vest, and Miller—who were also members of the joint investigating committee—now has charge of it. Senator Conger wishes to restore the bounty clause, Senator Vest desires to add a free-ship provision, and it is believed that Senator Miller would probably not be unwilling to report it in its present form. It seems likely, therefore, that the sub-committee will be unable to agree. If the Senate should finish the tariff debate in time to amend the bill, it would have to go back to the House, and that body, judging from the course of the discussion already had, would probably fail to adopt a more positive measure, and the whole question would be left where it was before the meeting of Congress. This conclusion would be regretted, because, while the bill does little or nothing to revive the carrying trade, some of its provisions, such as that relating to advance wages, would promote the welfare of such American sailors as still survive.

There were signs in the State Assembly on Wednesday, in the debate on the civil-service reform resolutions, that the Democrats are still, as the Republicans used to be, in favor of civil-service reform, but against "this particular measure." They cannot bear to endorse the Pendleton bill. Nor do they see why (although nobody is fonder of this reform than they are) it could not have come a little later, when they had had a little of the abuses which the Republicans have been enjoying for twenty years. They would like reform some time when each party had had its fair share of the spoils. They resemble on this point the Continental peace men in Europe, who desire peace very much, but do not want it till they have had another war in which they can give all the enemies of peace a good dressing. They like to have civil-service reform, also, to put in the platforms. What will the platform be, they say, without a civil-service-reform plank? And, of course, if civil-service reform is embodied in a law, it cannot be put in the platform, which is the best, and, in fact, the only fit place for it. We would remind them, apropos of all this, however, of the 196,000 majority at the last election. They cannot keep this majority by civil-service reform in the platform, or by putting it off till the Democratic "boys" have had time to warm their toes. The majority cares nothing about "the boys," or their toes, and are not troubled because either party has not had a fair share. The question for the Democrats now, and the sole one, is, Which do you prefer—power without spoils, or no power and no spoils?

The St. Louis papers are publishing, to the intense amusement of their readers, some letters which the late Republican boss of Missouri, Mr. Chauncey I. Filley, after General Garfield's election, addressed to a prominent politician there, requesting the latter to recommend him, Filley, for a place in General Garfield's Cabinet. The letter contains a draft of the desired recommendation, made by Filley himself, in which he sets forth all his extraordinary virtues and excellences of character and ability. Thus, he says of himself that he "combines a superior order of business talent, practical information and acquaintance with systematic methods, and fertile originations and quiet execution." But that is not all. "Unyielding in principle and unswerving in the execution of trusts, he has never been questioned in the faithful execution of whatever has devolved upon him, and has never sacrificed the public interest or political interests to self, but, on the contrary, self for them." This sublime disinterestedness must strike the people of Missouri, who know Mr. Filley so well, very amusingly. But he has still more to say of himself: "He is a great planner." So it appears. Of course he has won all the Republican successes ever achieved in Missouri, by his own personal ability and effort, and he opens in his self-recommendation an unbounded vista of future achievements if President Garfield will only take him into the Cabinet. It has long been known that Mr. Filley was very clever in getting up complimentary dinners and other testimonials of public esteem for himself, but this letter is probably his greatest effort. It has undoubtedly finished him, for everybody is laughing, and a St. Louis paper is moved to remark that Mr. Filley is "essentially a self-made man."

Governor Pattison, of Pennsylvania, who, to the delight of some people, promised a return to the simplicity of the early days of the Republic by declining an inauguration escort tendered by a voluntary military company, has not given so much satisfaction since he went into office. He did not, like Thomas Jefferson, according to the homely story, ride on horseback to the Capitol, and hitch his horse to the fence with his own hands, preparatory to taking the oath, but he rode quietly in a

car, unaccompanied by pomp and splendor—and then he appointed Mr. Cassidy Attorney-General. This selection disappointed the better class of Democrats and the Independents, because the favor extended to a man who had been the attorney of corporate monopolies, and had been conspicuous in "local politics" of an unsavory sort, was not a good beginning for a reform administration. The only persons pleased were the regular Republicans, who would like nothing so well as the failure of the movement for better government which resulted in the overthrow of the Machine last November. The Governor's nomination of Mr. Page for Comptroller and Mr. Smith for Recorder of Philadelphia tended further to estrange members of his own party, and to weaken the support which might have been secured from the Independents. On the other hand, Mr. Pattison has taken another step toward the simple manners of the Fathers. When his private secretary, the Rev. Mr. Everett, appeared in the Senate and announced that he had to present "a communication from the Governor," a friend suggested that he had forgotten to say "his Excellency"; but the secretary said he had made no mistake, and that the Governor wished the vain and empty title to be dispensed with. There is no objection to this; but, as the absence of the innocent militia company on Inauguration Day did not excuse unwise appointments to important offices, so dispensing with the harmless title of "his Excellency" will not content the people to dispense with more substantial reforms in the Administration. Governor Pattison, however, is just beginning, and after he has amused himself with these conspicuous displays of official austerity, it is to be hoped he will turn with better judgment to the practical business of the State.

The "State Trades' Assembly," which held a meeting the other day at Albany, took up the old subject of convict labor in prisons, and a bill was reported which, it is believed, will be pushed in the Legislature this winter. Its main object is to prevent the employment of convicts in the trades in competition with free labor, on the ground that such employment seriously affects the rate of wages. This idea is perpetually being brought up before legislatures and State conventions with an earnestness which shows that a great deal of importance is attached to it by some reformers. Their feeling about it resembles that of the Pacific Coast reformer toward "Chinese cheap labor." The substitute proposed for the convict contract system is very inadequate. The bill provides that all convicts shall be employed on "State account"; that no more than fifty shall be employed in any one trade; that they shall produce no articles of "American manufacture" except for State supplies; that the Sing Sing prisoners—these constitute the bulk of the entire convict body—shall be employed in the lime quarries, and those at Clinton in the iron mines. The prisons of this State are now self-supporting, the contract system having resulted in a surplus during the last year of $6,257 58, and the proposed plan is admirably adapted to destroy this surplus and create a deficiency. But for the purpose of preventing any competition at all between convict and free labor, something much more comprehensive and sweeping is needed. A convict employed on "State account," to produce supplies needed by the State, is so far competing with non-convict labor, which would otherwise have to be employed for this purpose. Moreover, if the clause with regard to "American manufacture" means, as it probably does, that convicts ought not to produce anything at all except for State supply, still, if the State is going to put the product to any use, the free laborer is not perfectly protected.

If there is anything in the theory of the labor reformers on the subject of convict employment, there is only one sure and complete remedy. The convicts, it is admitted, must be kept at work. Hard labor in the prisons has been the settled policy of the State for many years, and nobody proposes that convicts shall be kept idle. The problem is how to keep them constantly at work, and yet prevent their labor from coming into competition with non-convict labor. The only way to do this effectively is to destroy what they produce as fast as they produce it. Keep them at work in Sing Sing, Auburn, and Clinton, making boots, shoes, harness, etc., etc., just as at present, but as fast as the product of their labor accumulates collect it all together in some public place, and have it burnt up by a public officer under the supervision of a trade committee to see that the work is thoroughly done. The State would then, of course, derive no revenue from the prisons. These would have to be supported by taxation, while the regular destruction, at stated intervals, of all the product of convict labor, would make it perfectly clear that the general rate of wages was not being lowered by cheap convict labor.

Mr. Field again brought the Civil Code to the attention of the public on Tuesday, in an address delivered before the Law Reform Society, and the annual attempt will no doubt soon be made to get it through the Legislature. The principal argument he advanced in favor of codification was the necessity of simplifying the law, and reducing the volume of judicial decisions which pours forth from the press every year in the shape of reports. It is a curious fact that many eminent lawyers of the last generation were fond of dwelling on the necessity of certainty in the law as an argument against, not in favor of, codification. A correspondent, whose efforts greatly contributed to the defeat of the proposed "Civil Code" last winter, calls our attention to the following extract from a letter of the late Judge Curtis to Mr. George Ticknor, written in 1836:

"Perhaps, however, there will be no common law when you come back; for among other wild theories with which the Legislature now in session are bitten is an idea of codifying the common law. You remember that the statute law of the Commonwealth was undergoing revision when you left Massachusetts. Having got well through with that, the Legislature are so much encouraged that many of them imagine that the whole body of the law may now be reduced to a pocket volume, so that any man may carry about with him his own lawyer. It does not occur to them that a good system of law must be at the same time so extensive as to apply to and govern all the existing relations between men in society, so stable and fixed in all important principles as to furnish *a certain* guide, and so flexible as to be capable of adaptation to the ever-changing forms into which property is thrown by the unwearied enterprise and all-absorbing love of gain which distinguish our people."

If Judge Curtis were writing now, he might point to the experience of this State as a proof that what codification does is to make law uncertain. The more codes we have, the more litigation arises over their meaning and the more necessity for continual judicial interpretation, or, in other words, for more volumes of reports to be consulted. The Code of Procedure produces more new law in a year than the Massachusetts Practice Act does in ten. The Civil Code will not do away with the common law, but will be a new statute, to discover the meaning of which the judges will have to resort to the common law whenever doubt arises—*i. e.*, every day in the week. Indeed, we may say that the objection to our code is not so much that there will be "no common law" when it is passed as that there will be more than we can stand. It ought to be called a bill to promote the multiplication of law reports and to increase the uncertainty and expense of law.

There was a peculiarly bad social homicide at State Mills, Rappahannock County, Va., the other day, between two brothers-in-law, named Brown and Taylor respectively, prominent business men of the place. It arose out of a dog fight. Their dogs had a fight in front of Mr. Taylor's house, and, the Taylor dog getting the worst of it, young Mr. Taylor struck the Brown dog, from which there resulted "hot words." Thereupon Mr. Taylor, senior, appeared on the scene with an axe, and he and his son assailed Mr. Brown with vigor. Mr. Brown for a while defended himself successfully against the axe with an ice-hook, but a reinforcement arriving to the Taylors in the shape of another son with a heavy revolver, the fortunes of the day were soon decided. The unhappy Brown received three shots in the lower back, and died on the field. His little daughter was present during this pleasing scene, but was not hurt. We need hardly say that Mr. Brown was "a popular and brave man," and that his fate is much deplored in the neighborhood.

In the Star-route trial last week the testimony of the witness Moore with regard to Dorsey was corroborated by Mr. Boone, the contractor. Boone testified that he recommended Moore to Dorsey as a good man for his purpose, and that he got up bids through postmasters under Dorsey's direction. This lets in what is known as the Clendenning correspondence, with which the public is already familiar. Clendenning was Postmaster at Fort Smith, and we find Dorsey writing to him in 1877 forwarding bonds which he desires "made for a friend," and begging him to let no one know from whom they came. Clendenning, in reply, called Dorsey's attention to the fact that he was asking him to commit a misdemeanor, upon which Dorsey said that he knew nothing about the matter, and that he merely asked it as a favor to Boone. This evidence was not ad-

mitted on the former trial, and does not tend to improve Dorsey's case.

The New York County Medical Society held a meeting on Monday to discuss the new "Code of Ethics" adopted by the State Society. This code was the cause of much discussion last year, as it permits consultations between homœopathists and regulars, under the following rule: "Members of the Medical Society of the State of New York, and of the medical societies in affiliation therewith, may meet in consultation legally qualified practitioners of medicine; emergencies may occur in which all restrictions should, in the judgment of the practitioner, yield to the demands of humanity." A resolution to approve the code was adopted by a vote of 147 to 60, and it is hard to see how sixty physicians could have been found to vote against it. It is simply permissive, compels no regular physician to do anything that he does not like to do, and is placed solely on the ground of humanity. When we think that the "emergencies" referred to mean often nothing more nor less than the life or death of the patient, the case seems a pretty clear one, and it is not surprising that the minority gave no solid reasons for their position with regard to the matter.

The friends of the higher education of women are to present their petition to Columbia College on the 5th of February, asking not for "co-education," but for the extension to women, under suitable regulations, of the educational advantages now enjoyed by men. Columbia College is probably less able to resist this movement than any other in the country, because it has large and increasing means, and because it is situated in a great city, within reach of hundreds of young women desirous of a high education, who could take it without leaving their homes. In fact, there is no argument against the demand of the petitioners which has any weight in our day except want of money. Against co-education much may be said, but co-education is not asked for here, probably to the chagrin of many good conservatives, to whose horns a proposal to congregate the two sexes in the same lecture-rooms and laboratories, at the same hours, always offers some delightful tossing.

Mr. George Munro, the eminent pirate, whose efforts in behalf of cheap books have attracted world-wide attention, has given another proof of his public spirit and zeal in the cause of learning in endowing three tutorships in a Canadian college at Dalhousie, at $1,000 a year each. How much more sensible this employment of the money made in his business is than the use the old pirate put his to in paying what he called an *honorarium* to the foreign author! The ill-conditioned fellows who got that were never satisfied; on the contrary, they were always complaining that they were not given enough, and even treating the payment of what *was* paid as a recognition of their "rights," and consequently as an argument for an international copyright law. No man can pretend that the Munro system suggests the idea of "rights" of any description, except, of course, the right to cheap books. By the way, what has become of the copyright treaty in the negotiation of which the old pirates were so much interested? We were assured at first that if we would only keep silent about its terms, it would be all right. Everybody has been silent about them now for some time, yet we do not hear of its having been signed. Have the wicked foreign publishers killed it?

A discussion has been going on in England, with regard to bankrupt legislation, which has led to an examination of the French law on the subject, and its stringent provisions with regard to bookkeeping. In France the law forces the trader to keep books, prescribes the kind of books he shall keep, and the entries he shall make. There has also to be an annual inventory, and all letters have to be filed and kept. The *Times* wants some such provision inserted in the Lowell bill, and thinks that the great difficulty with bankruptcy laws in this country has always been that they have not done enough to promote commercial morality. The French regulations on the subject of bookkeeping are, however, a very good illustration of the difference between the French and the English or American ways of looking at such subjects. Judge Lowell did not attempt to introduce governmental regulation as to bookkeeping in his bill, probably because he felt sure that it would kill the bill. To prescribe in advance what sort of books he shall keep, and what he shall do with his letters, is something which the business man in this country will probably never let the Government do.

O'Donovan Rossa has let it be so generally known that he is at war with England that the announcement of his intention to "strike her in five or six different places in one night" will take nobody by surprise. It is by just such sudden and heavy blows as this that the greatest victories in war have always been achieved. To strike them, of course, money is needed, and he says that $2,500 is needed, or about $500 for each blow. He rather discourages subscribers, however, by announcing as part of his programme that "anything is fair in war." When this maxim is applied to the funds furnished it has a disheartening effect on the spirit even of the most determined people.

The election of the extremely extreme O'Brien, editor of the blood-and-thunder *United Ireland*, at Mallow on Wednesday, over the Liberal Naish, to fill the place of the Liberal Johnson, raised to the bench, is a sign, and a very ominous one, of what will happen in Ireland at the next election. Mallow is a small and easily manageable constituency, polling about 250 votes, and yet O'Brien carried it by a majority of seventy-two, his predecessor having been a Ministerialist. This means, beyond doubt, that there will be but few if any Irish Liberals in the next Parliament. Davitt, Healy, and Quinn have been convicted without a jury, in the Queen's Bench in Dublin, of inciting to civil war by wild speeches, and sentenced to find security for their good behavior or go to jail for six months, all of which is so much political capital for them, and no punishment at all.

An emergency ministry has been formed in France, on the resignation of MM. Duclerc, Billot, and Jauréguiberry, with M. Fallières at its head. The Duclerc Ministry having been brought into being for the purpose of bridging over a gap, the only thing expected of it was that it should have and show as little as possible any will of its own, and that in its whole conduct it should simply be controlled by the influences prevailing in the Chambers. On the whole, the Duclerc Ministry performed its mission in that respect. It had no strong individuality in its composition, and no definite political programme to carry out. It drifted along, as it was expected to do, until in an unfortunate hour it was struck by an opportunity, as it thought, for making a demonstration of energy, which in fact, however, turned into a demonstration of weakness, not to say imbecility. The new Cabinet, of course, is but a fresh symptom of helplessness, as it proposes to know no policy but that of the Chambers, and accepts the proscriptive measures which its predecessor went to pieces in trying to resist. There is therefore nothing to hinder the punishment of the Orleans Princes by exile and expulsion from the Army, not because they have committed any offence, but because the folly of another man makes some people think they might become dangerous to the state.

The crisis is evidently one for which the proper remedy is dissolution. The Radicals, who are turning Prince Napoleon's escapade into an excuse for attacking the Orleans family, ought to be sent back to their constituents to find out what they think about this disturbance. In fact, it is time that the constituents were consulted on the general question whether there has not been reform enough for the present, and whether what the country needs is not rest. The condition of the finances is bringing French property-holders — a very timid class—to the perception that there have of late been too many public improvements, and that too many reforms are now pending, and that there are, in short, too many bees in the legislative bonnet. The unruly and unparliamentary condition of the Radical wing of the present Chamber is illustrated by the fact that they, with the assistance of the Extreme Right, passed a bill over the heads of the Ministry in the last session, making the judges elective, as their contribution to the "reform of the magistracy." It is well known, however, that an attempt to carry out such a law would ruin any Ministry, and perhaps ruin the Republic, so much horror would it excite among the voters. The Right supported it simply to bring the Government into contempt and alarm the constituencies, well knowing that it could not get through the Senate. The Left, however, had so little sense of its duty and responsibility as a majority, that it accepted their aid, apparently caring no more than the Legitimists or Bonapartists in what condition it left the Republican Cabinet.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 24, to TUESDAY, January 30, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Republican Senators have held conferences to unite in their action on the Tariff Bill, at the second of which, on Thursday, a proposition to take a recess each day at 6 o'clock was voted down, only three or four Senators voting in the affirmative. A second proposition, that the Senate should prolong its sessions so long as a quorum could be kept in the Chamber, was adopted unanimously. This, if followed, will annul the resolution adopted a few days ago to adjourn each day at 6 o'clock. Before the conference separated it came to be pretty well understood that the free-lumber amendment would be defeated.

The Senate continued the tariff debate on Wednesday. A motion by Mr. Vance to amend so as to make the duty on steel railway bars and railway bars made in part of steel, weighing more than twenty-five pounds to the yard, 7-10 instead of 8-10 of a cent, was adopted by a vote of 25 to 21. On Thursday the session was spent in listening to speeches on the life and character of the late Senator B. H. Hill, of Georgia. The usual resolutions were adopted, and the Senate adjourned early as a further mark of respect. The tariff debate was continued on Friday, and further reductions made in the iron schedule. Taggert iron was the only kind on which the duty was not lowered. On iron or steel T-rails the rate was made 8-10 of a cent a pound instead of 1¼ cents per pound as at present. On Saturday reductions were made from the rates fixed by the Finance Committee on hoop, band, and scroll iron, on chains, and on fence and wire rods. On Monday the reductions in the iron schedule were continued.

The House on Wednesday went into Committee of the Whole on the Naval Appropriation Bill. All the amendments to the bill were adopted except that providing that the chiefs of bureaus shall receive no additional pay, and that relating to the appropriation for torpedoes. On Thursday the Naval Appropriation Bill was passed and the Tariff Bill taken up, but the House adjourned early out of respect for the late Senator Hill. On Friday and Saturday and Monday the House went into Committee of the Whole on the Tariff Bill.

On Tuesday the Senate completed the metal schedule and began the consideration of the sugar schedule.

In the House, the chemical schedule being under consideration, the Democrats took up most of the day with filibustering proceedings.

Secretary Folger has addressed a letter to the Speaker of the House setting forth the necessity of providing additional vaults for the storage of standard silver dollars, or of discontinuing the coinage required by law of $2,000,000 monthly. The vaults recently built are now practically full, and the Treasury has on hand $94,016,842 in standard dollars and $26,521,692 in fractional currency, making a total of $120,538,534, weighing about 3,500 tons. The Secretary says that unless the law is repealed before Congress adjourns, provision must be made for storing this year's coinage, which is estimated at $27,000,000, less the amount put in circulation.

The plan submitted by Gen. F. A. Walker to the Senate Special Committee to ascertain the results of the Tenth Census contemplates a reduction of the volume of the reports upon special topics from 11,000 to about 8,000 pages. This reduction will be accomplished by the compression of such parts of the reports as are general in their character, though the scope of the completed work, according to General Walker, will remain practically the same as originally planned. General Walker says that the work of the Census is not in as confused a condition as recent reports would indicate. Mr. Seaton, in charge of the work, is incapacitated by mental and bodily illness.

The Kansas Legislature in joint session on Wednesday reëlected Mr. Plumb United States Senator. The New Jersey Legislature reelected Senator McPherson on the same day. He received forty-three votes to thirty-six for Hobart. On Saturday the Colorado Legislature in joint session elected Thomas M. Bowen Senator for the long term, and H. A. W. Taber for the short term.

The Senatorial deadlocks in Minnesota and Michigan continue. Windom's chances of reëlection have been growing steadily poorer. In Nebraska, General Charles F. Manderson has succeeded in uniting the Republican caucus, and will be elected.

On Monday the United States Supreme Court handed down two decisions of interest. A Kentucky statute excluding colored citizens, because of their race, from service on grand juries was declared unconstitutional; and a law of Alabama prohibiting miscegenation was held to be not in conflict with the Fourteenth Amendment or with the civil-rights legislation founded on it, for the reason that it applies the same punishment to both white and black offenders without discrimination.

The Smithsonian Institution has transferred to the Harvard College Observatory the work of collecting astronomical information in this country. This was done at the request of a union of foreign observatories, which includes all the larger observatories, some fifty in number, on the European Continent, and makes the Harvard Observatory the centre of astronomical information for the United States.

A meeting of bondholders of the Southern States which have repudiated their bonds, was held on Monday, at the New York Clearing-house. Resolutions were adopted calling for the repeal of the Eleventh Amendment to the Constitution, which prohibits a citizen from suing a State, and approving the joint resolutions introduced into Congress by Mr. Moore, of Tennessee, providing for the repeal of the Eleventh Amendment, and for the legal enforcement of the obligation of contracts entered into by any of the States of the Union; and a resolution was also adopted appointing a committee, to include in its list of members the holders of bonds of every State that has repudiated its debt, and the president of a bank or a private banker of every large city in the Union, to coöperate in securing the passage of Mr. Moore's resolutions.

The Massachusetts Legislative Committee on Woman Suffrage has decided to report a bill in favor of municipal suffrage for women. In the Senate on Thursday the first reply to Governor Butler's recommendations in his annual message came in the form of a report of the Committee on Election Laws against making election day a legal holiday.

An important point for the Star-route prosecution was gained on Thursday, when Judge Wylie allowed the introduction of Dorsey's letters to Postmaster Clendenning, which he excluded at the former trial. He said that at the first trial he had supposed that the letters were offered to prove some official misconduct on the part of Senator Dorsey while in the Senate, but now it appeared that he had overlooked the other question, whether or not they tended to show the connection between Senator Dorsey and the other defendants as having existed even from the beginning of the bidding. That was a point of great importance, and the former decision had not taken it into account, either because it had not been presented or because he had overlooked it. The letters were requests from Dorsey to have bogus bonds prepared and sent to him. He said: "I ask you to do it as a special favor to me. Under no circumstances allow anybody to know that I have written on this subject."

The Grand Jury at Washington on Friday presented an indictment against William Dickson, foreman of the first Star-route jury, charging him with having "corruptly endeavored to influence jurymen."

The unidentified victims of the Newhall House fire were buried in Milwaukee on Thursday with impressive ceremonies. Pursuant to an agreement of the clergy of all sects, twenty-three bodies were given to the Protestants and twenty to the Catholics. Nearly all the business houses and all the city and county departments were closed.

In the Newhall House inquiry at Milwaukee on Wednesday Mr. Delaney, the night clerk, said he thought the fire originated in the bar-room; that the hose in the halls had not been used or examined for the last two years; that he could have called the guests if he had not been engaged upon matters which he considered more important than alarming guests; that he had twenty-five minutes' time between the discovery of the fire and the time when he knew the hotel was doomed; that he could have run through every hall in the hotel and alarmed every guest in that length of time, but that he had to attend to office duties—saving papers and valuables, knowing the safe to be useless in case of a fire.

The Female College of Milwaukee was damaged to the extent of $10,000 by fire early Friday morning. Sixty young women slept on the premises, and were for a time in great danger, but were all safely rescued by the firemen and police.

The people living in the northeastern part of the city of Wilkesbarre, Penn., were startled early Wednesday morning by a loud report resembling that which accompanies an earthquake. Numerous gaps from three to eight inches in width were found in the streets, and the foundations of many houses were unsettled thereby. The wooden props in an old disused mine had rotted and were giving way. People living over the mine have removed their effects.

Mr. A. A. Sargent, United States Minister to Germany, has made to the State Department, under date of Berlin, January 1, an official report with regard to the threatened exclusion from that country of American pork products. Mr. Sargent says: "A very strong feeling of opposition has been aroused in Berlin and other German cities, as well as in the manufacturing districts generally, against the threatened exclusion of American pork products. Strong protests are being sent in to the Bundesrath, and committees of merchants and others have visited the capital to protest against the measure."

The Secretary of the American Iron and Steel Association reports that the production of Bessemer-steel ingots in the United States in the last year was 1,696,450 tons, an increase of 10 per cent. over the production in 1881. The quantity of Bessemer-steel rails produced in 1882 by the fourteen completed works was 1,334,349 tons, an increase of 6 per cent. as compared with 1881.

The Princess Louise, having decided to spend the next few months in the Bermudas and not in Charleston, embarked at Charleston for those islands on Wednesday. An immense throng witnessed her departure.

FOREIGN.

The condition of political affairs in France has continued to excite some anxiety. The Empress Eugénie left Paris for London on Wednesday. There were various rumors as to the cause of her departure, some saying that she had been requested to leave by the authorities; but the Imperialists declared that this was not true, and that she left only because she feared the marks of sympathy which she received might develop into a political demonstration and compromise her friends. The Ministry held conferences with the Committee of the Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday and Thursday over the proposed expulsion of the Orleans Princes. On Thursday the Committee adopted a bill excluding from French territory and the colonies all members of families which have reigned in

France, depriving them of political rights as citizens, declaring them ineligible for any office, and preventing them from belonging to the Army. The Government was strongly opposed to the measure. An effort was made on Saturday to agree to some compromise, but it was unsuccessful, and on Sunday the Ministers tendered their resignations to President Grévy, which were accepted.

President Grévy on Monday asked M. Jules Ferry to undertake the formation of a Cabinet, but he declined, and it was then resolved to resort to a combination Ministry, under the Presidency of M. Fallières, all of the late Ministers, except M. Duclerc, General Billot, and Admiral Jauréguiberry, retaining their portfolios. M. Tirard will be Minister of Foreign Affairs, M. de Mahy Minister of Marine ad interim, and General Campenon Minister of War. In the Chamber of Deputies on Monday M. Fallières explained the divergence of views which had led to the resignation of the Ministry. He said though the new Ministry was not completely formed, it placed itself at the disposal of the Chamber, as the interests of the country required that the question raised should be promptly settled. The Chamber decided to begin the debate forthwith. In the course of it M. Ribot congratulated the outgoing Ministers on their attitude. The only danger to the republic, he said, was perpetual crises, which raised doubts as to the stability of the republican institutions, and it behooved the Chamber to strengthen the republic by a temperate and tranquillizing course.

While speaking in defence of the compromise bill of M. Fabre proscribing pretenders to the throne, in the Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday, M. Fallières became suddenly ill and fainted, but no serious results are feared.

The Paris *Union*, the organ of the Comte de Chambord, said on Monday: "We have too much respect for the truth to deny the existence of a monarchical conspiracy. We have encouraged it by speech and writing, and salute the development of it with joy."

The seals on Gambetta's papers in Ville d'Avray and Paris have been removed. The papers are said to contain copious notes on the subject of a reorganization of the Army.

The London Foreign Office has published the reply of Lord Granville, Foreign Secretary, to a despatch of M. Duclerc, the late French Minister of Foreign Affairs, questioning the right of England and Egypt to withdraw or modify the Joint Control. Lord Granville says the British Government is unable to see anything which can be considered an engagement by the Khedive that the Control should be perpetually maintained. The result of the military insurrection virtually abrogated the Control, and it cannot be contended that former arrangements are still obligatory.

The Egyptian *Official Gazette* has published a decree of the Khedive prolonging the powers of the International Tribunal until February, 1884.

The Porte has sent a circular note to the Powers, pointing out that the English note concerning Egypt is at variance with Turkey's admitted rights over the latter country. The Porte has also requested the Turkish Ministers abroad to call attention to the absolute necessity of a strict observance of the sovereign rights of the Porte. Germany has advised the Sultan to accept the English proposals, as they are in the interest of Turkey itself.

M. de Giers, the Russian Foreign Minister, paid a visit to the Emperor of Austria on Thursday, and the Austrian as well as other Continental newspapers have since been busily engaged in discussing the significance of the visit. In addition to his interview with the Emperor, M. de Giers has had interviews with Count Kálnoky, the Austro-Hungarian Foreign Minister, the German Ambassador at Vienna, and other prominent men in Vienna. One of the Berlin correspondents says M. de Giers's visit to Vienna has resulted in a complete understanding between Russia and Austria on the leading political questions, and also in the arrangement of the differences in regard to the navigation of the Danube; and a majority of the despatches from the Continent to the London newspapers state the prevailing opinion to be that whatever was conceded by Count Kálnoky to M. de Giers was conceded with the full concurrence and approval of Germany.

A placard was recently posted in a public garden in St. Petersburg warning the people to avoid places frequented by the court, lest they should be hurt by anything that might happen.

The text of a letter, dated December 22, from the Emperor of Germany to the Pope has been published, in which the former says he hopes the satisfaction of the Pope at the re-establishment of the Prussian Legation at the Vatican will afford grounds for His Holiness to reciprocate by similar advances. The Emperor also says, were he convinced that his desire for an understanding were reciprocated, he would be able to concede that the Diet should reconsider the May laws, which are not permanently required for the maintenance of peaceful relations with the Vatican. A despatch from Rome says that the publication of the contents of this letter has caused displeasure at the Vatican, as it was supposed its contents would have been kept secret for a while.

The funeral of the late Prince Charles took place at Berlin on Wednesday. The Emperor and Empress, members of the royal family, and a crowd of distinguished persons were present. The services were imposing, and the Emperor is said to have been much affected.

Prince Charles, by his will, left 27,000,000 marks, apportioned as follows: Twelve millions to his son, Prince Frederick Charles; 6,000,000 to each of his two daughters; 1,000,000 to the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, of which order the late Prince was Grand Master, to be employed in founding a home for convalescents; 1,000,000 to other charities; and the 1,000,000 remaining to be at the disposal of the Emperor William.

More than 3,000 congratulatory letters and telegrams were received by the Crown Prince and Princess of Germany on the occasion of the celebration of their silver wedding on Thursday. The Emperor presented a massive silver tea-service, the Queen of England a marble statue of herself, ten of the chief towns of Prussia a suite of dining-room furniture valued at $19,000, and the city of Berlin $29,500 for the foundation of a sanitary school. The sum of $200,000, collected throughout Germany, was received for benevolent purposes.

Messrs. Davitt, Healy, and Quinn, charged with inciting to lawlessness, were ordered on Wednesday to find securities for their good behavior or go to prison for six months. The Lord Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench Division, in giving judgment, held that the language of the defendants was distinctly seditious, and an incitement to civil war. Judge Lawson added that he had never read more blasphemous language than that of Mr. Davitt. Messrs. Davitt, Healy, and Quinn have declared their intention of refusing to give bail, and will go to prison. Some of the men who were arraigned in the Police Court on Saturday, the 20th, on the charge of conspiracy to murder Government officers, were reëxamined on Saturday. The alleged murderers of Field, the juror, were completely identified in the course of the proceedings. Some interesting disclosures were made in regard to the methods of the conspirators. One of the informers testified that after the murder of Detective Cox the old Vigilance Committee was broken up, and each of the nine "centres" selected two men from the rank and file of the Fenian Brotherhood, who were sworn in as a new Vigilance Committee, and were bound to obey and carry out the decree of a body called the Directory, of which Joseph Mullett, one of the prisoners, was chairman. Another examination will be held on next Saturday, and the London *Times* says it believes the Government is in possession of information which will bring home complicity in the Phœnix Park murders to at least two of the prisoners.

Mr. Davitt, in a speech at a meeting of the National League in Dublin on Sunday, said he could not help feeling that the most godlike act a man could perform would be to complete the crushing of the hideous power of landlordism. If Mr. Gladstone could give a legislative blow to landlordism, his name would be revered by every generation of the liberated victims. To wage increasing strife against Irish poverty, misery, and crime, Mr. Davitt said, seemed to him an irresistibly imperative duty. In conclusion, he asserted that Irish landlordism and Castle rule were being beaten inch by inch.

The contest at Mallow, County Cork, Ireland, for the seat in Parliament made vacant by the election of the Right Hon. William Johnson to a Judgeship in the Queen's Bench Division, resulted in the election of Mr. O'Brien, editor of the *United Ireland*, over the Government candidate, Mr. John Naish, by a vote of 161 to 89. This is looked upon in England as a confirmation of the fears that at the next general election the ranks of the Home Rulers in Parliament will be formidably reinforced.

There was a great storm in England on Sunday and Monday, and great injury was done to shipping. Many lives were lost. The heaviest floods that have occurred in the British Lake Districts for twenty years prevail.

Sir Alexander Galt, High Commissioner for Canada, in a speech at Edinburgh, Scotland, on Friday, referring to the relations of the British colonies to the Empire, said it was doubtful whether or not, as the colonies increased in material power, they would continue satisfied. Their present position of separation, he said, was neither necessary nor desirable. He suggested the possibility of cementing the whole Empire by a scheme of imperial federation.

The members of the party of the Spanish Dynastic Left in the Cortes have issued a circular ordering the formation of committees in the towns and villages of Spain, and declaring that the Liberals desire the constitution of two great parties of Liberals and Conservatives, which shall promote the interests of Spain, assure prosperity, and close the era of revolutions.

A despatch from Madrid says the West Indian members of the Cortes have asked for explanations of the intentions of the new Cabinet regarding the regulations in Cuba permitting the use of irons in the corporal punishment of negroes, and have protested against the Cuban Treasury being burdened with the expense of Spanish legations and consulates in America. The autonomists intend to press for reforms of the tariff and in the condition of the negroes.

The Brazilian loan of £4,000,000 at 4½ per cent., put upon the market by the Messrs. Rothschild at 89, has been more than fully subscribed.

Switzerland has rejected the naturalization treaty proposed by the United States, according to which nationality is forfeited by residence for a certain period abroad, on the ground that this clause of the treaty is contrary to Swiss law.

Bulgaria has given notice to the British diplomatic agent at Sofia, demanding admission to the London Conference on the Danubian question.

A winter carnival has been in progress in Montreal during the week, which was attended by a great number of people from the United States. Winter sports of all kinds and an ice palace were the principal attractions.

NATIONAL AID TO COMMON SCHOOLS.

THE two bills before Congress, one in the Senate and one in the House of Representatives, granting money from the National Treasury for the support of common schools in the States which have more than a certain proportion of illiterate inhabitants, have to be judged from two points of view entirely distinct and different. The first question is, whether a condition of things exists which would in any way suggest the desirability of national interference with the subject of popular education in the several States. In this respect the census of 1880 has made some startling exhibits. We have one State—South Carolina—in which an absolute majority, nearly fifty-two per cent. of all persons entitled to vote, cannot write. In Mississippi the proportion of illiterate voters is over 46, in Louisiana over 47, in Georgia over 45, in Tennessee and in Virginia over 39, in North Carolina over 42, in Florida over 38, in Alabama over 46, in Arkansas over 30, in Kentucky 26, in Texas over 24, in Maryland over 19, in Delaware over 17, in West Virginia over 16, and in Missouri 11 per cent. Of course a large majority of the illiterate population in the late slave States—nearly 70 per cent.—are colored people, 30 per cent. being poor whites. It will strike every one that if the success of free government is to rest upon the educated intelligence of those who have the right to participate in it, most of the Southern States are in a very unsafe condition.

The reflection will also suggest itself, that while in the South there has always been a larger proportion of illiterate voters than in the more active and progressive Northern States, the emancipation of the slaves and their endowment with the right of suffrage suddenly injected into the body politic a mass of ignorance fearful to contemplate. At the same time it was perhaps not unnatural that immediately after the war the white people of the South should have shown little alacrity in improving the new order of things, which had been forced upon them much against their taste, by the prompt introduction of efficient systems of popular education. And although the spirit of sullen resistance faded away to a great extent after a few years, most of the Southern States found themselves too much impoverished by the war to spend much money in the establishment and conduct of public schools. The result is that while the necessity of an efficient system of popular education is far more pressing in the South than anywhere else in the country, the amount of money raised annually for school purposes in all the late slaveholding States combined is not as large as that expended for the same purpose by the State of New York alone.

Now, this argument is made: The condition of things which precipitated upon the South this tremendous mass of ignorance armed with political power, was imposed upon that section of the country by the Government of the United States, at that time virtually representing only the Northern people. Thus we emancipated the slaves and made voters of them. Should we not now, when the dangerous consequences of the last of these measures become so apparent, do all in our power to mitigate them? Should we not, after having made the late slaves voters, contribute our share toward making them intelligent and well-educated voters? Nobody will deny that this argument is a strong one, and that people of a fair-minded and humane way of thinking must be much impressed with it.

Nor does the opposition to the measures in question deny the weight of this argument, but it reasons from an entirely different point of view. The matter of popular education has always been subject exclusively to State management. The General Government has never interfered with it except by granting lands to new Territories and States, to form a school fund, and by establishing a bureau merely for the dissemination of educational information. But a direct grant of money to the States for the support of their school systems—money to be raised by taxation and then to be taken out of the Treasury of the United States, for a purpose which is certainly not among those for which the Constitution authorizes the Congress of the United States to impose Federal taxes—is in itself a very questionable thing. The object in view is undoubtedly an excellent one. But if we take money out of the Treasury for it, are there not a good many other objects, in themselves very good and neither more nor less contemplated by the Constitution as among those for the promotion of which taxes should be laid than this, which will also apply for appropriations and find equally zealous advocates? Is not this policy in the line of those who want constantly to find new objects for expenditure to drain the Treasury, and thus to furnish reasons for keeping up the present pernicious systems of taxation, war tariff and all? And if such a policy be adopted, will it not do more to demoralize our politics than the extension of the school system in the South, as far as the appropriation contemplated would effect it, would do to stem that demoralization?

It will not be denied that this argument, too, is entitled to very serious consideration, and that, before going forward in the line of large appropriations by Congress for even so uncommonly good an object as the promotion of popular education in the South, we should carefully inquire whether the same purpose cannot be served by methods less dangerous in their probable consequences. We reserve other phases of the subject for future discussion.

THE DIPLOMA INDUSTRY IN MASSACHUSETTS.

A RECENT decision of the United States Commissioner at Boston has brought into unpleasant prominence the position of Massachusetts with reference to medical education. The case, briefly, was as follows: An institution calling itself the Bellevue Medical College, incorporated under the statutes of Massachusetts, after a preliminary correspondence by mail arranging the bargain, sold to a fictitious person, for the sum of one hundred and fifty dollars, its diploma conferring upon him the degree of Doctor of Medicine. Included in the same bargain were a certificate of matriculation and lecture tickets, showing that such person had attended a course of lectures. The certificate of matriculation and lecture tickets were sent by mail; the diploma by express, C. O. D. The parties implicated were arrested and tried upon a complaint, under the United States Revised Statutes, Section 5480, for using the mails for the purpose of defrauding. The evidence clearly established the fact that the matriculation certificate and lecture tickets, and the correspondence arranging the bargain, had been sent through the mails; also, the sale of the diploma to a person who had never attended the "college," and whose spelling and grammar showed him to be absolutely illiterate. The Commissioner discharged the prisoners, ruling that under the laws of Massachusetts there was nothing to prevent the founding of such schools and their issuing their diplomas to whomsoever they pleased—in a word, that the laws of Massachusetts sanctioned just such practices. Such seems to be the lamentable fact.

The night before the whole transaction was exposed in a daily paper, a reporter called at the "college," which, by the way, was the house of the "Dean." After a short, very short, beating about the bush, he came to the point by asking if he could not get the Bellevue diploma within six or eight weeks. The affable "Dean," who, it may be said incidentally, is a graduate of his own college, assured him that it could be easily arranged, observing cheerfully that the main thing to be acquired was "doctoral conduct." He assured the aspirant for medical honors that, armed with the Bellevue diploma, and putting on a bold front, he could easily take away business from the old fogies who had acquired their credentials to practice by the antiquated and musty method of study. Of these unfortunates the astute "Dean" remarked: "They carry no medicine except two or three ordinary powders." The Bellevue diploma was shown to the reporter. It was in Latin, for the correctness of which the learned "Dean" pledged his word. The whole transaction was thoroughly exposed in the newspapers. The "President," it is true, said that the case which came before the United States Commissioner was the only one which had occurred; but the business-like way in which the application was answered, the subsequent correspondence, and the reporter's interview with the "Dean," made even the most charitable question this assertion. One suggestion of the ingenuous President is worthy of note. In one of his letters he tells the applicant for the diploma to call speedily at the express office, and take away the precious parchment, for "the longer a thing lays in an express office, the more time there is for thought and gossip about it."

The ruling of the Commissioner is undoubtedly correct. Under the laws of Massachusetts to-day, a medical college can be formed by any seven persons. There is nothing to prevent boot-blacks or prize-fighters, many of whom now enjoy the title of "professor," from being its founders. No capital is required. The only necessary expense is the ink required to fill out the blanks gratuitously furnished by the Commissioner of Corporations, and the fee of five dollars for certifying to and recording the papers. Any name may be assumed "not previously in use by an existing corporation"—*i. e.*, ex-

isting in Massachusetts. The "Bellevue Medical College" is already formed and flourishing under this law. There is no reason why we should not soon have the "Dartmouth" and "Yale"; nay, for aught that appears in the statutes, we may soon have a new "Harvard Medical College," or "Harvard Medical Academy." Neither name is the same as "Medical School of Harvard University," but "'t is enough, 't will serve," and the diplomas would doubtless bring a good price at a distance from Boston. The papers, it is true, pass through the hands of the Commissioner of Corporations, and he certifies his approval upon them before the corporation can be formed. Still, it would seem that his supervision is merely to the point whether the statute requirements and prescribed formalities have been complied with. Apparently if a name is selected not previously in use, and not identical with that of an existing corporation, the Commissioner strictly would have no discretion in the matter. The college once formed, no proper supervision is prescribed by the State, no requirement that the instructors shall be physicians or even educated persons. No course or time of study is prescribed. True, there is no provision expressly authorizing these colleges to confer diplomas; *but there is nothing to prevent their doing so.* The boast of one of the "Bellevue" faculty, that they could issue diplomas to whom they pleased, seems to be but too true.

The ease with which these colleges can be formed, together with the absence of all statute requirements as to medical education and practice, brings about this discreditable state of things. The latter element is, of course, the more important. It might be argued that the easier it is to found schools and colleges, the better. Indeed, with strict provisions of law as to study and examinations at these colleges, and a watchful supervision by competent persons, the facility of formation might not be a very serious objection. At the same time, medical colleges may well be put in a separate category, and not included, as now, in a sort of omnibus chapter, applying indifferently to charitable societies; associations for encouraging athletic exercises and yachting; associations for encouraging the raising of choice breeds of domestic animals and poultry; Free Masons, Odd-Fellows, and Knights of Pythias associations, and several others. It would certainly be proper that some more stringent provisions as to the character of the founders of the college, the name and purpose of the institution, and its probable stability and genuineness of purpose should be required. If a school gets into ill odor for a time, there is nothing to prevent the formation of a new one with a spick and span new name.

The root of the whole evil, however, is the entire absence of any statute requirement as to the medical education and character of instructors, or the proper supervision of these schools. There would be no *raison d'être* for fraudulent medical schools were it not for these causes. The facility of organization merely furnishes an easy, cheap, and expeditious means of carrying out the schemes of their founders, as has already been exemplified in the case of the "Bellevue." That institution has shown the way, and there is nothing, as the law now stands, to prevent Massachusetts from becoming the principal seat of diploma manufacture for the whole country. The previous reputation of Massachusetts in connection with education in general gives her peculiar advantages in this respect. It is sometimes argued that the State has no right to prevent any one from practising the healing art. In Massachusetts to-day any one may assume that much-abused title of "doctor," may administer doses, and collect fees. Attempts to restrict this are, and always have been, bitterly opposed by the persons interested, with the sympathy of many of the people. This may be difficult to change; but surely no argument or sophistry can make it appear right that Massachusetts should allow these colleges to issue their fraudulent diplomas. If a man has no diploma, well and good. His status is defined. If a college, incorporated under the laws of the State, confers a diploma, let the State see to it that such diploma is a genuine and substantial credential for the practice of medicine, or else expressly forbid its issue. When once formed in accordance with the statutes, these schools are, in effect, just as fully authorized as any regularly chartered medical college. Massachusetts allows them to exist, and she is responsible for their conduct. She is to-day, in effect, encouraging the manufacture of fraudulent diplomas by schools which have assumed, or may assume, the names of long-established schools of other States. To put it on no higher ground, Massachusetts should not thus violate the plainest rules of fairness and honor in trade by tacitly permitting such base and colorable imitations to be sold.

THE MANNERS OF AMERICANS IN EUROPE.

A CORRESPONDENT of the *Sun*, apparently a Frenchwoman, writes a long letter on the tuft-hunting, title-worshipping extravagance, and social gullibility, and bad manners, and want of what may be called national self-respect of Americans in Europe, and the consequently wretched impression they make on the best circles of foreign society. The picture, like all such pictures, is too highly colored, and the story is now a somewhat old one. There is, however, a large amount of truth in it. It nevertheless is not the whole truth, because it gives the impression that these gaudy and ill-behaved Americans go where they are not wanted, and into scenes not prepared for them, or, in other words, that there is no European demand for such people. Unhappily there is a considerable demand for them. It began in France when Louis Napoleon set up his court thirty years ago, and organized it on what may be called a basis of pleasure. The courtiers were a queer lot, many of them with doubtful antecedents, but they had got hold of the French Treasury, after years of penury, and were intent on having plenty of fun. The other European courts were either very exclusive, like the Austrian, where nobody can cut capers unless he or she can show four quarterings at least (we are not sure that it is not eight); or like the Prussian, which was serious, military, and hard-working; or like the Italian, which was shy, sporting, and pious; or like the English, which was extremely domestic and æsthetic and philanthropic. The French started something new in the shape of a jolly court, where expense was no object, and where everybody who dressed well and was amusing was welcome, and few or no questions asked.

It was this which first started in American breasts the passion for court life and court company, which has since had such far-reaching effects. It came just as steam was making communication with Europe more easy and stimulating the habit among rich Americans of residing abroad, and when large fortunes were multiplying at the North. It lasted till the downfall of the Empire, and produced the extremely well-dressed American girl, and the sort of Gallo-Roman American man, who lived in Paris because of the Tuileries balls, and because he was so "well valeted," and got such good dinners there, and the streets were so clean, and finally concluded that an empire was what we needed in New York. The New York youth of that period, who had risen in his pleasures above the three-quarter wagon, fast trotter, and large diamond pin, was always modelled on the French type. He dressed like a Frenchman, inclined to fencing as his chief exercise, wore tight-fitting boots, and used French phrases freely in conversation, and, when he went to Europe, went straight to Paris.

This lasted till the battle of Sedan. The change worked by that fatal field is commonly supposed to have been felt only in Europe. It transferred the European hegemony, as the jurists say, from France to Germany, made Germany the great power of the West, and for the first time in two hundred years deprived France of all her terrors to her neighbors. But its obscurer and remoter effects on this continent were hardly less important. It made London instead of Paris the Mecca of the Americans who were bent on fun and fashion. By that time Prince Albert was dead; the Queen had retired from society; the Prince of Wales had come forward with a court of his own, modelled on that of the Tuileries, in so far as to offer a welcome to everybody who could furnish entertainment, without regard, in the noble language of the American Constitution, "to race, color, or previous condition of servitude." Moreover, in being an English-speaking court, it had very great advantages to Americans over the French court. It was very difficult for an American to be really droll in a way agreeable to himself at the Tuileries, owing to the difference of language. We doubt if either the Emperor or Empress ever really grasped "American humor," or knew how funny a "sassy" American girl, with plenty of "snap," can be.

Under the new régime, however, in London, a field was really opened, in which every variety of American talent in the way of social amusement found a ready welcome, and in which no defects of education or manners were an impediment. The pleasure class in England to-day would make itself ridiculous if it undertook to criticise the manners, morals, or aims of their American friends. The latter are, on the whole, sprightlier, more entertaining than their

foreign associates, and fully as well dressed and well educated, and have about as high aims in life. Their misfortune is that they have no country behind them to give them real self-confidence and self-respect. The most worthless and ignorant English sporting-man has roots in the soil of his own land, and commands a certain amount, at least, of the sympathy and admiration of his countrymen, and feels himself a part of a great state, a sharer in its glories and its hopes. His American companion has no such aids to mental repose, does not feel that the United States are at his back, is not an acknowledged product of the soil, and is ashamed of his countrymen, and timid about their future. But it is a gross slander of him to say that he does not do the business he is engaged in in England as well as his English companions, or to say that the American girl does not do it far better. She does not lose by comparison in manners, and she is pre-eminent in dress and amusingness.

THE DIFFICULTIES OF FLOWER REFORM.

We have received from all sides suggestions with regard to the movement against bouquets, which are gratifying as showing the interest taken in the subject, but some of which lead us to think that the full magnitude of the task of effecting a permanent flower reform is not appreciated. Inquiries among the florists of the city show that thus far they do not perceive any change of feeling in the flower market except with regard to funerals, and though experience shows that people can be deterred by public advertisement from making death more painful by contributions of floral "emblems," this proves little or nothing with regard to bouquets. The friends and relatives of a deceased person have the field entirely to themselves, and if they advertise that they do not wish to have flowers sent, they are free to have their own way. But everybody knows that in the United States friends and relatives have no control over a live girl, and that if she wishes to have bouquets sent her, the opposition of her father and mother will count for nothing. She will look upon them as "old fogies," and will tell her friends in confidence how much trouble the old people give her.

Again, the permanence of the "floral-trophy" business at the theatre and opera shows how difficult it is to introduce any reform wherever there is a live woman to thwart the reformer's efforts. A shower of bouquets falling at the feet of a favorite actress or singer amid a storm of applause would be, no doubt, a pretty sight, if we ever saw it; but a floral ship or anchor, solemnly conveyed at a preconcerted signal down the middle aisle, and handed up to the stage by the leader of the orchestra, to be carried off by a "supe," and then, it seems, to be taken down stairs and made over into a floral harp or bird-cage for the next act, does not suggest spontaneous admiration or delight. Managers, we believe, would like reform here. The only explanation we have ever seen given of our curious theatrical floral customs is that, if left to themselves, actresses and singers (who are not even under the restraints imposed by tradition upon the "society girl") make private arrangements, when they can afford it, to have flowers thrown at them by admirers retained for the occasion, which introduces jealousy and ill-feeling into the company. To avoid this, managers resort to the curious floral-trophy system, for they well know that they can no more cut off a star from flowers altogether than they could a confirmed toper from his daily dram. To most people the cure in this case seems worse than the disease. Managers of germans would never be able to introduce such a custom at balls, for they have no such control over star girls as enables them to enforce rules and regulations with regard to their public appearances.

We may mention here that we have been requested by one correspondent, who, it is needless to say, is not a bachelor, not to overlook the married man's flower grievance. A married man, he says, who dances the german has, in the first place, to send a bouquet to his partner, like any other man. But in addition to this, if his wife does not dance, or is not asked in advance, he must, for the sake of appearances and domestic peace, provide her with a bouquet fully as large as that which he gives his partner — very prudent husbands, he adds, make sure that they are a little larger. This custom, however, cannot be said to stand on an independent footing. It is clearly an outgrowth of the general bouquet habit, and, in fact, is merely a symptom of the bouquet habit as aggravated by marriage, and to attempt to cure one without the other would be folly.

There are two general difficulties which stand in the way of a permanent flower reform, which are curiously like those the reformer often meets with in matters of no interest to "society circles." Every girl will easily perceive that the changes the reformers have at heart will have to be introduced in practice by those who are interested in the perpetuation of the very abuse they desire to get rid of— which makes the case not unlike that of civil-service reform. The mothers and aunts and elder sisters occupy to the Girls who manage society a relation analogous to that which the "schoolmasters" and doctrinaires and theorists and the press generally do to the Boys who run the political machine. Their position is, indeed, weaker, for there is no electoral social body to which they can appeal, and on whose trust and confidence the power of the Girl depends. You can frighten the worst Boy into favoring civil-service legislation by voting, and getting those who sympathize with you to vote, against his "ticket." But the Girl's power is not dependent on any social primaries or conventions. The only ticket which she is concerned with is a dancing ticket, which no rival or reformer can scratch after she has once "slated" the candidates. Her social power and authority being derived entirely from herself, she can bid defiance to everybody, including the very parents and guardians who supply her with money for her career. The Girl is in fact the only absolutely independent and autocratic type in modern society. The political Boy, who resembles her at some points, is a slave of public opinion compared with her. Now, with the girl, business is business, and if she has six bouquets for the german, she will not, we may be sure, give up carrying them without knowing why.

If this difficulty resembles those which the civil-service reformer encounters, in another aspect the movement is hampered by an obstacle which reminds the observer of the struggle for free trade. Not only are the persons interested in the continuance of the abuse those by whom reform must be introduced, but those who are the natural agitators for it are inevitably charged with interested motives. These are, of course, the girls who do not get bouquets in advance, and the men. A man who announces that he thinks it far better not to send bouquets, has not only to endure the unpopularity which is sure to be the lot of any one who desires to effect social improvement, but to encounter the odious imputation of hiding a mean desire for economy under the mask of reform. The free-trader's case shows us how hard it is for a reformer to meet such imputations with success. He may empty his pockets and show that there is no "British gold" in them; he may prove by indisputable evidence that he is not interested in the wicked business of importing foreign goods; but the suspicion of a sinister interest clings to him. If he cannot escape calumny, what chance is there for the male bouquet reformer? The very sensitiveness of nature which leads him to appreciate the unquestionable necessity of reform will make him shrink from the idea of meeting the cool, penetrating gaze of a girl whom he has invited to dance the german, and to whom he has knowingly and wilfully neglected to send a bouquet. He might be willing to be thought old-fashioned or "queer," but to get a reputation of being "real mean," and a hypocrite besides, is what no young man can be expected to endure for the sake of bringing about an improvement in girls which it will take years to effect, and the full benefit of which will not be reaped by his generation of german dancers.

All this shows that reform is out of the question, unless the intellect of the Girl herself can be touched. What the reformers will have to do will be to convince her mind that it is for her interest, from a purely business point of view, to encourage the growth of what she is accustomed to hear her mother and father talk of as Sentiment; that of sentiment in connection with a german bouquet there is really no more than there would be in a bag of potatoes or a barrel of flour, and that the display of them suggests to the spectators only comical ideas. If the Girl's mind can once be convinced of this, the desire for reform will spring up in her breast; but for this purpose she must be caught very young.

IMPRESSION OF GAMBETTA'S DEATH IN ENGLAND AND ON THE CONTINENT.

London, January 9, 1883.

The impression produced in England by the death of Léon Gambetta has been quite independent of any political feeling. If he had never shown any hostility to us, neither had he shown in his public conduct any specially friendly feeling; and it was in fact chiefly he and his adherents who had disliked our isolated action in Egypt, and were protesting most loudly against what they considered the exclusion of

France from future influence there. Nor did his position as the great antagonist of clericalism and champion of advanced democratic ideas make him conspicuously acceptable to one party in England, or conspicuously condemned by the other. The French Monarchists have so played their cards as to have lost such sympathy as they might have counted on both in England and in Germany. Here we have ever since 1871 assumed the Republic to be firmly established in France, and been able to look with calmness on the struggles of the different parties, desiring to see the present form of government maintain itself because it is the present form, and therefore most likely to preserve order at home and keep the peace abroad. The general regret, therefore, excited by the news of Gambetta's death is rather a tribute to his eminence as a man than an expression of agreement with his policy. A brilliant career has been suddenly cut short; a striking individuality extinguished; an eloquent and passionate voice stilled for ever. It is not in human nature not to be moved by such an event, and not to lament in it the instability of human fortunes and the disappointment of cherished hopes. Gambetta's was the one figure and name in France which had become familiar to all Europe. His energy, his patriotism, his hopefulness, had made him seem from 1870 onward the man of the future; the political tact and judgment which he showed in maintaining the struggle against the Reactionists under MacMahon's Presidency, the more statesmanlike tone of his opinions, and the growing sobriety with which he expressed them, gave foreign observers the impression that he was the likeliest person to exercise a moral ascendancy in a country which has scarcely yet learned to work constitutional forms as they are worked in America or England. These expectations had been damped by the ill-success of his ministry in the beginning of last year. It was plain that he had excited much jealousy; and many things were said, not so much to his own discredit as to that of the group which surrounded him. However, he continued, in the popular eye, to overtop all other French politicians. Men compared his position to that of Mr. Gladstone in England, or of Prince Bismarck in Germany, great and obvious as the differences were. He possessed that force, that potent personality, which more than anything else impresses the popular imagination. What, however, will be the political consequences of his removal is a question on which opinion here, as well as in the rest of Europe, is greatly divided.

Two views are put forward. One, which seems to prevail in Germany, is that he was an element of danger to the peace of the Continent; that in him the passion for revenge, which the Germans continue to attribute to the French people, was personified; that he cherished the traditions of French glory and French extensions of territory both in Europe and through the rest of the world; that his personal tastes led him to an ambitious foreign policy of which he should be the director. However small the likelihood of an attack by France upon Germany may seem at present, while Bismarck and Moltke live, it is always a possible event, especially if the anti-German feeling in Russia should increase; and Gambetta would have been the man to seize a favorable occasion for precipitating the conflict, would have roused France to recover Alsace and Lorraine as perhaps no other man could. There are also those who doubt whether the presence in France of such a man was not a menace to the permanence of her republican government. In a country long used to personal rule, there must remain a tendency to prefer the person to the system, to lean too much on him, to intrust him with powers too wide for the public safety. Gambetta himself could hardly be suspected of aiming at a dictatorship. There is every reason to think that he was, although personally ambitious, and fond of pomp and fame as well as of the reality of power, an honest and sincere republican. But circumstances might have almost forced a dictatorship on him; and whether he had used such a position well or ill, the result would have been almost equally unfortunate for France. In the republics of ancient Greece, when a man became too conspicuous, even by his services, he was sometimes exiled, by the process the Athenians called ostracism; exiled not as a punishment, but merely as a precaution required in the interests of the republic. Any overshadowing personality is dangerous to a state whose idea is equality as well as liberty. If the Republic is fit to stand, it is sure to find men capable of filling its offices; it is, indeed, the merit of a republic that, resting on public opinion, it can go on comparatively little shaken by the loss of its most eminent citizens.

The opposite view, which regards his death as a serious blow to France as a power and to the Republic as a system, finds many advocates both in Italy and in England. In France itself, the Royalist papers are, of course, the first to proclaim that the Republic has fallen with its most famous chief. No one cares much for opinions which policy as well as hope suggests. But there are wise and cool heads among the French Republicans who regret Gambetta, not as a prop to the Republic, but as a valuable link, or rather a middle term, between the Conservative Republicans, such as those who have composed most of the ministries under President Grévy, and that revolutionary party whose more moderate wing is represented by M. Clémenceau, while its more extreme section is communist and anarchist. Not only Gambetta's services in 1871, but the vehemence of his denunciations of imperialism in the days of Louis Napoleon, and the skill with which he led the resistance to M. de Fourtou and M. de Broglie in the Presidency of Marshal MacMahon, had given him a great hold on the masses, and made them believe in him as a politician of a thoroughly popular and democratic type. Hence he had a restraining power over them which the more conservative Republicans lacked. His opportunism was not taken, except by the fierce Revolutionaries, as denoting a want of genuine democratic sentiment; it was merely the prudence of a man who sees that everything cannot be done at once. His death, consequently, leaves the rank and file of those advanced Republicans who are yet short of being anarchists without the controlling and restraining, if not guiding, force they formerly felt. It therefore makes the republic seem a more dangerous form of government to the timid and undecided part of the nation, because they now begin to fear far more the carrying out of a thoroughly radical, anti-clerical, and anti-property programme. Gambetta had marked to them a kind of limit beyond which executive power would not go. He was an advanced democrat, yet he had held power and exercised it with a sense of responsibility and a respect for existing rights. He had been President of the Chamber. He was not a man to throw the reins on the neck of the mob; so he might be trusted with power again. But beyond him all seemed chaos; and, as his removal may be thought to bring the representatives of chaos nearer, it is calculated to alarm that part of the bourgeoisie and peasantry which, while accepting the existing republic, is very sensitive on the subject of communism, and has no wish to see the Catholic Church further interfered with. Add to this that, after all, he was one of the great forces of the country; that great forces are useful in a crisis, because they may be able to dominate the passions of opposing parties and avert a civil war; and that no one can tell how soon some crisis may arrive in France—and it may fairly be concluded that on the whole his death is an injury both to the present constitution and to France herself. Nations have often suffered by the death of eminent men; they have very seldom gained, even when the man seemed a source of danger, for the danger that threatened from him usually begins to threaten from some one else, while it does not equally often happen that when a hero perishes some other hero of like merit is found to arise.

On the whole, the tendency of the other countries of Europe, of Germany, Italy, and England, seems to be to exaggerate the political importance of the event, doubtless because Gambetta had made a great impression on foreigners, who knew his name much better than they have known that of any other Frenchman since Thiers; whereas in France itself his influence had been seriously shaken by the collapse of his Ministry in February last, and the public, being familiar with the other parliamentary leaders, did not assign to him the same conspicuous isolation. To us in England, gathering French opinions not from newspapers only, but also through other channels, it does not appear that the French think the political situation materially altered. Cool and judicious observers there believe that the Republic will hold its ground, not so much from its own merits as from the weakness of its enemies. The Assembly grows more and more uncertain and wavering; its tone, and that of political life altogether, is far from high; it splits up into sections whose dissensions prevent the establishment of a strong ministry. But the Count of Chambord is an "impossible person," so that while he lives a Royalist restoration need hardly be feared. The Bonapartists are without a head, and every year that passes weakens them by removing the old leaders of the faction, while new ones do not naturally arise in their place. Hence no monarchical revolution need be feared. Though there is always a wish that the energetic Republican masses of the towns may drive the Assembly on to measures which by disgusting the bourgeoisie and the peasantry will provoke a reaction, this reaction can scarcely go the length of changing the form of government back to one which is likely to be even less stable than the present. As regards foreign war, all we hear in France goes to show that the great bulk of the nation have abandoned the idea of an attack on Germany. They hate the conscription and all that it involves; they were so much disgusted with their little war in Tunis as to have refused to interfere by arms in Egypt; they remember too plainly the miseries of 1870, and the loss of so many of their relatives then, to desire to provoke a war. There is no decline of national spirit, but a more rational view of the respective evils and gains which war may bring. Therefore, not even Gambetta, had he recovered his ascendancy, would have been likely to persuade the mass of the people to challenge Germany afresh; and his death does not substantially confirm peace, because peace was not threatened before.

This seems to be the French view—the view, that is, of impartial Republican observers in France herself. But neither Germany nor Italy shares it. The German press has with one voice expressed the relief of their countrymen that an element of danger had departed, and some have felicitated Prince Bismarck on the death of Gambetta, whom they deemed the great foe of Germany in the West, as they did a few months ago on the death of General Skobeleff, the dar-

ling of the Russian Army, and most active champion of that Panslavist party which threatens Germany from the East. In Italy, though the Liberals had much sympathy with Gambetta, both on the score of blood (for his father was a Genoese) and because he was the embodiment of the anti-clerical spirit, there are many who regard his departure as a piece of good fortune. There is a deep jealousy of France among the Italians. They think her their most dangerous neighbor, and have gone on strengthening their fleet chiefly in order to be able to hold their own against her in the Mediterranean. Her seizure of Tunis, where Italy has many subjects settled, and in which she claimed divers rights, incensed them; nor was their irritation lessened by the cool and somewhat arrogant attitude France has assumed. Contemplating a war with France as a possibility, they are well pleased to see France fully occupied at home, divided by struggling factions, tending to a policy of peace and non-intervention, instead of under the guidance of one resolute will, ambitious of glory in the field of general European politics.

To the relations of England with France the event makes no difference. The fashion of some writers is to speak of England and France as in a special sense allies, and compare the tie which unites them with that which binds Austria and the Germanic Empire. But this is a misconception. Between ourselves and France there has been almost uninterrupted good-will since the Republic was established, but there has never been the intention of going beyond good-will and forming a league directed against any other powers. We have no interest whatever in any question affecting the Continent of Europe, except as respects Belgium, nor in any Mediterranean question, except as respects the Suez Canal and Egypt. In neither case do the interests of France coincide in any peculiar sense with our own; nor can those of any other European power be said to be opposed to our own. There exists, therefore, no ground for our contracting on the Continent any such offensive and defensive alliance as that which Germany and Austria have formed, and which is at present the main diplomatic fact of Europe. And, indeed, the English have during the last two or three years seemed to care less and less for questions of foreign policy. That Government will best please the people which most leaves them alone, and which so conducts the settlement of Egypt in particular as to give the fewest occasions for diplomatic dealings in future. But this is not always understood abroad, and the German newspapers in particular amuse us by their speculations as to the disposition of England now to accept, now to refuse the German alliance, now to cool and now to grow warmer in her friendship for France. We regret in Gambetta a brilliant and interesting figure, but that is all. Y.

THE PRUSSIAN RAILWAY SERVICE.

BERLIN, January 4, 1883.

IN consequence of a debate in the German Reichstag in relation to the so-called Imperial railroads of Alsace-Lorraine and their alleged unprofitableness, some leading English, French, and Italian papers have been led into the mistake that the Prussian railroads, ever since they have been subjected to state management and control, have not been able to pay the interest on their indebtedness, and that on the whole they are a heavy burden on the taxpayers. Some of these foreign papers even went so far as to assert that the state management did not give satisfaction to the public, and to draw from it conclusions against the correctness of the principle of railroad ownership by the state. I do not know whether your press has, in this respect, also followed in the track of the European journals, but, apart from general economical principles, the question in itself is important enough to be fully and impartially stated to the American reader, the more so as the success or failure of the Prussian attempt must influence the railroad problem in other countries too. I need not repeat the reasons for and against railroad ownership by the Government, as I have tried to explain them in my former letters. I can, therefore, confine myself to some new statistical facts and figures, leaving you to draw the consequences yourself.

The Prussian budget for the fiscal year 1883–1884 (April 1 to March 31) contains some very interesting particulars. According to them, the whole length of railroad owned by the Government was 15,403 kilometres (1.61 km. = one English mile). To this must be added 2,306 kilometres of private roads which are under state management exclusively, and 1,395 Alsace-Lorraine roads (*Reichsbahnen*) alluded to in the beginning of this letter, making in all 19,104 kilometres which are administered by the Prussian Minister of Public Works, while the whole length of all German railroads amounts to a little over 34,000 kilometres. The greater part, however, of the remaining 15,000 (in round numbers) kilometres does not belong to private companies, but has been built and is run by the Governments of the kingdoms of Bavaria, Saxony, Würtemberg, as well as that of the Grand Duchy of Baden, so that the principle of German railroad administration is nearly the same all over the country.

The indebtedness of the Prussian Government for its railroad property up to April 1, 1883, amounts on the whole to 2,691,644,489 marks, or about $673,000,000, the yearly interest on which requires the sum of 109,457,679 marks, or about $27,000,000. The receipts for 1882–1883 were 390,151,609 marks, and for 1883–1884 they are estimated at 514,722,261 marks. The expenses—interest, of course, included—for the corresponding periods were: In 1882–83, 281,944,333 marks, and as estimated for 1883–84, 384,576,286 marks. Thus the surplus in 1882–83 was 108,207,276 marks, and for 1883–84 it is estimated at 230,151,975 marks. The great discrepancy in the receipts and expenses of more than 100,000,000 in two years is explained by the fact that in the first year the Government owned several thousand kilometres of roads less than at present.

The law of March 27, 1882, prescribes that out of the receipts there shall be paid, first, the interest on the railroad indebtedness; second, 2,200,000 marks for general Government purposes, or for covering an eventual deficit in the regular budget, while the balance must be employed for the sinking fund of railroad indebtedness. Thus for this purpose the amount of 18,458,296 marks has been set apart for the year 1883-84. The state railroad running shows a yearly increasing surplus. Over and above all costs, expenses, and interest there were cleared in 1878-79 7,640,000 marks; in 1879-80, 13,600,000 marks, in 1880-81, 38,300,000 marks (five quarters), and in 1881-82, 31,450,000 marks. For 1883-84 the surplus very moderately is estimated at only 18,000,000 marks, while it will amount to at least 32,000,000 marks. The great difference in the receipts of 1880 and 1881 is chiefly caused by the purchase of some 6,000 new kilometres of private railroads. If ever a deficiency should occur, it must be paid by a state loan. Among the regular expenses there are large amounts for the equipment and partial renovation of the roads. Thus, for the next fiscal year the funds are provided for 177 new locomotives, for 240 passenger cars, and for 1,637 baggage and freight cars.

Moreover, the budget will every year be relieved of at least one million of marks for the payment of the salaries and pensions of those officers and clerks who, having been appointed by the private companies, did not enter into the Government's service, or of the fees of the directors of such companies as have not yet been dissolved. A still larger item with which the Government railroads are charged is the gratuitous service which they are obliged to render to the Post-office Department. The old private roads could only obtain a charter on condition that they bound themselves to attend without charge to the royal mails, with at least one post-office car on each mail train, and to forward gratis all parcels and packages of less than ten pounds' weight. The Government, in purchasing the roads, was, of course, also subject to these terms. At present the costs for extra cars and for forwarding packages heavier than ten pounds are estimated at 2,250,000 marks, which, of course, the Post-office Department has to reimburse, and which form part of the regular receipts; and, on the other hand, the latter yearly saves 14,000,000 marks by the gratuitous service of the Railroad Department. As far as I know, Germany has the cheapest and best mail service, for which to a great extent she is indebted to the gratuitous coöperation of the railroads.

In my opinion there is no doubt that the efficiency of the railroad service will still increase, while the costs of its management must decrease. Thus, the luxury of half-a-dozen or more costly depots in one city, where one would suffice, of hundreds of superfluous officers and clerks, and the nuisance of deadheadism have already been done away with by the Government. Free or complimentary tickets are not even issued to the Minister of Public Works and his subordinates; the ministerial councillors and assessors have to pay just as well as any private citizen. For their official trips they can charge the ordinary fare. The squandering of large sums for rich buildings and private offices has been stopped, but the comfort and the ease of the travelling public have rather been enhanced. I have, therefore, never heard of any well-founded complaint; on the contrary, the present system gives full satisfaction as far as the wants of the traveller and of transportation are concerned. The service is prompt and regular, the treatment of the passengers polite and respectful, the forwarding of the freight punctual and strict, while the accommodations, instead of having been curtailed, have been largely extended on the Government roads. Thus all apprehensions of a parsimony injurious to the public have proved idle, and continue to be so, the more as it is in the interest of the Government, as well as that of any other common carrier, fully to do its duty by attending to the wants of its customers.

The natural development of the Prussian railroad system of course lies in the acquisition of the remaining private roads by the Government, and it will not be long before they are purchased. The most important lines which control the traffic of the country are already in its possession. It therefore can afford to proceed at an easier rate and consult its general financial condition. According to the newspapers, the Minister of Public Works will again apply to the Prussian Landtag, at its present session, for the purchase of several first and second-class roads. I have no official information on that subject, but so much is certain, that negotiations are pending between the Government and the Berlin-Hamburg Railroad Company for the purchase of that important link between the German capital and the seacoast.

As far as I can judge, the system works well. Instead of having centralized the whole business

of the Government roads, it has decentralized it. Thus the Berlin central railroad department has been relieved of many embarrassing details and a great number of annoying minutiæ of the service. The whole Prussian railroad service is now attended to by ten large departments (formerly twenty-one smaller ones), created in the several provinces—viz., at Bromberg, Breslau, Berlin, Magdeburg, Erfurt, Frankfort-on-the-Main, Cologne (two head offices, one of which is for the railroads on the eastern and the other for those on the western side of the Rhine), Elberfeld, and Hanover, which are all independent of the Minister, and need only refer to him in doubtful matters, while all the wants and complaints of the local roads are administered and remedied by the respective provincial departments.

Thus, in theory and in practice, the Prussian Government shows its sound judgment in expediting business and in its dealings with the public; but where it is blamable is in the assuming way in which it treats the still surviving small private companies, the infallible superiority with which it answers their demands and complaints, and the arrogant tutelage with which it interferes in their affairs. Personally these royal ministers and councillors are perfect gentlemen, able administrators, and obliging officers. The same man, however, who in his private affairs exhibits the strictest scrupulosity and integrity, will never hesitate to follow up the position of his Government to gain an undue advantage, and will always have a legion of shallow reasons at his disposal to justify his conduct. The Prussian law subjects the private roads to the superintendence of the Minister of Public Works. His ratification is necessary for every cent that is to be spent for improvements, for every sale of goods which has become advisable or necessary, and even for the change of any train. There occur daily instances of ministerial interference which come near Turkish justice. One of the smaller eastern roads wished to sell a few locomotives, because they were too heavy for the sandy plain through which they had to pass, and because it could realize a handsome profit by such sale. The Minister, who had previously forced the company to buy these locomotives, refused his consent, as at perhaps not too distant a day they might be used for the transport of troops and heavy ordnance in a war with Russia. The Government collects its taxes and imposts from a railroad company just as from any other private citizen; nevertheless it demands pecuniary sacrifices from it. In another case the Minister refused to pay to a railroad company a certain sum which had been stipulated for a lease which he had given up before its expiration. He pleaded that the company had suffered no actual damages by his breaking the contract, and that he had to save the money due to the company, in the interest of the tax-paying public. The indignation at this outrageous plea was so great that the matter was finally hushed up. Still another case: A large railroad company proposed to buy a smaller line within its territory. The Minister refused his approval, for the reason that competition was the soul of business, and that, consequently, both lines were necessary. A short time after, he himself bought the large company, but now he bleeds the smaller line to death, by withdrawing from it the greater part of its business. While in case of a sale the shareholders would have got at least twenty-five per cent., if not more, of their capital, they now lose everything.

Happily this state of things will not last long, as in a few years the present transitory condition of the remaining private roads will come to an end; but the fiscal greediness which is one of the ugliest traits of our administrative organs, will remain, as it is rooted in the political development of Prussia, and as it directly flows from some of our best institutions. "The fisc" (the state in its quality as owner and claimant of private property and rights) is to all independent people the most hated corporation. As mean, as hungry, as contemptible as the fisc, is a common saying. The judges, with rare exceptions, are happy when they can render judgment against the fisc. It finds its only explanation and excuse in the gradual development of Prussia out of small and scanty beginnings, and will finally be swept away by the growing wealth and independence of the people. † † †

ELEMENTS OF DISCORD IN ITALY.

VENETIA, Jan. 9, 1883.

WHEN I wrote, anent the new Reform Bill, that the granting of the suffrage was a leap in the dark, I was so far right. I may now add that, like a mist, it has left the weather as it found it. Yesterday the supplementary elections took place, and even these have brought no change in the situation. It was believed by many that the masses admitted to the urn (about three millions) would gladly have availed themselves of a privilege which in England is so highly esteemed that the working classes will even practise economy and subject their families to actual privation, in order to qualify themselves for the vote. Not so here. The Italian working classes, and a considerable portion of the middle classes, hope so little from parliamentary institutions that they cannot even be induced to go to the urn to register their vote. Under the old régime, 56 per cent. of the electors was the maximum that availed themselves of their electoral rights; this year 49 per cent. have done so. This indifference has ever existed in Italy. In the famous proclamation of Moncalieri, in 1849, when King Victor Emmanuel, after the defeat of Novara, finding that the majority of the members of the Chamber of Deputies declined to ratify the treaty of peace, dissolved the House, and threatened to abolish the statute, he reproached the electors "because scarcely one-third of them availed themselves of their privilege."

The situation of parties remains unchanged in the Chambers. The old Conservative party, called Moderates, numbers barely a hundred; the Extreme Left, or Ultra-Radicals, about fifty; the Progressists, as they call themselves, three hundred; and now Depretis is doing his utmost to unite Conservatives and Progressists, in order to deprive the Radicals of any influence in the decisions of the House. His first victory was effected on the oath question. Deputy Fallaroni having refused to take the oath, the Government brought in a bill declaring the seat of any member-elect who refuses to take the oath to be vacant within two months, the same penalty to be inflicted should a member fail to present himself in the House itself. This is a most reactionary measure. Italy is still ruled by the old statute granted by Charles Albert in 1848, although in the plébiscite of Lombardy, annexing that province to Piedmont, it was expressly stipulated that the population should be summoned to elect a constituent assembly, whence should issue the new constitution. This formula was omitted from all the other plébiscites, the populations being called to vote for or against their union under Victor Emmanuel and his heirs. But it stands to reason that a statute granted by the King of a small province, just emerged from despotism, cannot suffice for a population of nearly thirty millions, especially considering that certain provinces, such as Venetian Lombardy and Tuscany, were in possession of far more enlightened codes.

And yet this same statute merely provides that "senators and deputies, before being admitted to the exercise of their functions, shall swear to be faithful to the King, to observe the statute and the laws of the state, and exercise their functions in view of the inseparable welfare of the King and of the country." There is no penalty annexed, nor does any later law provide for the vacation of a seat. In 1867, Count Crotti, one of the stanch supporters of the Pope and the temporal power, being summoned to take the oath (which the Speaker reads aloud), instead of simply answering, "Giuro" (I swear), made answer, "I swear to be faithful to the King and to the statute, *salvo* divine and ecclesiastical laws"; on which the President admonished him that the statute permits neither restrictions nor reserves. After long discussion, and when a considerable time had passed, the House voted the following order of the day: "The College of Verres is declared vacant." And now, after fifteen years have elapsed, another deputy refuses to swear. Why in his case was not the same decision applied? In the present instance, Deputy Ceneri proposed the abolition of the oath, but was only supported by twenty-six Ultra-Radicals; whereas, while the majority voted with Depretis for his illiberal measure, sixty-eight voted against it, and Signor Bonghi, the main pillar of the moderate Church, in an elaborate article, demonstrates that the new law is at one and the same time unjust and unnecessary. It is a significant fact, however, that the first measure voted by a House elected, one might almost say, by universal suffrage, should be of a reactionary nature.

The democratic party, nevertheless, is daily increasing in force and in numbers outside the House. Its counsels are by no means revolutionary, in the strict sense of the word, as the first article of its creed is respect for the will of the nation and deprecation of any violent attempts to change the present order of things. Its chief efforts are directed against the evils of centralization. A country like Italy, divided hitherto into seven provinces, each ruled from a separate centre, suffers exceptionally from the ridiculous attempt to regulate its every movement from Rome. Take the late inundations. In the bad old days of despotism, the great rivers Adige and Po were regulated by the local authorities, hydraulic engineers expressly educated for their special functions being resident in the chief towns along the banks. The rivers could not rise the hundredth part of an inch without the alarm being given all along the line. Immense magazines were kept stored with sacks of earth, faggots, cradles, huge stones, and other material necessary for heightening the embankments or strengthening the outworks. Now nothing can be done save by direct orders from Rome, transmitted through the hierarchy of public servants. In the recent instances, a number of citizens who rushed to the places threatened, and actually prevented a catastrophe, were menaced with condign punishment for their services. Again, it being deemed necessary to cut one of the embankments, in order to allow the floods free exit to the sea, while awaiting the necessary orders from Rome the river burst its embankment in five places, carrying death and destruction in its course; and at the present moment, in midwinter, thousands of families are houseless and homeless, huddled in barns, granaries, and unhealthy churches, where diarrhœa and diphtheria are decimating their numbers. The sums collected by private charity or sent by the Government are doled out by the syndics in the form of black bread, a shakedown of straw, and a horse-cloth,

It is natural enough that the adversaries of existing institutions should contrast the Polesine, inundated and left to rot, with Chicago burned down and rebuilt in six months.

At the present moment the Oberdank agitation bids fair to assume serious proportions. Unlike the "unredeemed Italy" agitation of 1880, promoted and fostered by political agitators, the present movement is a spontaneous outburst of popular hatred for the very name of Austria. It is not so much that the Italians are specially anxious for the annexation of Trieste and the Italian Tyrol as that the very idea of an Italo-Austrian alliance is abhorrent to them. The execution of Oberdank has revived the bitter memories of the assassination of over 4,000 patriots in 1849–50, the brutal butchering of Ciceroacchio and his sons, the murder of Ugo Bassi, the ten martyrs hung at Mantua in 1852, the wholesale executions in Milan after the 6th of February, 1853, and the continued series of insults, woman-beatings, and murders perpetrated in Lombardy and Venice up to the last hour of Austrian occupation. Sixteen years are too few to efface such memories. Guerrazzi's dying hour was embittered by hearing a band play the Austrian National Anthem. When the Emperor of Austria came to Venice all the chief families and many of the poorest quitted the city, and the Marquis George Pallavicini, "cousin to the King" in virtue of being Knight of the Annunciata, in answer to the King's invitation to be present at the Imperial reception, replied: "Your Majesty forgets that for twenty years I wore the uniform of an Austrian galley slave." King Humbert has never recovered the popularity he lost during his visit to Vienna, and any attempt to force on the projected alliance will be prejudicial, not to say fatal, to monarchy. The prevailing irritation is increased by the fact that the first demonstrations of sympathy with the victim, such as the publication of Carducci's wonderful prose poem, and the hundreds of telegrams of condolence to the mother, who has since died of grief, were allowed to pass. Then came remonstrances from Vienna, and Signor Depretis set about the work of repression with a zeal never shown by D'Azeglio or Cavour when Austria was actually thundering at the gates of little Piedmont. One hundred and fifty-nine newspapers have been sequestrated during the past week, sixty-nine arrests made in one night, private domiciles illegally entered, sculptors' studios overturned in quest of Oberdank busts, while Depretis actually refused an interpellation on the subject of the execution. The stone thrown at Count Paar's carriage and the revolver fired at the Austrian arms are the isolated acts of two crazy youths. The leaders of the popular party have taken no part in the agitation, and would deprecate the idea of a war at the present time, knowing Italy to be utterly unprepared in any case. Although the Austrian official press puts a good face on the matter, and praises the Government for its admirable energy in repression, it is quite certain that the Emperor of Austria will not pay his projected visit to Italy this year, and that it would be the height of unwisdom were he to attempt it. M. W.

Correspondence.

TENNESSEE NOT IN FAVOR OF REPUDIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a reader of your journal, I am familiar with its well-known willingness to hear all sides of all questions, in order that your readers may know the truth. I cannot forbear, when so much is being said at this time against the people of Tennessee, to say a word in their behalf. They have been greatly misunderstood by many, and vilely slandered by the railroad monopolists. I state it upon my honor as a man (and I formerly lived in Tennessee, and know what I say to be true) that *there has never been a party in that State in favor of repudiation;* and in this I am sustained by the Hon. John L. G. Sneed, ex-Judge of the Supreme Court of that State, who made the same statement in a recent speech delivered in Bolivar, Tenn. All of the people are in favor of paying the State debt proper—that is, the debt from which the people received the direct benefit—in full; and the only trouble has arisen over the railroad debt, which is now in dispute and litigation, and awaiting argument in the Supreme Court of the United States. The bonds are a lien upon the railroads *until they are paid.* The railroads regularly paid the interest on the bonds before the war, and should pay it now. Many good men and true have long held that, inasmuch as the railroads received the direct benefit from the railroad debt, they in good conscience and equity should pay it; and I rejoice to say that the recent decision of the U. S. Circuit Court in Arkansas, in regard to a similar debt, contracted in a similar way, triumphantly vindicates them from the charge of repudiation, and sustains their position.

But, waiving the question of the liability of the railroads, and considering the equities on both sides, the people now say to the bondholders: We will pay the State debt proper dollar for dollar, and we will settle the railroad debt at 50 cents on the dollar, with bonds bearing interest at 3 per cent. Ever since the war, bills for a settlement of the debt have been regularly "railroaded" through the Legislature, but the people couldn't be forced to swallow them. In the last election in that State, the people for the first time took this matter into their own hands, and now tender the 100–6 and 50–3 settlement as a finality. This is a settlement upon a true State-credit basis, and the bondholders should accept it, because it is one which the people can and will maintain. I venture the prediction that when the present Legislature shall have recorded the will of the people by passing the 100–6 and 50–3 bill, and the position of the State shall have become thoroughly understood, the bonds will rise in the market, and Tennessee's credit will stand as high as that of any other State in the Union.—Very respectfully yours,

Louis G. Munford.

3 Fifth Avenue, New York, Jan. 20, 1883.

[We cannot, on our correspondent's theory, account for the widespread delusion on this subject. The present struggle between Tennessee and her creditors began in 1877, when the latter submitted to an arbitration advising "the issuance of new six per cent. bonds at the rate of sixty per cent. of the total amount of principal and past-due interest," and a special tax levy to meet them. The Legislature met expressly to consider this compromise, but failed to agree, and its non-action was universally regarded as proof of a popular majority in favor of repudiation. Postmaster-General Key contended at the time, in a letter to Governor Porter, that the debt was justly due; that in its capitol and its railroad system the State had got value received for its bonds, all of which, even those considered wrongfully issued, "were issued under laws providing for their issuance, by public officers selected by the people of the State." He declared it an incontrovertible maxim that "there is more of honesty and honor in paying a debt not justly incurred than in repudiating and refusing to pay one justly due." In 1879 the Legislature refused to entertain the adjustment still offered by the State's creditors, or even a 50-4 compromise. Last year, however, the bonds were issued at sixty, but the question of payment was so far from being closed that the fall electoral campaign (whose verdict the defaulting State Treasurer so scrupulously regarded) was fought and carried in favor of nothing better than 50-3.

But it is well to recall what preceded 1877—the doleful era of Virginia readjustment and the Bland bill in Congress. We quote from the Nashville correspondence of the *Tribune* (December 6, 1877):

"In 1866, Tennessee, instead of paying the interest on her bonds, merely funded it. She repeated it in 1868. From July, 1869, to January, 1874, she paid not a dollar of interest. In 1873, she funded her past due bonds and coupons, allowing no interest on bonds past-due five and ten years, or upon coupons past-due four years. The interest thus openly repudiated amounted, I am informed, to upwards of $1,124,000. On January 20, 1875, she repealed so much of the Funding Act as required the Treasurer to set apart revenue to pay the interest on the funded bonds. Her last performance was to send a commission to New York to delude the bondholders by significant suggestions that half a loaf is better than no bread, and that they had better offer 'voluntarily' to accept sixty per cent. in full of their claims. Again I ask, what does it require to tarnish the escutcheon of such a State?"

—Ed. Nation.]

LUNACY LAWS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your recent able editorial entitled "Doctor and Judge," criticising the report of the Permanent Commission of the Medico-Legal Society, which proposes reforms in the lunacy laws of this State, you fall into an unintentional error as to the recommendations of that Commission as to the right of lunatics confined in asylums to have an impartial medical examination at all times into their mental condition.

The recommendation of the Permanent Commission was that "every person confined as a lunatic should have the right, *without public expense*, to have his mental state and condition examined by competent medical experts entirely disconnected with the officers of the institution in which he is confined."

Your unfavorable criticism as to this recommendation of the Commission in this respect will, I trust, be changed on a careful perusal of that report, a copy of which I have the honor to enclose.—Truly yours,

"Permanent Commission."

The Union League Club, Jan. 29, 1883.

[If the examination is to be made at the expense of the alleged lunatic, the proposal very likely would not, in the majority of cases, lead to any trouble; still, why should inmates of a lunatic asylum have a perpetual right to set on foot inquiries into their sanity, even at their own expense? Their right to a full inquiry in the first instance should be carefully guarded, and there should be such a supervision of asylums as to make it impossible for those in charge of them to keep patients after they are cured; but that a man judicially committed to an asylum one day should have a right to set on foot an inquiry into his own mental condition the day after,

and to renew this as often during his stay as he fails to establish his sanity, seems to us to carry protection against abuses to a point at which it becomes an abuse in itself.—Ed. Nation.]

THE PROTECTION OF BOOKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the excellent letter upon "The Interests of American Art" published in your issue of yesterday, I note the following paragraph:

"The protection of books does come logically into our illogical system of political economy, because the capital and labor involved in the production of books are pure trade interests, and, combined with our systematic piracy of foreign brains, the tariff on books probably does not make books dearer or discourage their production, for the books which without the tariff would be printed abroad are now printed at home. . . ."

The error of this statement is so manifest that it seems almost a waste of time and of your space to correct it. Yet it should be corrected; for it must be upon some such incomplete view of the case that those protectionists who are animated by sincere zeal for the public welfare maintain this American tax upon knowledge. The protection of books enters logically into our illogical system of political economy only so far as there are books to protect; in other words, the imposition of duty upon a foreign publication for the protection of American publishers is illogical unless that publication is reproduced here. The only escape is to hold—as the protectionists, to do them justice, perhaps do hold—that one book is as good as another, and that, if the reader is prevented by the duty from buying the foreign book he needs for his pleasure or instruction, he will seek his pleasure in some other book printed here, or turn his investigations into some other channel, on account of the impossibility, in most subjects of study, of obtaining, after reaching a certain point, books of American manufacture. In point of fact, very few works in foreign languages are ever reproduced here, in translations or otherwise; and a very small proportion even of English works upon higher branches of learning can command sufficient sale to bear reprinting in America. Many of these books are very costly, and the duty upon them, while it amounts to but a trifling item in the public revenue, falls as a real hardship upon the small number of educated people who must pay it, and does not benefit pecuniarily the few mercenary individuals who are chiefly responsible for the antagonistic position assumed by the United States toward higher education, literary, artistic, and antiquarian—a position as dishonorable to us in this age of enlightenment as it is striking in its contrast to the strong encouragement extended to this education by all the great nations of Europe.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

Thomas W. Ludlow.

Cottage Lawn, Yonkers, N. Y., Jan. 26, 1883.

MR. H. H. BANCROFT'S LITERARY METHODS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The admirable review of Mr. Hubert Howe Bancroft's 'History of Central America,' which appeared in your issue of January 25, was necessarily kept within the limits of a criticism on the volume itself. But it seems to me that the time has come when a word should be said as to the methods employed by that author in the manufacture of the books which bear his name.

Some years since, when it was announced that Mr. H. H. Bancroft, a successful bookseller and stationer of San Francisco, was collecting all available material relating to the history of the Pacific Coast, the work was justly looked upon as one of great public spirit. At that time Mr. Bancroft was not known to have written anything, or, if he had, his writings were so inconsiderable as to have escaped observation. By careful attention to the details of an exacting business he had acquired a competence, and, so far as the public could judge, he now proposed to make a collection which should be of value to the historian whenever the latter appeared. Upon the publication of 'The Native Races of the Pacific Coast,' the general reader learned for the first time of Mr. Bancroft's literary aspirations, and the citizens of San Francisco felt a natural surprise at the capabilities of one who could devote all his waking hours to the stationery trade and yet produce five ponderous volumes within so short a time. A vague and evasive explanation that Mr. Bancroft had been "assisted" by a number of collators and indexers was, however, accepted as sufficient. But of late those who have been interested in literary matters upon the Pacific Coast have come to know that the part which Mr. Bancroft has played has been simply that of Mæcenas, now trying to plume himself in the laurels of Horace.

Mr. Bancroft's historical library is situated on Valencia Street, in San Francisco, the width of the city from the book and stationery establishment where he spends his time. At the latter place is carried on an extensive and complicated business, including, besides the departments mentioned, others for printing, lithographing, bookbinding, law-publishing, etc., at the head of which, any business day, directing, signing checks, managing the innumerable details, Mr. Bancroft may be seen. At the Valencia Street library there are, to be sure, a number of persons engaged in collating and indexing. But, more important than that, there are two or three gentlemen and one lady engaged in writing the histories which bear Mr. Bancroft's name. It is not denied that what they write is submitted to Mr. Bancroft, who is a sort of managing editor to the bureau which he has founded; but I am credibly informed that page after page goes into print without a mark or interlineation by Mr. Bancroft. That he could not at the same time write histories in such voluminous and rapid succession and attend to the multifarious affairs of a large and complex business, is self-evident. Four or five different histories on different sections of the coast, such as Oregon, Utah, California, etc., are in course of simultaneous production, each section being taken by a different writer. That these facts are deliberately suppressed, and that the real authors, unknown and underpaid, are passed with a slurring acknowledgment simply intended to quiet those who know the facts, are sufficient reasons why those facts should be published. Mr. Bancroft deserves great credit for the expenditure of large sums of money in collecting valuable historical material. Governor Leland Stanford deserves great credit for his munificence in providing the means by which the experiments in instantaneous photography were carried on, and by which Dr. Stillman was enabled to observe the movements of the horse and to publish his work on the habits of that animal. But if Governor Stanford, not content with being the patron, had endeavored to assume to himself the discovery of the processes and the authorship of the book, common honesty would have cried out "Hands off!" Men's time and services are for sale; but literary reputation cannot be bought or sold.

Again, in the publication of his bureaucratic histories, Mr. Bancroft displays remarkable thrift, and the habits of the methodical business man still cling to him. For several months prior to the appearance of the volume just noticed by you, the newspapers of San Francisco were approached by his agents with offers to furnish articles containing "information" as to the forthcoming volumes, and with intimations that friendly notices would be liberally rewarded. The only magazine on the Pacific Coast contained a long article lauding Mr. Bancroft, from the pen of a lady employed in his bureau. Similar articles have appeared elsewhere, emanating from the author of the book about to be published and from his employees. So little did Mr. Bancroft conceal this fact that he personally assured the writer that he was willing to pay liberally for favorable reviews in any respectable paper, not thinking or knowing, apparently, that respectable papers were just those with which such a bargain could not be made.

Such have been the means employed in the production and publication of this work, and it is to be regretted that one who, by such fair means as establishing a valuable collection of historical books and documents, has become entitled to great praise, should be so lustful of renown as to adopt unfair means to obtain it.

Charles H. Phelps.

New York, January 29, 1883.

RELIGION AND HONOR AT HARVARD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a Harvard graduate, with a deep interest in all that concerns my Alma Mater, I wish to answer the appeal with which the letter of "A Student," in your last issue, concludes, and to protest against both the reasoning and the tone of his letter. It opposes the present church and chapel regulations at Harvard on two grounds—namely, that all religious observances required of students by college authorities are objectionable because required, and that the Harvard system in this matter is wrong because it relies in great part on the honor of the students.

Not being a parson, I cannot answer the first objection *ex cathedra*. I deny, however, the existence of "forced religious training" at Harvard. Were Harvard a prison or an insane asylum, the words might apply; but no man who objects to being present at religious services is forced to come to Harvard at all. Many students come there on their own responsibility, and I cannot believe that the American *paterfamilias* ever actually compels his sons to enter Harvard against their fixed desire, reasonably expressed. If, then, the authorities say to the young men who voluntarily come under their control, "We believe that a daily public offering of thanks to God for all that He has given us, a confession of sin, and a prayer for His help in our daily life is not only fitting in itself, but also conducive to a better attainment of the objects for which you have come here, and therefore we appoint a convenient hour for a short service of the simplest form, which we wish you to attend at least four times a week, and we also wish those of the three lower classes who spend Sunday in Cambridge to attend morning prayer on that day at whatever church they select," I see nothing either unreasonable or "forced" in it. Were Harvard the only university of its grade in the world, the word "forced" might have greater truth, but even then there is scarcely any position in this country to which a university degree is a necessary qualification.

With the second objection I am more free to deal. "A Student" says that the position of the Faculty in this matter is "both illogical and absurd," because if Harvard students—many of them men of old families North and South, who

have grown up amid the best social influences of this country, all of them men with great advantages for mental development—if these young men are put upon their honor, "it simply offers a premium on dishonesty." In a literal sense, of course, this is true. In every choice between right and wrong the wrong is likely to offer temporary advantages, often apparently greater than those of the right. But what is meant is, a premium *of which they take advantage.*

That this is true in some instances, I admit. I knew such men, but, though often companionable fellows, they were not, could not be, "men who would scorn to tell an untruth, and consider their word sacred in all other matters." The weak desire to escape the consequences of their own actions, even at the cost of truth, influenced them in other things besides the matter of church certificates. Let me not be thought to look down on these men from the pinnacle of my own righteousness. I often "cut chapel" myself on excuses that would not have borne investigation, and which I remember with shame and contempt; but I alone was to blame, not those who trusted my word. That "A Student's" assertion is true of Harvard men as a rule, I cannot believe. Certainly it was not true of most of my own contemporaries, but then, with all our faults, we did not greatly cultivate "agnosticism." What that form of belief may be, I have but a hazy idea, but if it tend to make men careless of their honor, even in religious matters, I trust that "A Student's" "agnostic" friends will keep their precious treasure to themselves. I doubt, too, if any men of my class would have gratuitously informed the readers of a widely-circulated journal that his friends were in the habit of lying *because* they were trusted; but perhaps "agnosticism" is to blame for such callousness.

Even were "A Student's" assertion true, does that help his argument? Would he have the burden of proof always on the students' side? We trust men's honor every day in other matters, although we know that it cannot invariably be relied upon. We know that the evil of an occasional breach of trust is less than that of a perpetual suspicion. Why is it "illogical" to trust men in religious matters also? The present church and chapel rules at Harvard may be inexpedient (that I am not discussing), but if we Alumni are to vote for overseers who believe in "voluntary prayers and common sense," let us have sounder reasons for doing so than those "A Student" offers. B.

PHILADELPHIA, January 29, 1883.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Enclosed find $3, my subscription for 1883. From motives of economy, I had decided not to renew it, but every Southern man owes you active support in your attack on the cowardly custom of assassination, which threatens to take among us the place left vacant by the comparative extinction of the "Code." No right minded man can regret that the duel is out of fashion; but it at least made some pretence (usually illusory) of securing equality between combatants, and to that extent was less objectionable than its successor, the street-fight. In the latter, the brave man, who is above taking a mean advantage and scorns being an assassin, is at a terrible disadvantage in meeting a cowardly or murderous adversary. If there is anything manly about it, if it has one redeeming feature or any ground of excuse, I cannot see it. That in attacking it you are slandering the South, I do not admit—nor even that you are likely to injure the South. That you do not fully understand us nor we you—that you may do us injustice in other matters, and, as I conceive, have done us injustice—does not affect this issue, on which I admit that you are distinctly and wholly in the right.—Yours truly, A. R.

TENNESSEE, Jan. 24, 1883.

Notes.

ROBERT CLARKE & CO., Cincinnati, will soon reprint a rare Ohio pamphlet—Ewel Jeffries's 'Short Biography of John Leith, giving a brief account of his travels and sufferings among the Indians for eighteen years, etc.,' originally published in 1831. The present issue, which will be edited by Mr. C. W. Butterfield, will be limited to 100 copies, or ninety copies for sale, unless the demand be shown to be greater before February 15.

Among the late Gustave Doré's latest designs were a series of twenty or thirty prompted by Poe's "Raven." These have become the property of the Messrs. Harper, who will engrave them and make them the occasion of a new and sumptuous edition of that poem, as a companion volume to their 'Ancient Mariner,' also illustrated by the French artist. The effect of his designs as interpreted by our American artists will be awaited with interest.

Miss Elizabeth Bryant Johnston is preparing a second edition of her 'Original Portraits of Washington,' published a year ago by J. R. Osgood & Co. She writes to the *American Architect* that she has profited by the reviews of her work, and accepts Mr. Charles Henry Hart's generous offer of all his data relative to Washington portraits.

Teubner's editions of the Greek and Roman classics have been secured for an American imprint by Townsend MacCoun, Chicago, who sends us L. Müller's 'Horace' and Dindorf's 'Iliad.' They are neat and handy volumes, with edges as yellow as pollen-dust, and with foreign-looking type and dull-white paper. If not so stylish as similar works wholly manufactured here, they are, we believe, less trying to the eyes, especially when read at night. We are still in the bondage of glossy paper.

The 'George Eliot Birthday Book' deviates a little from the common form, and is also peculiar, we believe, in giving only the birth dates of famous women—a task which proved insuperable in the case of not a few, as the editor tells us. A rather ghastly heliotype, apparently from a crayon portrait of George Eliot, serves as a frontispiece (Boston: Hall & Whiting).

A cheap edition in paper of Henry George's 'Progress and Poverty' has been brought out by the John W. Lovell Company.

A new 'Bibliotheca Americana' of Robert Clarke & Co. is worth consulting by students, book-lovers, and book-buyers. It embraces 6,589 numbers.

Mr. Alexander Ireland, whose own work on Emerson has been doubled in a second edition, sends to the *Athenæum* lists of articles on Emerson in English and American periodicals, before and since his death, foreign translations of and articles upon him, and books, pamphlets, etc., relating to him.

Mr. F. Leypoldt's name stands as publisher (at 31 Park Row, New York) on the January *Monthly Reference Lists* of the Providence Public Library—a four-page number. Mr. Foster returns to the topic of the "Civil Service," which he has already so effectively treated in his 'Literature of Civil-Service Reform.' The other current topic is "Gambetta and the Third Republic," in which the references show the immediate utility of 'Poole's Index' for such bibliographical publications as this. The side topics, or *hors d'œuvres*, are "J. G. Whittier" and "An Elective Judiciary."

In the twenty-third Forestry Bulletin of the Census Office, Professor Sargent makes an estimate of the consumption of wood in this country during the Census year, and fixes upon 140,537,439 cords (valued at two and a quarter times as many million of dollars) in domestic uses alone. Railroads and manufactures consumed only 5,000,000 more. An interesting colored chart exhibits the predominance of wood or coal as fuel throughout the United States.

A new volume of poems by Robert Browning, entitled 'Jocoseria'; a selection from his lectures by Sir H. S. Maine; an autobiographical memoir by the late Anthony Trollope; a translation of Renan's 'Souvenirs d'Enfance' contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes;* and an account by Dr. Schliemann of his recent explorations in the Troad, are some of the more interesting late London announcements.

Nature (January 4) reports the opening for inspection of the College Hall of Residence for Women Students, in connection with the University of London, at No. 1 Byng Place, Gordon Square, London. It is conveniently near the London School of Medicine for Women and the British Museum. Sir John Lubbock is Treasurer of the Building Fund, which in time will be drawn on for a larger building. This example should stimulate a similar benefaction for the Harvard "Annex."

Messrs. Acland and Ransome, whose very original and helpful manual of 'English Political History' we have more than once had the pleasure of praising, have had the further good thought to extract from their work the pages covering the last half century, which they label a 'Handbook of British Politics' (London: Rivingtons). This shilling pamphlet can readily be consulted by any one reading that portion of British, or, indeed, of modern history. It is indexed by administrations, as Canning's Ministry, 1827; Lord Goderich's, 1827; Duke of Wellington's, 1828, etc. An Appendix gives the constitution of the Houses of Lords and of Commons, and the changes wrought by the Reform Acts of 1832 and 1867-8, together with the titles of acts of Parliament relating to labor and labor organizations, and a select list of pertinent works, historical, biographical, politico-economical, etc., for the epoch under review.

We have received the current issue of 'The Year's Art' (London: Sampson Low & Co.). Mr. Marcus Huish has joined with him in his editorial labors Mr. David C. Thomson, author of the meritorious 'Life of Thomas Bewick' not long since reviewed by us. For all that pertains to British Art, even to the year's legal decisions affecting art and to the acquisitions of galleries, this annual is a complete store of information in great measure obtainable nowhere else. Such is the obituary of the year, the list of fine-art dealers and the directory of artists, filling seventy-five pages; the list of members of the Royal Academy from 1768 to 1882, now first published; the art sales of 1882; the catalogue of engravings and etchings published from December, 1881, to November, 1882; that of the chief art-books, etc. The announcement is made on p. 174 that the next issue will contain "some account of the many important art institutions (galleries, museums, art-schools, clubs, societies, and publications) of the English-speaking countries of the world." To this end the coöperation of secretaries is particularly requested by Mr. Huish (whose address is New University Club, St. James Street, London, S. W.) before October 1, 1883.

The January *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton) is, we may safely affirm, the best first number of any year since this admirable periodical was founded. In variety of illustration no one of its 156

predecessors can compare with it. It opens with a steel engraving after one of Millais's little English damsels; it has its customary representative etching, from a French hand, representing the Hôtel de Cluny: it reproduces in facsimile two chalk studies of female heads (one tinted) by Mr. E. J. Poynter; it gives a number of excellent woodcuts of the New Forest; uses "process" work for another kind of illustrations; and finally employs a sort of photogravure called "ink-photo" to represent that most striking monumental group erected in memory of Philippe Pot, and preserved in a private museum at Dijon. The text accompanying this last full-page print is very readable, and so is Mr. Hamerton's first paper on Paris in its artistic aspects. He makes two remarks worth quoting: that Paris owes its magnificence to the apartment system of living, which determined the domestic architecture; and that, not to mention other and moral losses which the great lodging-houses involve, they dwarf the principal monuments—drown them out, so to speak. Once, he says, even in London, the Nelson Monument seemed too tall; now not an inch could be spared. It was the perception of this fact that determined the location of the Alexandrian obelisk in Central Park. Before leaving the *Portfolio*, let us also mention an article on the new Law Courts, with a general view and some details.

Among the latest volumes in the Tauchnitz series are the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table,' the 'Professor at the Breakfast Table,' and the 'Poet at the Breakfast Table.' The appearance of these books in the German-English collection is simultaneous with the handsome new Boston edition, and with a reprint of the earliest book in the English "Mayfair Library" of Messrs. Chatto & Windus.

M. Alphonse Daudet's new novel, 'L'Évangéliste,' is now appearing in the Paris *Figaro;* M. Zola's 'Au Bonheur des Dames' is coming out daily in *Gil Blas;* and M. Halévy's 'Criquette' has just been begun in the *Temps.*

We record the progress of the following serial publications: Kluge's 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch,' parts 3–4, *hehr-Pauke* (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner); 'Brehm's Thierleben,' Parts 61-65, still in the Mammals; and Düntzer's illustrated 'Goethe's Werke,' Parts 13-18 (New York: B. Westermann & Co.).

—In *Lippincott's* for February, Louise Seymour Houghton, under the title "This Our Brother," shows how the nature of the East Florida negro is perverted and corrupted by the Northern tourist. The great argument for steady work, in the mind of the negro in Florida, as elsewhere in the South, is the necessity of providing against the winter. But where his habitat is a region frequented by the tourist, he can often find light employment in hotels and boarding-houses at wages which give him a great distaste for the small profits to be gained by planting corn. If he is very lazy, he will "find congenial occupation in rowing a boat, running or rather lounging on an errand, loafing around wharves and hotels for chance jobs," or even "in capturing young alligators and mocking-birds or stealing orange-blossoms for the benefit of the Northerners." Thus, when the spring comes, he has got through the winter with such comfort, thanks to the tourist, that no amount of argument will induce him to appreciate the value of providence. Even his own proverb, "as pore as July," fails to teach him practical wisdom. The picture is probably exaggerated, for the number of Northern tourists who go to Florida in the winter is surely not sufficient to affect a very wide area; but, granting that their influence is baleful, how is the evil to be remedied? The tourist will go to Florida for health or pleasure, and consequently hotel life will furnish the negro with a kind of occupation which some negroes will always prefer to agriculture. The negro will have to get accustomed to winter-hotel life in the South, just as he has in the North to summer-hotel life. The Saratoga hotel negro gets along without agriculture, and, to judge by our experience in the North, it is not he who suffers from the "guest," but the latter who is the victim of negro activity and thrift. Freedom will ultimately, no doubt, produce the same effect in the South. The writer justly criticises the tourist habit of showing "an interest" in the freedmen by indiscriminate present-giving, and of converting the church services into a regular Sunday entertainment, by contributions of money, the religious show being made as diverting as possible by pastor and flock in return. S. P. Scott has an illustrated article on Saragossa, and an anonymous contributor on "Beauty versus Bric-à-Brac" makes an elaborate protest against "the present tendency to identify the love of luxury, ostentation, curiosity, and fashion with the love of beauty." A great deal that is said about the collector is true; but we, in our turn, must protest against his being denounced for the desire to possess the "objects" he admires. The idea of the writer, that the love of beauty may be cultivated to that point that seeing beautiful objects will be regarded as "real possession," and when the desire to own them will come to be thought "vulgar," may commend itself to art critics; but we fear it will be a long time before either artists or "art patrons" will look upon it with any favor.

—'A Lost Function in Romance' is the title of a pamphlet (published by G. P. Putnam's Sons) in which Mr. Caroll Bryce discusses one branch of the old question of the moral uses of fiction. He shows very easily that most of the present English and American novelists differ from their great predecessors in not undertaking to teach a lesson of any kind. Mr. James, for instance, or Mr. Black, has no message to deliver to mankind, no sins to scourge, no abuses to attack. They are simple story-tellers, each in his own different way. "Contemporaneous fiction, then, here and in England, seems, so far as novels are concerned, generally to lack any very aggressive, consuming, and positive moral purpose." The fact stated by Mr. Bryce few people will be inclined to dispute, but we do not find him offering any suggestions as to a remedy. The modern novelist has had his attention called to this peculiarity very often; but his reply is that he does not want to teach, that the function of teaching is disagreeable to him, and that he proposes to go on telling stories in his own way. He says, too, that the public are tired of being taught and want to be amused; moreover, that literature is an art in itself, and that romance is all the better for having lost the function the disappearance of which Mr. Bryce deplores. Those who are interested in this subject will find a good deal of food for profitable reflection in the case of Hawthorne, a novelist whose stories had no practical moral purpose whatever. The author of the 'Scarlet Letter' cared no more for "reform" than Mr. James does, yet his romances would lose a very great part of their interest if it were not for their hold upon the conscience of the reader. Pure art for art's sake would, we suppose, not appeal to the conscience at all; but any permanent future for fiction on such terms seems to us out of the question, as long as novel-readers remain moral agents.

—The address on "The Place of Original Research in College Education," read before the National Educational Association last summer by Prof. John Henry Wright, of Dartmouth, has been reprinted in a separate form, and deserves more attentive consideration than most of such papers do. The author has still the glow of German training fresh upon him, and it is natural that he should attack American problems by German methods, and that he should imagine those problems to have been less studied than they have been by men who have added to German training the sobering experience of many years of work under American conditions. But our older men are perhaps a little tired, and if the needed reforms are to be initiated, they will doubtless be initiated by young men who, like Professor Wright, feel keenly the want of the stimulative and directive agencies that are so potent in German university life. As we must still be content to learn from Germany, Professor Wright has done good service by the preparation of his careful, copious, and attractive account of the working of the German *seminarium philologicum* from the time of Gesner to the present day. Due space has been given to Ritschl's "model seminary," and those who have read Ribbeck's admirable memoir of the great teacher, as well as those who have not, will be glad to have the essence of this important part so well put. Only we must remember that the *seminarium* was originated simply as a corrective to the "funnel" system of absorbing lectures, and that its use depends almost wholly on the capacity of the director. Lecturers there are many, but teachers there are few, the world over, and Ritschl's power over his students was a mystery which he himself could only explain by that other mystery "love." It must be added in all fairness that Professor Wright is not blind to the bad side of seminary organization. He is too clear-sighted an American for that, and he has a thoughtful word to say about "narrowing specialties" and "precociousness"; but he does not dwell enough on the sophistic character of some of the work that is done. The whole machinery of "disputation" requires skilful management if the discussion is not to degenerate into mere quibbling.

—But the pamphlet treats of original research, and we are interested in the German *seminarium* only so far as it promotes original research. Now, "original research" is a much-abused phrase, and it may confidently be said that a very large proportion of German doctor-dissertations, which are supposed to constitute the *dessus du panier* of such work, cannot be properly classed under that head. Much of it is mere mechanical statistic on lines already laid down, without a new idea to enliven the mass of details. But if original research means simply individual research, investigation as opposed to absorption, no one can deny the importance of engaging in such work as soon as the student is adequately equipped. But what constitutes adequate equipment? If we should demand in America for classical philology what is theoretically demanded in Germany—absolute readiness in the formal command of Latin and Greek—we should be found to postpone the golden time to which one would gladly look forward as in the near future. Everybody sees that the trouble lies largely at the doors of our secondary schools, which are usually satisfied with a meagre preparation for the very slight classical entrance examination of our colleges. The average age of the Freshman is much higher than it was twenty or thirty years ago, and requirement and preparation have not kept pace with the advance. What has been gained in accuracy of grammatical knowledge has been lost in command of vocabulary, in actual acquaintance with authors. The modicum of classical reading done by a boy of seventeen is absurdly small, and in the latter years of college life young men are often getting up elementary text-books at an age when the German student is working on higher lines of research.

—We have received from H. Champion, 15 quai Malaquais, Paris, an English circular which is noteworthy not merely for the two periodicals advertised in it, but for the way in which they are described. "The following papers," it says, "are, according to the Documents and articles they contain, to be admitted amongst the most useful ones. 1°. Le Cabinet historique. New series, published under the Direction of Mr. U. Robert, clerk attached to the Manuscripts of 'National Library. The first part is entirely consacrated, etc., etc., the second part contains: historical and bibliographical works, referring to the records and Libraries, such as: inventories, catalogues, etc. A foreign list of books kept every day with the greatest care, is to return many useful services to the Librarians. The Cabinet Historique has, amongst his colleagues: M. Omont, of the Manuscript's office; M. Molinier, of the Magazine's Library, etc. 2°. La Bibliothèque Nationale, 'Montbly recueil' of the latest french publications, with an appendix containing the list of maps and ancient books newly entered in the 'departement' of printed things. This bulletin published by the National Library contains the complete nomenclature of the lawful deposit; it is, in a word, the catalogue of the National Library kept 'au courant' with the indication of the prices."

—For folks who have to do with books, accuracy and completeness in the giving of proper names are quite indispensable. Yet even the mother of Jakob Grimm might have smiled had she seen his name expanded to Jakob Ludwig Karl Grimm, as it is in some library catalogues. And a personal acquaintance of the Muscovite linguist, Rudolph Westphal, ventures the assertion that even Westphal himself has forgotten the other names which conscientious librarians have inserted in pencil on his title-pages. But coming years may produce other Grimms, with Jakob among their Christian names, so that no less degree of fulness would prove distinctive. The already established fashion of christening children with three names, and the gradually prevailing fashion of printing these in full on the title-page of books, are on the whole entirely commendable. Geoffrey Chaucer and William Shakspere managed, indeed, to scrape through tolerably successful literary careers without middle names, and the latter was as vacillating in the orthography of his surname as the most ardent modern spelling-reformer could desire; albeit the somewhat exceptional character of the writings of these two eminent men will doubtless continue for some time longer to distinguish them sufficiently from possible homonymous rivals to whom the future may give birth. Far more troublesome to bibliographers than either of these kinds of cases must be those in which an author's name changes while an index is in press or library-cards are in making. Fancy, for instance, the sighs of the poor cataloguer as he changes the card-headings of 'Adam Bede' and the score that follow it, from "Eliot, George," to "Evans, Marian," and then to "Lewes, Marian Evans," and then to "Cross, Marian Evans [Lewes]," and finally, on sober afterthought, back to the original pseudonym. These sighs have been heaved and all these changes made in a well-ordered library not five miles from Boston.

—But not only women, from whom such trouble might naturally be expected—even men, too, have begun to vex librarians by their matrimonial alliances. Probably the only man who may be said to have made a new departure in comparative philology since Bopp is Dr. Karl Brugmann, of Leipsic. He began life and attained celebrity with only one *n* at the end of his name. But a few months ago, the preparations for his wedding having been made, it was found at the civil marriage (*Civil-trauung*) that the license permitted only a Brugmann with two *n*'s to be joined in holy matrimony, and the groom was required to sign the blanks accordingly. Rather than postpone the happy day, and on the advice of the bride's father, who is a jurisconsult, it was decided to sign with two *n*'s, under protest, and investigate afterward. And on inquiry, the parson who made out the papers said that the name stood as he had written it not only in the certificate of baptism (*Taufschein*), but also throughout the parish register. And so, though the family was originally Dutch, and the single *n* originally correct, the young Doctor concluded to prevent any future difficulties by changing to Brugmann, and the whole family has followed him. Of the strictness and thoroughness of German officials these facts are characteristic, and for the American philologist who desires to be *au courant* they are noteworthy. It may be added that Brugmann is now preparing a 'Compendium of Comparative Philology,' which is to be for the science in its present phase—and no doubt its present phase only—what Schleicher's was for it ten years ago.

—The *Kulturkampf* certainly does not flourish in the modern world; but, not deterred by its failure in Germany, parties in France and Switzerland have entered upon the experiment. In Switzerland the attempt has met, fortunately, with a serious check at the outset. On the 14th of last June a Federal decree was issued adding a Secretary of Public Instruction to the Department of the Interior, to look after the execution of Article 27 of the Constitution, which establishes compulsory free primary education. Hitherto the cantons had had the charge of the matter, and naturally there had been considerable diversity of action, especially between the Protestant and Catholic cantons. At first sight the decree seemed simple and inoffensive enough, but was soon seen to portend very serious changes. The Radical leader, M. Schenck, showed his hand with a most imprudent frankness. He was not only going to introduce uniformity of secular teaching, but to draw up a scheme of moral and religious instruction, which was to be enforced not merely in the public, but in the private schools too. It is true he intended so to construct it that it should not contradict any of the creeds professed in Switzerland; but what chance was there of his succeeding? and if he succeeded, whom would he have satisfied with his Government religion? Of course it was an attack upon the Catholic cantons, and, as they are in a minority, the decree might have been confirmed by the Federal Assembly had it not also been an attack upon the liberties of the cantons, which they are by no means ready to yield to the Central Government. Imagine our Commissioner of Education undertaking to draw up a statement of moral and religious truth to be taught compulsorily in all the primary schools of the United States. Our Government has made great progress in centralization since the Civil War, but neither we nor the Swiss are quite ready for such uniformity. An overwhelming majority of the Federal Assembly persisted in referring the question to the people, and the people, on the 26th of November, defeated the plan by a decisive vote. It is not likely to be speedily resumed. The Swiss are getting to be a little tired of religious bickerings. The Protestants have had it very much their own way of late. The Federal constitution of 1873 secures the civil power against the religious. Now perhaps they are beginning to feel that it would be safe to indulge in a little brotherly love, that they can afford to tolerate a little. Possibly they have begun to see that the civil power is safest when it is entirely neutral on religious affairs, and confines its efforts to baffling the efforts of religious bodies to get it under their control.

—Every one who has given any attention to the subject of Feudalism has felt the difficulty of making this state of society, in its structure and practical workings, intelligible to himself. It is a thing easy enough to describe in general definitions, but nothing in the field of history is harder than to understand really how it came into existence, and how it worked in detail. M. Seignobos, of Dijon, has been struck, as he says, by the impossibility of understanding the feudal régime by studying it "from the centre of the kingdom and the supreme government, because it was formed in the country at large and at the bottom of society." He has, therefore, taken a single province—Burgundy, in which he resides—and made it the subject of a detailed examination, the results of which are presented in an octavo of 417 pages, entitled 'Le Régime Féodal en Bourgogne jusqu'en 1360,' this being the date of the extinction of the first ducal house of Burgundy. We are not aware that this work has been performed, at least upon such a scale, for any other feudal community. We consider this, therefore, the most instructive treatise upon Feudalism—not its origin, but its structure and character as a social institution—with which we are acquainted. It still leaves something to be desired. A feudal map of the province, divided into *châtellenies*, inferior fiefs if possible, ecclesiastical jurisdictions (*potés*), and *baillages*, would be a most serviceable addition. Moreover, it is not entirely clear as to the relation of the *châtelains* and *prévots*. At the close the author cautions against accepting the picture here presented as belonging to any province but the one in question, and perhaps the other Eastern provinces—Champagne, Lorraine, and Picardy: for the West and South it certainly would not be a correct view. We suppose, for instance, that the exceedingly degraded condition of the peasantry described by him would not be true, at least in the same degree, in Normandy. It is to be hoped that the example of M. Seignobos will be followed by others, and that we shall have a similar analysis not only of other French provinces, but for England, whether for any one county or for the estates of any one nobleman. What, for instance, would be of greater service in understanding the Wars of the Roses than such a description of the possessions of the king-maker Earl of Warwick?

—The fourth popular matinée at Steinway Hall on Thursday afternoon again attracted a large audience, no less select and refined than the best that assembles for a Philharmonic concert. The soloists were Mr. Max Heinrich, who sang an aria from Spohr's "Jessonda" in good style; Mrs. E. P. Dodge, who did fairly well with some German songs; and Miss Jessie Pinney, who played Schumann's pianoforte concerto in A minor, Liszt's twelfth Rhapsodie, and a serenade by Moszkowski. It was a bold thing in one so young and inexperienced to attempt Liszt's Rhapsodie in a place where Joseffy had played it but two days earlier; and still more bold to play the magnificent Schumann concerto, and without notes, too. Miss Pinney, however, conquered all difficulties and achieved a decided success. A momentary lapse of memory in the concerto does not count in face of all the good qualities displayed on this occasion. Her intellectual and emotional interpretation of the music was alike admirable, her touch firm—delicate, and strong in turn—her runs "pearling," and her phrasing in consonance with the intention of the composers; and to all this was added a certain poetic charm peculiar to gifted musicians of the fair sex. She was warmly applauded and recalled by the audience.

Among the orchestral selections was "Le Rouet d'Omphale," one of Saint-Saëns's most picturesque symphonic poems, in which one can almost see the great Hercules amusing himself at the spinning-wheel of the Lydian princess, and which contains some pretty new orchestral effects, notably in the treatment of the harp. There were also copious extracts from Wagner's "Meistersinger," which were finely played. The first piece on the programme was a novelty in MS.—an orchestral prelude and fugue by Mr. Otto Flörsheim, one of the most gifted of our local musicians, who, it is to be hoped, will be "heard from again." The prelude contains a broad, impressive melody, supported by rich harmonies, while the fugue is written in strict polyphonic form, with modern orchestration and modulations. The interest is sustained throughout, and the composition was well received by the audience.

JAMES FENIMORE COOPER.

James Fenimore Cooper. [American Men of Letters.] By Thomas R. Lounsbury. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883.

PROFESSOR LOUNSBURY'S volume is an admirable specimen of literary biography. We can, in fact, recall no recent addition to American biography in any department which is superior to it. It gives the reader not merely a full account of Cooper's literary career, but there is mingled with this a sufficient account of the man himself, apart from his books, and of the period in which he lived, to keep alive the interest from the first word to the last. At the same time, the author has avoided most of the faults of current literary biography. He has not made any attempt to enhance the interest of his subject by tearing away the veil from the privacy of family life, nor to stimulate the appetite of the reader with newly-discovered gossip and scandal, or those petty personal details which make biography so often read like tittle-tattle prepared for the delectation of cooks and chambermaids. As Cooper's life was one prolonged and furious quarrel with his critics and neighbors, there was no doubt plenty of material for this sort of writing. The "Mile-End" controversy alone, of which Mr. Lounsbury gives an intelligible account, probably engendered hosts of stories to Cooper's disadvantage, out of which a volume of "spicy" anecdote might be made. But what should we gain from it all, except a knowledge of the fact, which is undisputed, that Cooper had a hot temper and liked to quarrel? So far as he showed temper in public and as a literary man, we cannot overlook it; but is the place of the 'Spy' in literature affected by this? Not any more than the plan of "Childe Harold" is affected by our knowledge of Byron's lameness, or of his unhappy domestic troubles. In this as in other respects, Mr. Lounsbury has a just feeling for proportion and a most welcome sense of decorum.

The volume takes us back to a period of American literature which it requires considerable mental effort to make real to ourselves. There is no question, and never has been any, of the school of fiction to which Cooper belonged. All of the novels which form the basis of his fame are tales of adventure written in that vein of romance which we associate with the name of Sir Walter Scott. Cooper himself took pains to acknowledge this with a frank confession of discipleship that is perhaps without a parallel in the history of literature. But the real sources of his power did not lie in any connection with, or dependence upon, Scott. It was as an American novelist that he appeared in literature, and it was their American character which gave his novels their first success. There were, of course, a variety of other causes which placed Cooper, almost from the first, in the foremost ranks of the novelists of his time, and these Mr. Lounsbury analyzes with much fairness. He first proved, for instance, by example, that the sea might furnish as good material for fiction as life ashore. It is to Cooper that Mr. Lounsbury thinks we owe the sea-novel, and points out that in Cooper's sea-stories the hand of a master is shown in nothing more strikingly than that he does not overload them with nautical detail, unintelligible to the general reader—a defect which many of his successors have not avoided, and into which his own sailor's life might easily have led him.

It is probably, however, in his novels of pioneer and Indian life that his permanent fame will rest. It was these, and 'The Spy'—a story which occupies a peculiar position of its own—that made Cooper's name known all over the world in his life-time, and Mr. Lounsbury is clearly of opinion that they will retain a firm hold upon popular favor. One advantage the Leather-Stocking tales had which, as time goes on, will not be diminished: that they described a kind of life admirably adapted to romance in being practically unknown to the novel-reading public. Cooper's materials were furnished him by the America of his own time; but even fifty years ago the pioneer and Indian types were known accurately to a very small number of people, and hence there was an enormous scope for the imagination. Scott, to liberate his fancy from the trammels of the commonplace, was obliged to go back to the period of "chivalry": Cooper had the backwoods of his own day and their denizens ready to his hand. Now the backwoods are gone: they have been chopped down; the land is under cultivation, covered with towns and cities, and well supplied with newspapers. The pioneer of our day pushes his way Westward by the aid of a railroad and a construction company, and lives, if he is of an adventurous turn, not by the chase, but by speculation in mines or town lots. The Indian, too, as he exists, is not the savage of Cooper's day. The conditions of his life have changed. He is not contesting the possession of the continent with his white foe; he is not filled with lofty thoughts of regaining his lost empire: he lives on a reservation, tills the soil, pretends to desire to become a civilized man, and does his scalping, as far as possible, "on the sly." We have no longer any very good means of judging whether Cooper described types actually existing in his day or not. We may suspect that he did not; but, admitting that he drew upon his imagination, what difference does it make now, or can it make in future? Thus much may be suggested as a reason for believing that the popularity of Cooper's stories of adventure will not be undermined by the spread of a belief that his types are and always were unreal. At the same time it must be confessed that there has been a change in what we may call the imaginative habit of the world which tells the other way. At the time that Cooper wrote, the reading classes were greatly under the influence of a feeling about civilization and nature which played into his hands. Civilization was held responsible for most of the vices and defects of human nature and life, and it was generally believed that the further we got from civilization, and the nearer we got to primitive natural life, the more likely we were to find virtue and excellence of a high order—such as we like to have presented in romantic types. The Indian presented this state of nature in one way, the pioneer in another. All the preconceptions and prejudices of readers in Cooper's time disposed them to test the truth of his pictures, not by the facts of the case, but by this theory.

Now, the imaginative habit of the world is reversed, and we think of civilization as a process which improves the capacity of the natural man for the practice of virtue, and we do not regard civilized man as a noble savage in a state of relapse. Our idea of human progress involves that of a more or less steady advance from a savage state, and we can hardly think of getting rid of civilization except by introducing barbarism. Cooper's pioneers and Indians, therefore, are unreal to us for the reason that our social imagination teaches us to expect to find in such types characteristics the very opposite of those which his earlier readers expected to find in them, and which he gave them. We see the same thing in a different way in Scott. To the historical imagination of his day, the romantic behavior and conversation attributed to such characters as Rebecca, Ivanhoe, Cedric the Saxon, Richard, Berengaria, was natural and probable. By Thackeray's time, they had become fit material for burlesque. But Scott has thus far survived burlesque, and he would be a bold critic who should undertake to predict that Cooper's reputation will disappear as time goes on. The considerations to which we have adverted will tell on the one side or the other, and the world will take a long time to make up its verdict. Thus far, as Mr. Lounsbury shows, Cooper's fame has borne the tests which time and a change of taste have brought to it remarkably well.

AMICIS'S FIRST WORK.

Military Life in Italy: Sketches by Edmondo de Amicis, Army Officer. Translated by Wilhelmina W. Cady. With illustrations. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

EDMONDO DE AMICIS'S name is so well known as the author of several admirable books of travels that it alone would suffice to call the attention of the reading public to any work of his; and indeed, who could forget, after having once read them, the panoramic word-paintings of Constantinople, the graphic studies of Paris, the keen appreciation of Holland and its people, the intimate characterization of Spain and the Spaniards, the vivid Eastern pictures of Morocco? De Amicis is more than a poetic author, he is a great artist, and this artistic temperament is so apparent in his writings that no one can read his descriptions of men and places without recalling at once some favorite artist—Gérôme, for instance, in his Moorish characters; Millet, in his portraiture of the peasantry of Italy; Horace Vernet, in his battle scenes; Detaille or Neuville in his delineation of military types.

This work, of which the translator should have preserved the original title of 'Military Sketches' (*Bozzetti Militari*), for they are simply sketches, was the first literary venture of Amicis. This fact, also, should have been noted, because, though only now translated into English, it was this work which won for him his first literary laurels, while he was still a young officer in the Italian Army. This would have warned the reader and predisposed him to condone an occasional youthful exuberance of style and some verbose overdrawn descriptions, very natural to the enthusiastic young military patriot of Italian liberty, in those eventful years when Italy freed herself from foreign despotism. The translation is all that can be desired, both in style and in correct interpretation, retaining at the same time the smoothness and local coloring of the original. We detect here and there a slight flaw, but of so little importance that it is not worth noting, except the rendering of the Italian army weapon *daga* once into "poniard" and another time into "dagger," from which people might suppose that Italian soldiers wore, even in military service, the popular weapon of a brigand, whereas it is only the technical name of the sword-bayonet.

The volume is a series of sketches, and each so vivid as to give an artist a subject for one or more charming pictures. But this is not all, for beyond the artist and the poet there stands out prominently the patriot. To appreciate fully the worth of the book, besides its great artistic merit, one must call to mind the time and events that brought it forth. After the revolution of 1848 Italy sunk for nearly ten years under the oppressive yoke of foreign bayonets. The Austrians occupied Venice, Lombardy, Tuscany, Parma, and part of the Papal States; the French, Rome and Civitavecchia. The King of Naples, the infamous "Bomba," had six full regiments of Swiss soldiers, two cavalry regiments of Bavarians, while the rest of the army, composed of Neapolitans, merely acted as police against the Liberals. Piedmont alone had a national army. The Italian people, therefore, for long centuries, and at that period with more reason than ever before, had looked upon the soldiers as their natural enemies and oppressors. This feeling was so rooted in their very souls that it took years to eradicate it, and it is not even now fully outgrown. The war of liberation of '59, Garibaldi's achievement in '60, the Italo-Prusso-Austrian war of '66, drove the foreign bayonets from every part of Italy, except Rome, and the Piedmontese army, together with the former volunteers of Garibaldi, the army of the ex-Grand Duke of Tuscany, and the yearly recruits from the general conscription introduced all over Italy, formed the new Italian Army. This army had to be amalgamated, trained, disciplined, instructed in its letters, and, above all, to be recognized by the lower classes as their protector, and not their enemy. This was the most difficult task, for the ignorant classes are the most tenacious of hereditary prejudices. In fact, they opposed the conscription by all the means in their power, especially in the southern provinces, resorting to all manner of tricks, pretences, and evasions, and when these were found unavailing, the conscripts actually hid in the woods or the mountains, and often openly joined the brigands. This accounts for the enormous increase of brigandage during those first years of Italian liberty; and it took some of the best generals of the Army, Pallavicino and Medici among others, and years of martial law, to suppress it.

This book of De Amicis came out about this time—1868, if we remember right—and it had a wonderful success and immense circulation. It went into the mansion of the rich and into the hut of the peasant, for it interested them all, as by the Italian conscription law every one is bound to serve. It taught them to make a distinction between foreign mercenaries and patriotic Italian soldiers. It taught them that the Italian soldiers were not slaves of a despot, but the protectors of the liberties of the people; that the officers of the Army were not the taskmasters, but the fathers of their men, loving and respecting them as their fellow-citizens—men whom they had known as workmen and peasants in their own towns or villages. Read from this point of view, the book of De Amicis will acquire double lustre, both for its intrinsic merit and its patriotic aim. In it the true patriotic army is portrayed to the life—the soldier's duties, the marches, the sufferings, the privations, the pleasures, the excitements and storms of battle; and through all this an undercurrent of deep sentiment, the love of home, of a lover, of a mother. Indeed, the mother's love permeates the whole book, and is one of its most delicate charms. The Italians, like the other Latin races, have been charged with having no word to express home, and to have very little conception of the English or American idea of a home. Let those who think so read these sketches to be undeceived; for if the Italians have not the word (though *focolare*, "the hearth," may very well answer for it), they surely have the *carità del natio loco*, "love of the native place," as Dante calls it, as strongly impressed as any people in the world.

These sketches of De Amicis are real pictures of military life, each complete in itself, and form, as it were, a gallery of paintings. The "Midsummer March," so hot, so dusty, so sultry, on an August day, beautiful yet terrible for a long march—one almost pants for fresh air in reading it. Then the taciturn officer and his taciturn orderly, who for four years never exchange other than words of command and assent; and yet, under that rigid exterior of military discipline there lurks such depth of love and feeling between the two. The "Wounded Sentinel" is a graphic sketch of the bitter trials of the first Italian army when called upon to suppress some local tumult or bread riot. Men who had fought all the battles of Italian independence as volunteers with Garibaldi and soldiers of the Army of Liberation had to bear the insults of a crazy crowd and be called oppressors, hangmen, and, worse than all, "Croats." How natural, and pathetic at the same time, the indignation of the sentinel who, striking the two medals that he wore on his breast, exclaimed: "Oh, it is useless for them to give us medals because we have fought for our country if afterwards they are to throw cigar stumps and cabbage heads in our faces!"

The sketch of the filial love of the peasant conscript, who returns after three years of absence to a town near his birthplace, and is expecting a visit from his old mother, who leaves her farm at dawn, and comes to town on foot with a bundle under her arm, to meet him, is worthy of Millet. Then follows a charming little incident, which we know to be historical, the "Son of the Regiment." A boy of twelve, ill-used at home by his step-mother, follows a regiment as it passes through his town, and is discovered too late to be sent back. The soldiers keep him for months, feed him and dress him, till, on their return from the summer encampment, he is restored to his home, and better treatment. But we should have to note one-half of the book to mention what most impressed us as natural and picturesque. What more sleepy than the description of the "Nocturnal March"? It seemed as if Morpheus in person had spread over the whole regiment a veil of drowsiness. The love story of "Carmela" is very touching, and a splendid subject for a melodrama. The next sketch, "That Day," is a battle scene worthy of Horace Vernet.

De Amicis turns occasionally from description of scenery or pathos to humorous or rollicking traits; and he is then a perfect caricaturist, or a jolly scapegrace. Take, for instance, this description of an ignorant Sardinian peasant of twenty, a soldier of infantry. It is an artistic mask, fit for a caryatid:

"The first time he appeared before me at Florence, he inspired me with sympathy. His appearance, however, and several of his replies showed me instantly that he was indeed an original. Seen in front, he was himself; seen in profile, he was another. One would have said that his features changed in turning. From the front view there was nothing to say—the face was like many others; but his profile made one laugh. The point of the chin and the end of the nose tried to touch and did not succeed, impeded by two enormous lips that were always open, and which allowed one to see two rows of teeth scattered like a platoon of national guards. The eyes resembled pin-heads, so small were they, and they almost disappeared between the wrinkles when he laughed. The eyebrows formed two circumflex accents, and the forehead was only high enough to separate the hair from the eyes. A friend said to me that he seemed like a man made for a joke."

In the next sketch, entitled "At Twenty," is detailed the life of seven young lieutenants just graduated, and in their first year of regimental life. Here the author is as gay and lively as a young student or artist, overflowing with fun and jokes and escapades, his spirits effervescing like a freshly-opened bottle of champagne. The book ends with a description of the cholera of 1867 in Italy, and the noble conduct of the Italian Army in allaying its ravages. The illustrations are wretchedly poor, and entirely unworthy of the work.

CREIGHTON'S PAPACY DURING THE REFORMATION.

The Papacy during the Reformation. By Mansell Creighton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

If one were to name those periods of history upon which it would be most difficult to find satisfactory information, the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries of our era would stand high upon the list. Falling between the heroic period of the mediæval Empire and the great upheaval of the sixteenth century, they have suffered by comparison. Yet in these centuries of transition were developing those germs of human thought which the previous age had generated and the following age was to mature. To the student who is concerned with the study of causes and origins, rather than with dramatic moments and great crises of public life, such a period must offer even greater attractions than those more generally studied, because more easily comprehended. Of late years this attraction has begun to be felt, and in all departments of historical study men have been turning to the transition centuries with a zeal only the greater because here were found the explanation and justification of much that was perplexing.

The result has been such works as Burckhardt's 'Civilization of the Renaissance'; Symonds's elaborate study of the same period; Voigt's 'Humanism,' the best work of its kind, but as yet unfortunately inaccessible to English readers; and Lindner's 'History of Germany in the Fourteenth Century,' following upon the incomplete work of Lorenz. In France, men have been waking up to the perception that these years of trial were the time of a new birth in French political life, and a long series of studies has been produced in which this development of a French nation out of feudal elements has been the leading thought. Still, one cannot as yet point to any great or commanding treatise on the whole period of transition which should lay claim to be regarded as the standard work in framing our conception of its manifold political, religious, and artistic meaning. The ambition to produce some such work as this seems to have been the guiding motive in the work before us, of which the first two volumes have just been issued.

Mr. Creighton is a clergyman, writing, as he informs us, in the intervals of a busy life, at a distance from the scenes he is describing, and with only printed materials at his command. These facts alone, while tending to disarm criticism upon certain points, would assure us from the outset that a book of the first rank would probably not be the result. And yet, with this limitation, we hasten to add that it is the best book within our knowledge upon the whole field of European history in the given period. Other books have had a more limited point of view, within which their treatment may have been more effective, but in choosing the Papacy for his central figure Mr. Creighton has been able to include every phase of public life and thought which this era of complicated political problems could present. In using the word Reformation,

he has given it wisely its broadest and truest meaning—not the separation of Protestants from Catholics, but the working out through long and painful struggles of divergent lines of belief and character which could only culminate in a final separation. In that sense of the word, the Reformation begins with Wyclif, in whom we find represented at once the philosophical, theological, and political elements of the opposition to the papal system. Mr. Creighton seems disposed—it does not appear upon what evidence—to undervalue the influence of Wyclif upon English thought. It is true that Cobham's death was the knell of the organized opposition, but one needs only to notice the frequency of later allusion to Wyclif's doctrine as the source and representative of all heresy to see how deeply his personality was impressed upon the movement. Nor can the impulse given by him to the resistance of the Government to papal assumption be overlooked, in its effect upon the whole future of the English policy.

The account of the Hussite movement, following directly upon Wyclif's teaching, is somewhat more detailed and more satisfactory. It forms the natural transition to the leading idea of both these volumes: the growth of the conciliar as opposed to the papal system. In developing this opposition, we are carried into the most intimate details of papal intrigue—wearisome details for the most part. The popes of the schism were not interesting persons. They were the creatures of chance, thrown into prominence by powerful currents of interest which they were unable to control. The prestige of the Papacy as a great guiding influence upon the minds and hearts of men was vanishing, while, in just the same proportion, its demands as a temporal sovereignty among the other states of Europe were increasing. These two tendencies must necessarily come into collision. The common political and religious sense of Europe, loyal as yet to the traditions of the Church, could not tolerate its steady decline in spiritual influence. "Reform!" was the cry of every one of the varying elements which made up the Council of Constance. In the midst of this universal demand for improvement, the Papacy stood alone, pushing with a blind fatalism toward its doom. It resisted, compromised, yielded, surrendered utterly, as the case might be, but did not change, did not reform. That is the dramatic result to be drawn from the mass of detail which Mr. Creighton has presented: after two centuries of struggle, begun by Sciarra Colonna's iron glove flung into the face of Boniface VIII., and ending with the bull of Leo X. against Martin Luther, still the same opposition, the same inability to comprehend the movement of time. Therefore the inevitable breach.

There was only one of the ruling tendencies of modern thought with which the Papacy of the latter half of the fifteenth century fully identified itself—the revival of classical study, and the vigor of intellectual and artistic life which was its direct result. Doubtless the Papacy was here also lending a vigorous hand to the digging of its own grave. Its fall was due no less to the intellectual than to the political new life of Europe; but the issue was wholly lost in the splendor of the revival which surrounded the courts of Nicholas V. and Æneas Silvius, and which culminated in a Medicean Papacy! One cannot fail to regret—in spite of Mr. Creighton's protest that whenever he has omitted or gone into great detail he has done so deliberately—that he had not chosen to throw more into prominence this intellectual march of Europe as a factor in preparing the catastrophe toward which his narrative is moving. One short chapter disposes of the vast plans of Nicholas V. and of the galaxy of literary stars by which he was surrounded. The obvious weaknesses of this whole school of literary acrobats are emphasized, but we cannot think that they are placed in a worthy light as leaders in a development they little understood. So of Æneas Silvius; a few pages at the close of the long narrative of his political intrigues suffice for an account of his very extraordinary literary activity.

In these comments the faults and virtues of the book will have been suggested. The chief fault is a lack of light and shade in the presentation. Page after page goes on with sentences all built on the same model, wearying the reader with a sense of iteration, and leaving him without definite pictures in his mind. One can imagine that the whole was written by "stints" of so many hours a week, no matter what the mood of the writer might be. We cannot admire dramatic writing of history where it suggests shallowness of preparation, but, especially in dealing with a field so wide as this, one demands at least a feeling of perspective. Where the multitude of details makes it impossible to retain them in the mind, one must demand that they shall be subordinated to the general impression. Mr. Creighton might well have learned here from our great master Ranke, whose ponderous learning never displays itself in monotonous narration of particulars, but serves as the sure foundation upon which a narrative is built, every sentence of which is put where it stands in order to *tell* on the final result. As translator of the 'Englische Geschichte,' it is the more to be regretted that our author did not grasp more fully the style of his great original.

But now, when we consider the excellences of Mr. Creighton's work, we are forced to a very high measure of praise. To begin with, it was a most laudable undertaking to present a work of this scope to English readers. We are personally grateful for this supply of a long-felt need. We predict that for many years this will be the book most often taken in hand by those who seek for a knowledge of the time it covers. Then the use of materials seems within the limits we have mentioned to have been in a high degree careful and conscientious. The best sources, on the whole, have been in the author's hands, and he has used them without much help from other modern writers. Appendices at the end of each volume give an account of these sources. They are mainly what we might call the "standard" authorities, and indeed the author informs us that he has intentionally not wandered very widely from these into especial studies. The style, if often monotonous, is never offensive. It is correct to a fault. One might be tempted to call it a gentlemanly style, so far is it from crudities on the one hand, and affectations on the other. It shows the hand of a practised writer of good English—not a grand style, not capable of much variety, not dramatic certainly, but eminently proper. There is nothing to be said against it. Mr. Creighton's point of view is that of a man deeply impressed with the vices of the system whose ruin he is describing, yet there is nothing of the violent partisan about him. He gives, or tries to give, every man his due. His state of mind is historical, not polemic, and that is great praise for a Protestant clergyman writing of Roman pretension and corruption.

If the continuation of the work shall be in any degree dependent upon the success of these first volumes, we venture to believe that it will not be long delayed. It will in many ways be a more severe test than the present one, seeing that the author will then come into competition with a multitude of earlier writers, instead of having the field practically to himself, as is the case here. But even then the competition will be in the treatment of special topics; as a broad view of European politics during the Reformation proper, the later volumes will, like the earlier, have a place peculiarly their own.

Reminiscences of Court and Diplomatic Life. By Georgiana Baroness Bloomfield. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

Lady Bloomfield's 'Reminiscences' cover a period of some fifty years, commencing properly with her appointment as maid of honor to the Queen in 1841, and embracing residence at St. Petersburg, Berlin, and Vienna, as wife of the ambassador. They are very agreeable reading, and present, no doubt, a graphic picture of "court and diplomatic life"—all that they profess to do. The author disclaims the ambition of adding to the "history of our own times," and certainly there is in the volumes very little "information"—whether as to the countries visited or contemporary history and international relations. The book will serve very well to pass an idle hour; whether it was worth while to give it the honor of two large octavo volumes may be questioned. It contains several illustrations—portraits of sovereigns, and views of palaces and castles.

The sole privilege which royalty in England, as we find it depicted in these pages, seems to enjoy, other than those which are common to all the world, is that of becoming a mark for the pistol-shooting of any lunatic whose madness chances to take the bent of regicide. Beyond this, it has no resources but to live upon beef and mutton, just as all the world does; it has to get through its evenings by playing at cards for infinitesimally small stakes (Lady Bloomfield mentions as a fact out of the common that, after an evening spent in gambling of this exciting description, she rose a winner of eightpence), by singing glees, by doing fancy work; in short, it has to do battle with Time, the great enemy, with weapons precisely similar to those which are in daily use in every private household. Here, for example, is a Windsor "interior" culled from the book before us:

"*Windsor Castle, Nov.* 8, 1844. We had such a gay evening last night, for after dinner the Queen began polkaing with Countess Wratislaw, and made her give a regular dancing lesson. We afterwards played at a new German game, and then another of my accomplishments was brought into play, for the Prince began spinning counters, so I took to spinning rings, which you know I am an adept at doing, and the Queen was delighted. It always entertains me to see the little things which amuse Her Majesty and the Prince, instead of their looking bored as people so often do in English society. The Queen supplied me with her different rings, and gave the history of each. One, a small enamel with a tiny diamond in the centre, the Prince gave her the first time he came to England, when he was sixteen. Another beautiful emerald serpent he gave her after they were engaged. The next, the Queen said, 'was my wedding ring,' which she has never taken off; and yesterday, when a cast was taken of her hand, Her Majesty was in an agony lest the ring should come off with the plaster."

The maids of honor appear to have had very easy times of it at Windsor, their duties, indeed, being almost entirely comprised in the arduous labor of presenting the Queen with a bouquet when she sat down to the dinner-table. But when Lady Bloomfield married her husband, who was Minister Plenipotentiary at the Court of St. Petersburg, she found that the maids of honor at this despotic court enjoyed an amount of liberty that would have "scandalized" the Queen of Great Britain. These young ladies had no objection to hear the chimes at midnight, and the following are some of the shocking things which they were permitted to do uncensured by His Majesty the Czar of all the Russias:

"After the play, Julie Bobrinsky proposed driving with me in an open carriage to hear the nightingales which abound in the environs of Peterhof. It was quite light, the weather was delightful, not a leaf was stirring, and the still waters of the gulf were like a mirror. We drove along the shore from 'Mon Plaisir' to a new pavilion which the Emperor built in imitation of one at Palermo which His Majesty greatly admired. The nightingales were singing sweetly, and the night was so still each note was distinctly heard. We stayed out for about a couple of hours, and enjoyed the drive extremely; but I could not help comparing the liberty of the maids of honor in Russia to that enjoyed at Windsor, and thinking how scandalized the Queen would have been had Her Majesty heard of our driving about the park and visiting Virginia Water in the middle of the night!"

And we may add, not the Queen only, but the entire respectability of Great Britain, Ireland, and all the British colonies, would have regarded any such conduct on the part of British maids of honor in the light of a personal affront.

Lord Bloomfield was British Representative at the court of Berlin when the Crown Prince brought from England his bride, the Princess Royal; and we learn from Lady Bloomfield that on the occasion of her first reception the much-enduring Princess Royal was compelled by the stern laws of regal etiquette to "polonaise with twenty-two princes," and when her first baby was born, it was forthwith provided with "forty-two godfathers and godmothers, of all kinds of creeds, from the Emperor of Russia to the Emperor of Austria."

Lady Bloomfield thus describes her reception by the Empress of Austria:

"The Empress returned at the end of May, and received me shortly after. She was very beautiful, tall, and had the greatest profusion of rich brown hair, which hung in curls down her back. She wore a magenta-colored satin train, and when the folding-doors were thrown wide open and I saw Her Majesty for the first time, she appeared like a beautiful vision. We were a considerable distance from each other, as the Empress stood in one room, I in another, and there was a large empty room between us. No one was present; when the folding-doors were opened we curtsied to one another, then each advanced a few steps, curtsied again, and finally we met in the centre of the middle room. Her eyes were very fine, her complexion brilliant, and altogether she was most striking. She spoke in English, which she informed me she learnt from her father's grooms! She was passionately fond of dogs and horses, rode splendidly, and sometimes drove a four-in-hand."

This resplendent and imperial lady talking English after the classical manner in vogue among English grooms must have been lacking in what theologians call "grace of congruity"; but on this delicate subject Lady Bloomfield preserves a discreet silence. Lady Bloomfield and her husband appear to have possessed in a remarkable degree the power of making themselves agreeable to the royal and princely personages among whom their days were cast, and the result was that they were constantly made the recipients of favors which caused less successful courtiers to grow yellow with envy. For example, at a ball in the Winter Palace at St. Petersburg, the following incident occurred:

"After a time we reached the middle of the gallery, where the Cotillon was being danced; then the Empress, to my extreme astonishment, sent for two chairs, sat upon one herself, and ordered me to sit on the other. The surprise of the bystanders was undisguised, and I could not myself account for this sudden expression of Imperial favor."

Outlines of Primitive Belief among the Indo-European Races. By Charles Francis Keary, M.A., F.S.A., of the British Museum. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1882. 8vo, pp. 534.

Mr. Keary has made a contribution of positive value to the discussion in regard to primitive thought and institutions, which has been carried on so actively and with such abundant results within the last twenty-five years. He has done his work with great thoroughness and in a genuinely scientific spirit, and the reader feels that he is following a safe guide, even if upon some special points he may be disposed to question the views presented to him. We cannot do better, both for Mr. Keary and his readers, than to present, not so much the results of his inquiries—which would call for too lengthened and elaborate a statement—as the method he has pursued, and the limitations within which he has worked. This is one of the most characteristic features of the book, and one which most invites confidence.

The title-page shows that he has taken none but the Indo-European race into account. For this reason he says (p. 3): "I am not compelled to defend the results at which I shall arrive against arguments and facts drawn from other fields of inquiry, from other languages and other literatures." Thus we are protected at the outset from the specious analogies which have, we think, sometimes led astray other inquirers in this field, and have given a touch of uncertainty to some of their results. This is not assuming that the Indo-European race necessarily passed through different phases of thought and of institutions from other races, but merely that our knowledge is incomplete. Nothing is more remarkable than the universality with which certain customs and institutions, and even certain fables, are found among the most diverse nations. Of fetishism, for example, Mr. Keary remarks (p. 53) that it might seem to lie "outside our studies, seeing that none of the Indo-European creeds, of which we have any cognizance, are found in that primitive condition. But yet we know, not by theory only, but by a hundred proofs, that our forefathers have been in the fetish-worshipping phase; and, therefore, the traces of fetish worship among the Indo European races cannot be altogether left out of account."

In one respect Mr. Keary has, perhaps unconsciously, confined himself within narrower limits than is desirable: he has, namely, hardly touched upon the religious belief of any branch of the Indo-European race except the Indian, the Greek, and the Teutonic. To be sure, upon approaching the Greek mythology, he promises (p. 156) to have "an eye often directed to these neighbor systems—to the Teutonic and Celtic beliefs upon the one side, and upon the other to those discernible in the Vedas." But the Celtic, Slavic, Roman, and Iranian religious systems are scarcely touched upon at all. Perhaps it was not necessary for his scheme. Possibly the materials are too meagre—although we feel sure that the Roman religion, at least, would have afforded peculiarly rich materials for just the inquiry that he is engaged in. For Mr. Keary's subject is not Mythology, but Belief; and it has been remarked that the Romans had no mythology, but they certainly had a very positive and vital set of beliefs. In his preface he calls attention to the "two roads along which students are now travelling toward the same goal of fuller knowledge touching Prehistoric Belief." Comparative mythology is that which has been most familiar to us ever since the publication of Max Müller's memorable essay upon that subject some twenty-five years ago. But probably most students have been impatient at the narrowness with which Max Müller and his school treat the inquiry, as if it were purely a philological one, and mythology arose only out of an "abuse of language." The element of Belief, the religious side of the inquiry, is—we will not say ignored—but certainly made far less prominent than it should be. The treatment in the book before us aims to be historical rather than scientific; it is not an inquiry "*how* and *why* beliefs have come to be what they are, but *what* they have come to be" (p. 2). The preliminary questions touching the nature of Belief and its relation to mythological problems are handled in an introductory chapter, which "those who have no relish for psychological questions" are advised to skip. It is, however, indispensable to Mr. Keary's discussion, because it gives definitions which are essential to all parts of the work. "The history of Belief," he says (p. 3), "in its early mythologic stage, is a new study, and is, therefore, without those canons of criticism which past generations of students have bequeathed to the modern historian in other fields." The most important of these definitions are those which determine the successive stages through which the religious conception passed on its way to monotheism. These he gives as three—Fetishism, Polytheism, and Anthropomorphism. It is in the distinction between these two last that the essential feature of his theory is found.

"The belief in one god," he says (p. 44), "is a thing not difficult to understand; for, whether it be true or false, it is a belief of which we have a hundred examples around us. . . . But to what instinct does the belief in many gods respond? The difference between god and god cannot be an observed difference, as that between tree and tree or between man and man. . . . Why should Zeus be unlike Hermes, and why Apollo different from both? The explanation once universally given, and even now thought 'generally sufficient,' is that the characters of the gods are the result of mere invention, and, in fact, the children of fancy. But such a notion is, as we have before agreed, inconsistent with the seriousness of true belief. . . . When, however, we realize that the gods were once confounded with natural phenomena, all difficulty in accounting for their characters is taken away. Apollo is not like Hermes, because the sun is not like the wind. Just so long as the natures of both are connected with outward nature will their characters remain apart, and yet the belief in both remain real. When they become altogether abstract conceptions, either the two will merge in one, or one of them will lose his divine character. He will then become a subject for fancy and for the invention of poets; he will no longer be an object of worship. This nature-worshipping stage of belief, then, is, so long as it remains pure, the stage of the most pure and unmixed polytheism."

In the third, the Anthropomorphic, stage, the names of the gods "have grown into proper names, designations of *persons* and not of *things*; and the gods stand out as clear and as thinkable, in virtue of this name, as any absent friend may be." "This third condition of belief," adds Mr. Keary (p. 53), "lies quite beyond the sphere of the present inquiry." Here, therefore, is another limitation of the work. A single chapter is given to Fetishism, and then the rest of the volume is devoted to the stage which he designates as that of pure polytheism, preceding anthropomorphism. This is, of course, consistent with the title, 'Outlines of *Primitive* Belief.' The anthropomorphic stage is no longer primitive; it is that of the Olympian gods and of the Greek poets.

In the following chapters, eight in number, we have an admirable discussion of the polytheistic conceptions of the Indians, the Greeks, and the Teutons, ending (chap. x.) with an interesting chapter upon "Heathenism in the Middle Ages"—itself, of course, for the most part of Teutonic origin. Of these chapters we have not left ourselves room to speak. They abound, as might be expected, in statements and opinions which excite question and opposition. The plan and scope of his work did not permit the author to support these opinions by arguments; they are sometimes presented as natural deductions from principles already laid down, sometimes as bare statements, for which his solid scholarship must stand as sole guarantee. Thus, the course of the Greek migrations, and the origin of

the Pelasgians, as given in chapter iv., make a plausible and consistent theory, and one which we are inclined to accept; it cannot, however, be regarded as proved. The classification of the Greek divinities in pursuance of this theory is one of the most interesting parts of the book.

This book will be found serviceable to the student of human thought, of which Belief is one of the most important parts; to the student of early institutions, which are invariably based upon religion; and most of all to the student of mythology, which has its roots in this phase of human belief. Mythology has come down to us chiefly in its anthropomorphic form—a higher development, no doubt, but in this point of view a degeneration. Here is the excellence of Mr. Keary's method, that he has aimed to keep himself to this earlier stage, in which mythology was taking shape; and herein lies the peculiar value of his book for the scientific study of the subject. Here, too, we will add, we find a special cause for regret that he has left the Roman religion so completely to one side. For the dry, practical mind of the Romans checked the development into the anthropomorphic phase more completely than was the case with any other nation with which we are acquainted. For the three great branches of the Indo-European race which he has taken into consideration, Mr. Keary has provided an admirable guide to the study of religious development.

History of Billerica, Mass. With a Genealogical Register. By the Rev. Henry A. Hazen, A. M. Boston: A. Williams & Co. 8vo, pp. x.–510.

BILLERICA, originally bestowed, under the name of Shawshin, as an adjacent tract on Cambridge, in order to check emigration to Connecticut, is now separated from Cambridge by three intervening towns. The present name was adopted in 1655, and has the distinction of being unique in the United States, as is that of the parent Billericay in England, an Essex County village, of which an interesting description is given in a special chapter by the Rev. Edward G. Porter, and which contributed four of the *Mayflower's* passengers. Thoreau notes in his 'Week on the Concord and Merrimac Rivers' that

"When we were opposite to the middle of Billerica, the fields on either hand had a soft and cultivated English aspect, the village spire being seen over the copses which skirt the river, and sometimes an orchard straggled down to the water-side, though, generally, our course this forenoon was the wildest part of our voyage."

He hazards the guess that Billericay is Villarica, which perhaps is no worse than that which infers a *castra* in the final syllable from the abundant Roman remains in the neighborhood. In the New England town, he remarks, "solid men must have lived, select from year to year; a series of town clerks at least; and there are old records that you may search." Mr. Hazen says that few ancient records so well kept exist anywhere, and he has searched them with admirable patience and diligence. Thoreau also reproduces Capt. Daniel Gookin's account of his visit with the apostle Eliot to the peaceful home of the Pawtucket tribe at the junction of the two rivers. Mr. Hazen does the same, and tells much more of this mild-mannered people, who unjustly fell under suspicion in King Philip's war, and, notwithstanding their discreet withdrawal, suffered without vengefulness many wrongs at the hands of the men of Billerica. The town escaped entirely at that time, but in King William's war and Queen Anne's war there were bloody sporadic descents on outlying settlers, and pursuits in which the whites "smelt Indians in one place," and sometimes unluckily caught up with them.

But in spite of the worthies already mentioned, of Major Simon Willard, who figures somewhat, and of the Winthrops, who had extensive grants in Shawshin, Billerica has rather a dull history. It did not quarrel with its first minister, or divide on the location of the church or of the schoolhouse. It calmly accepted the change from Orthodoxy to Unitarianism which surprised Massachusetts in the first quarter of this century. It took its quota of the hapless Acadians, and its share in the fighting at Lexington and Bunker Hill. It has a soldiers' monument on the Common in memory of the civil war. It was formerly on the Middlesex Canal, now abandoned; the turnpike left it on one side; it made the first experiment in narrow-gauge railroads in this country, and that enterprise failed and was abandoned. Thoreau thought the town already "in its dotage." Still, it has slowly but surely increased its population since 1840 (from 1,632 to 2,000), though it has now but 500 more inhabitants than in 1776; and its mills and manufactures are on the increase.

The infant colony of Shawshin in 1642 enjoined its selectmen to

"have a vigilant eye over their brethren and neighbors, to see first that none of them shall suffer so much barbarism in any of their families as not to endeavor to teach, by themselves or others, their children and apprentices so much learning as may enable them perfectly to read the English tongue."

The Billerica Social Library of 1772 was one of the earliest in Massachusetts, and the town now has a public library, the gift of a venerable woman. It has had flourishing academies and private schools, but while the *families* of the place are nominally among New England's best, but few notabilities derive from them. For family reasons, the pioneer, John Farmer, published in 1816 his 'Historical Memoir,' which perhaps antedates any other Massachusetts town history; but it was a little pamphlet of only three-dozen pages. Mr. Hazen has made a thick book, in which he has done all that industry and literary skill could do with a rather commonplace Puritan farming community, and for genealogical purposes he is sure of the gratitude of a long posterity. The volume is rich in well-selected illustrations, among which we miss only a map showing the successive bounds of the territory from the beginning. Apparently, plenty of materials for this exist (p. 510).

The Russian Empire: Historical and Descriptive. By John Geddie, F.R.G.S., author of 'Lake Regions of Central Africa,' etc., etc. New York: T. Nelson & Sons. 1882.

THIS work is mainly descriptive, but it contains enough of history to justify the title. The plan on which it has been elaborated is particularly well adapted to the subject. Instead of describing the various divisions of the vast Empire in geographical order, the author has followed the process of growth by which from small beginnings it has reached its present proportions. He thus presents to us in historical order, with slight deviations, Novgorod the Great and its neighbors, Little Russia and Kiev, Poland and Lithuania, the Volga and the Kliazma, Moscow and Great Russia, Astrakhan and Orenburg, the Uralian provinces, Northern Russia, St. Petersburg and the Baltic regions, Crimea, New Russia, Caucasia, Siberia, the Chinese border and Pacific Coast, and Russian Turkestan, including the latest conquests under Kaufmann, Tchernayeff, and Skobeleff. The descriptions are drawn from ample and trustworthy sources, and in every part evince a laudable effort to be "up to date," although the writer is evidently ignorant of the Russian language, and apparently unfamiliar with the German literature on his subject. His historical authorities are scanty, the principal one being Rambaud; but he has made good use of his materials in general, and his book will be found instructive reading not only by those to whom most parts of Russia, both in Europe and Asia, are still *terræ incognitæ*, but also by those who have already devoted time and attention to this branch of geographical and historical knowledge. His chorographical and ethnographical details are copious, his descriptions are clear and neat—as are also his maps—and his judgment is free from bias. That he is not a blind admirer of Russia as it is, may be inferred from his summing up of the present state of affairs thus:

"It is clear that this great country has reached a crisis in its fate. The three chief powers to be reckoned with, it would seem, are a corrupt military bureaucracy, that has almost said its last word—that is clearly moving toward bankruptcy and ruin; a people still almost dumb and blind, and only half conscious that they have rights and grievances; and a party of wild political dreamers, strong as yet only by reason of desperation, that seek, as the sole panacea for the ills of society, the total destruction of order and law. What will be the issue for Russia it is impossible almost to guess; before it, as a French writer has said, there rises 'an immense note of interrogation.'"

That he does not admire Russia's remoter past either—at least not in the sense in which it is looked upon by the Katkoffs, Aksakoffs, and the minor Slavophils, who would fain return to the good old Muscovite times, and undo, if possible, the work of Peter the Great—is clear from the following lines, which are characteristic of the author's decided tone and occasionally overdone painting:

"The chief of all the European streams is almost the only one that does not mingle its waters with those of the other rivers of the earth, in the great circumfluent Ocean, pouring them instead into a salt lake of Inner [?] Asia. The Russian people also—the most powerful, in numbers at least, of the European nations—had their faces long turned in the same direction as the current of the Volga, and dwelt, first by reason of an evil destiny, and afterward from prejudice and ignorance, a race apart from others. . . . Peter the Great seized the lagging Russian nation fiercely and roughly by the throat, and dragged it from its moping seclusion in the Volga forests into the full light of modern civilization. Keeping a vice-like hold upon it, he entered upon one of the most stupendous 'matches against time' ever witnessed in the history of the world, spurning it forward with savage blows and kicks, until he had worn out in the struggle his own herculean strength, but had launched his country on the track of progress on which the nations of the west had already embarked."

Mr. Geddie, when carried away by a rhetorical momentum, is apt to overstep the lines of chronological order and accuracy. It is not correct, in speaking of "the march of the nations across the great highway of the steppes," to mention "Huns, Goths, Vandals, and Sarmatians, following on one another like waves of the sea," for they did not follow in this order; or to make Huns and Khazars descend on the Black Sea countries *after* Vladmir of Kiev (pp. 334–5); or the Magyars under Árpád overthrow "the barbarian power that Huns and Avars had established on the ruins of the Roman rule in Pannonia" (p. 243)—no such power existed in the time of Árpád. That Moscow was "three times, toward the close of the fourteenth century, . . . assailed by Olgerd and the Lithuanians" (p. 141), is a very loose statement, for the assaults took place in 1368, 1370, and 1371. That it was burned "in October," 1812 (p. 142), is erroneously stated, for the burning took place in September (Old Style or New). Neither did Alexander I. die "in 1824" (p. 367), but in 1825. Such slips, however, are not numerous. The author sins more often in his spelling of names. Not only does he use *j* for *y* ("Jaroslav," "Krasnojarsk")

and *sch* for *sh* ("*Sch*amyl")—as if he were writing in German—and *ch* for *sh* ("Men*ch*ikof," "*Ch*ahin"), *j* for *zh* ("Voron*ej*," "Po*j*arsky"), *ou* for *u* ("Bo*ug*," "K*ou*ma"), and even *c* for *ch* in "Nicolas" (Czar or Saint)—all in good French style—but he also has both "Gali*tz*in" and "Gali*ts*yne," "Su*w*aroff" and "Su*v*aroff," "Kia*kh*ta" and "Kia*ch*ta," and similar duplicates. *Lower* is "Nish*n*i," as Germans write it, in "Nishni Novgorod," and "Ni*j*ni," in the French way, in "Ni*j*ni Tagilsk," and the absurd English fashion of using the adjective alone to designate Lower Novgorod is not discarded either. The plural "Karaim" is used as an adjective for Karaite, and such ungrammatical plurals as "Tchuva*shs*" and "Diebi*tchs*," and double plural forms as "Polovt*sis*" and "Tsiga*nis*" occur. "Perecop" contrasts strangely with "*K*immericum," and "Dolgu*r*uky" and "*Gh*enghiz" are too often repeated to be misprints.

The House that Jill Built, after Jack's had Proved a Failure: A Book on Home Architecture. With illustrations. By E. C. Gardner. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1882.

THE people who need them ought by this time to be pretty well acquainted with Mr. E. C. Gardner's clever books on house-building. The last, which is lately reprinted from *Our Continent*, has the same vivacity that spiced its predecessors; the same eye to the practical conditions of planning and construction; the same lively fancy that made them entertaining. The illustrations, which were the weak spots in the previous books, are this time considerably bettered. The amateur of building will be likely to find them attractive, and may use them with effect as a means of badgering his ar[illegible]t. He will find many good suggestions [illegible] without hard reading, and a variety of [illegible] plans sufficient, perhaps, to make him glad [illegible] advice. Some of the plans, indeed, are uncommonly good in respect both of picturesqueness and convenience.

The reviewer of the book is specially invited, by a printed slip which is sent in it, to read the introduction prefixed to it by the editor of *Our Continent*. It appears from this introduction that Mr. Tourgée "had built one or two houses that did well enough on paper, but were simply appalling in their unfitness when he came to try to adapt the occupants to the earthly tabernacles which had been erected for their use and enjoyment." Therefore he did not believe in architects, and did not welcome his associate's proposal to publish a series of papers on the building of houses by one of them. But the papers, which are here reprinted, have converted the editor, at least to Mr. Gardner. His experience was that of many persons who either choose the wrong architect or do not clearly know in the beginning what they want. The common difficulty is, in fact, that clients go to their architects without this knowledge. It develops as their work goes on, at the cost of countless alterations, or flashes on them suddenly at the end with angry disappointment. If a man has no individual habits to which his house must be fitted, he may buy one ready-made, like the houses that are built on speculation by the block in New York. But the ins and outs of his way of life are not to be measured at a glance like the length of his arm or the size of his waist. To plan a house to suit a man's idiosyncrasies requires the same sort of familiarity as to paint his portrait well. A stranger cannot do either, unless he has an insight akin to genius. The natural corollary that the wife, who is to spend her days in the house, and rule its daily work, should be the best judge of its adaptation, is implied in Mr. Gardner's title, and is the keynote of the book. In truth, to plan a house successfully needs both an architect and a housekeeper. In proportion as housekeeping is the more or less absorbing occupation of the household, the housekeeper's share of the planning is greater or less. But not all wives are housekeepers, nor do all women, any more than all men, know beforehand what they want, and this necessary part of the housewife's knowledge is not too recondite for an intelligent architect to acquire. It is common to say that it takes a woman to plan a house. It takes a peculiar kind of woman—rather an exceptional kind—but it is well to have a woman to criticise it, which is a different thing.

C F Bickford 620 26 83

[illegible]ber's Log of his Voyage around Cape Ho[illegible] by Morton MacMichael, 3d. Philadelphia. 1883.

THIS is a common-sense, although rose-colored, account of a rather monotonous trip from Philadelphia to San Francisco in the good old ship *Pactolus*. As the mere record of a sea-voyage, we have not seen so interesting a narrative since 'Two Years Before the Mast,' from which, by the way, the author seems to have borrowed the best portions of his descriptions of life aboard-ship. After leaving the Capes, the landlubber wasted no time in gazing on "the rapidly-receding shore," but immediately succumbed to a severe attack of sea-sickness, that soon convinced him of the truth of the Japanese proverb which says that "a sea-voyage is an inch of hell." This state of mind lasted but a few days, and for the remainder of the voyage he saw only the bright side of life. Off the Rio de la Plata he encountered a gale of wind, in speaking of which he makes the accustomed remark that "both the captain and mate say they never went through so terrible a night before." He relates, however, many curious things from his own observation—as, for instance, that shark-steak tastes like a quinine pill, while broiled flying-fish is both delicate and well-flavored; and that in sea-slang an English vessel is a "Lime-Juicer." The *Pactolus* was well commanded, although the "mate concluded to give Mr. Charley [a sailor] a licking" for pouring turpentine over the little tom-cat, and the "second mate indulged in a row with a sailor," and, later on, "let poor, innocent Hans have a rap on the jaw." The book is too long for the reader's entertainment. The author often repeats himself, and his style is not good. Nevertheless, Mr. MacMichael gives one a great desire to take a cruise.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Acland and Ransome. A Hand-book of English Politics for the last Half-Century. London: Rivingtons.
Bar, Prof. L. International Law: Private and Criminal. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Barrington's Fate. [No-Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros.
Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 63-65. B. Westermann & Co.
Browne-Haldeman. The Clarendon Dictionary of the English Language, for School, Home, and Business Use. University Publishing Co.
Browning, R. Lyric and Dramatic Poems. Edited by Edward T. Mason. Henry Holt & Co. $2.
Characteristics of True Devotion. Translated from the French. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.
George Eliot Birthday-Book. Boston: Hall & Whiting. $1 25.
George, H. Progress and Poverty. John W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Greenough, J. B. The Greater Poems of Virgil. Vol. i. Pastoral Poems and Six Books of the Æneid. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. $1 55.
Greer, H. A Dictionary of Electricity; or, The Electrician's Hand-book. W. L. Allison. $2.
Griesinger, T. The Jesuits: a Complete History of their Open and Secret Proceedings. In 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6.
Holbrooke, G. O. Selections from the Letters of the Younger Pliny. Boston: John Allyn. 80 cents.
Holmes, O. W. The Poet at the Breakfast-Table. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Kluge, F. Etymologisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache. Parts 3-4. *Hehr—Pauke*. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner.
Knowlton, Helen M. W. M. Hunt's Talks on Art. Second Series. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Liddell and Scott A Greek-English Lexicon. Harper & Bros.
Malabári, B. M. Gujarát and the Gujarátis: Pictures of Men and Manners Taken from Life. London: W. H. Allen & Co.
McCosh, J. Energy: Efficient and Final Cause. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Memoir of Annie Keary. By her Sister. Macmillan & Co. $1 75.
Morton, E. J. C. Heroes of Science: Astronomers. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1 20.

Henry Holt & Co.

HAVE READY:

WALKER'S

Political Economy.

By Francis A. Walker, President Massachusetts Institute of Technology, late Superintendent of the Census, etc. Large 12mo, American Science Series, $2 25.

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"May be heartily recommended to all readers and students who aim to instruct themselves in the fundamental principles of this greatest of modern sciences. It is a thoroughly useful work, which ought naturally to raise economic discussion in the United States to a higher level of intelligence."

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Selected from his Works by Edward T. Mason. Square 12mo, $2.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 8, 1883.

The Week.

THE Nicaragua Canal scheme came up in the House on Monday, in the shape of an attempt to make the bill incorporating the company a special order for February 15. It was defeated, Mr. Perry Belmont pointing out in opposition that although the provision for a Government guarantee of interest has been stricken out, the company takes its concession from the Nicaraguan Government, under a condition which makes it subject to the provision of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty relating to the joint guarantee of neutrality by all Powers who like to join in it. As our Government has signified its intention not to stand by the treaty, the passage of a bill incorporating a company subject to it is clearly out of the question. The chances are that no canal will ever be built under an American charter (unless the Government builds it itself) until the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty is disposed of. Few persons like to invest in a disputed claim or construct canals for belligerents to fight over. On the other hand, it will probably be difficult to get England to modify the treaty till she is sure that, whether she modifies it or not, a canal will be made. In fact, the enterprise seems just now to be in a vicious circle.

The defeat of Mr. Windom in the Senatorial election in Minnesota will be generally regretted by fair-minded men. His long service in the House of Representatives and in the Senate, as well as his brief conduct of the Treasury Department, won for him, in spite of his temporary weakness on the financial question, the reputation of an unusually able, sagacious, and broad-minded man. His public usefulness constantly increased with his experience of public affairs. The attacks made upon his character by his enemies were easily repelled. Whatever his shortcomings may have been, he was conspicuously the fittest man in Minnesota for high representative position, and known as such to the whole American people. It is a pity to see him overthrown by intrigues and attacks of a small and purely personal nature. Minnesota can scarcely fail to lose in character, as well as in the representation of her interests, by the change made.

In commercial and industrial affairs there have been some unfavorable features in the past week, the most notable of which were several important failures, and especially that of the Union Iron and Steel Company at Chicago. There have also been very heavy snows in the Northwest, which have obstructed railway traffic and business generally. The movement of grain at the West has decreased largely during January, partly as the result of the hindrance to traffic caused by the heavy snows, and partly owing to the unwillingness of producers to sell much grain at present prices. On the other hand, the foreign markets for breadstuffs have continued to advance, and therefore afford the prospect of a continued active demand for our surplus of breadstuffs at fair prices. Cotton, though still at extremely low prices, is being exported freely, and the aggregate weekly export value is in excess of the corresponding week of last year. The money market has been extremely sluggish, and the tendency of rates of interest has been downward. But this was mainly on account of the stagnation in speculation, particularly on the Stock Exchange. The operations of the United States Treasury have absorbed some money in the past week, the coin balance having increased over $3,000,000, while the associated banks of New York city lost nearly an equal amount. The Secretary of the Treasury, probably assuming that this would continue to be the case, has made a call for $15,000,000 of the 3½ per cent. bonds (extended 5s) for redemption on May 1. The foreign money markets have been in nearly the same condition as that of New York—viz., dull and at low rates of interest—because of the stagnation in the Stock Exchanges of both London and Paris, as well as New York. There has been but little disposition in London and on the Continent to buy American securities, though there has been a little more evidence of it in the last day or two than for a week previous. The balance of foreign trade on the exchange of commodities alone is so nearly even that the rates of foreign exchange are now governed almost exclusively by the probabilities of foreign buying of American securities; and as there have been no considerable purchases in the past week, the rates of exchange have remained almost unchanged. The general tendency of prices of stocks has been downward, the decline in the week ranging from 1 to 5⅝ per cent. on the general list of stocks.

The failure of the Union Iron and Steel Company at Chicago, and that of the Kansas Rolling Mills at Rosedale, a suburb of Kansas City, should set unprejudiced minds to inquire more seriously into the truthfulness of the talk which represents a high tariff as a protection against the breaking down of industrial enterprise. Nobody will pretend that the establishments that have just failed did not belong to the highly-protected class. The industries they pursued were indeed among the few most favored. They had certainly not to suffer from foreign competition. We do not understand it to be alleged that their business management was either dishonest or negligent. They enjoyed all the advantages which a high protective tariff can afford. But it can scarcely be doubtful that just these artificial advantages were among the most important causes of their downfall, for they were of just that class of which so faithful a friend of the protective system as the *Tribune* recently observed that they were "stimulated to an unnatural growth in productive power." For a while the protective tariff enabled them to distribute enormous dividends among their stockholders. Their managers thought they saw a chance for more by expansion. They expanded to an unnatural degree under the stimulus of the tariff, and here they are. The workingmen who were employed in those establishments are turned into the street. We are told that the protective tariff is made for their especial benefit. It does not appear to protect them against being turned out without work and sustenance now that the establishments have failed. Neither did it formerly give them any share of the enormous dividends distributed among the stockholders. They had to content themselves with the market price of labor. We certainly do not mean to say that industrial establishments will not sometimes break down under a better revenue system. But we do mean to say that the high protective tariff, when represented as a system that can be relied upon to prevent such disasters, is a delusion and a snare.

The Albany *Evening Journal*, in the course of an article comparing wages in this country with those in England, and showing that there is not nearly so much difference as is commonly supposed, although money goes much further there than here, and that protection has really nothing to do with the amount paid, makes this striking observation:

> "Bricklayers and carpenters get better pay than weavers and miners. We all know that. Yet the former are not mentioned in any tariff scheme, and the others are alleged to get all the benefits of protection. We pay our printers higher wages than a like number of operatives in the Harmony Mills of Cohoes ever got. Yet type-setting is not under the shadow of protection's Chinese wall, and spinning is."

The *Evening Journal*, by the way, is one of many of our Republican contemporaries whose views on the tariff have undergone a marked change of late. The fact is that the day has passed when blind adherence to protective notions could be insisted upon as a test of party orthodoxy. Attention is sometimes directed to the fact that many Democratic leaders and newspapers seem to have fallen away from the old economic doctrine which used to be fundamental to the Democratic faith. This might be more discouraging but for the other fact that there has been a marked advance among Republicans in a liberal direction. The truth is, that opinion in favor of revenue reform is not controlled by partisan lines, but is gaining strength among all intelligent citizens, no matter what their party proclivities may have been heretofore. We congratulate our Albany contemporary upon the emancipation from the protective tyranny which has followed so soon after its declaration of independence of bosses and machines. The results of larger freedom are seen in the energy and earnestness of conviction with which it discusses the foremost questions of the time, and which cannot fail to commend it to the growing number of thinking and independent Republicans.

It appears that the bill relating to Niagara Falls, recently introduced in the Legislature, is in the nature of an inquiry, and that, upon the report of the Commissioners to be appointed, it will still remain for the Legislature to

give effect to its recommendations. This would probably throw the matter over to another session, with the chance of further delay. Meanwhile the destruction of the natural features of the Falls would go on. It is desirable to avoid this, if possible. Of course care should be taken not to incur unnecessary expenditure, but it is quite likely that delay would increase instead of diminishing the cost of the measure. In twelve months "enterprise" could do a great deal to "improve" the neighborhood, and the additional improvements would have to be paid for. It is understood that manufacturers and mill-owners are organizing an opposition to the bill. The sooner this opposition is encountered the better. With every year's delay the number of factories and mills will multiply, the vested interests will grow larger, and the force of the opposition will increase accordingly. Objection also is made by some of the taxpayers of the village of Niagara Falls, who fear that the withdrawal of considerable property from assessment will impose additional burdens upon them. The sooner this objection also is met the better. The value of the land which the State contemplates buying increases every year, and the amount of taxable property withdrawn will increase, of course. Whatever force there may be in the opposition will gather strength with the lapse of time. If it is really intended to set apart a State reservation at Niagara Falls, the matter ought to be settled at this session. If suitable men are selected for Commissioners, the Legislature might safely appropriate the money for the work now, fixing the maximum of expense at the limit already informally ascertained.

"The New York *Nation* is engaged in the difficult task of attempting to demonstrate that the best classes of society in the South are composed of murderers. This is an old story about the South, reiterated for many years by Republican journals, until many of them grew tired of it and stopped it some time ago. The *Nation*, however, has started a fresh crusade in the old Chicago *Inter-Ocean* style, claiming that murder in the North is a very rare thing, and murder by persons outside the slums an impossibility. The criminal statistics of the Northern States of course flatly contradict the *Nation's* theory, and Northern newspapers in their daily recital of local crime do so also. The position of the *Nation* is a very absurd one, and we are astonished that a journal, ordinarily fair in its criticisms of the South, should take it. It even cited a stabbing affair at a low negro ball in Virginia, the other day, as evidence of the depravity of Southern gentlemen in first-class society."—*Louisville Courier-Journal.*

This is gross and reckless misrepresentation of the *Nation*. We are not "attempting to demonstrate that the best classes of society in the South are composed of murderers," but to show to the Southern people, from the columns of their own papers, that there is more homicide practised there by men called gentlemen than is good for their fair name as well as their material prosperity, and that they had better stop it. We have never thought of asserting that murder is a very rare thing in the North, but that homicides among the better classes, committed for social or business reasons, are more rare here than in the South, and that all kinds of murder are far more apt to be punished according to law. The "stabbing affair at a negro ball in Virginia," of which the *Courier-Journal* speaks, was first discussed in accordance with the telegraphic report received by the Associated Press; but we put it at once in its correct light as soon as its true character became known.

The decision of Judge Van Vorst in Mr. Loubat's suit against the Union Club is of considerable interest, not only to the Club, but to the public at large. Mr. Loubat was turned out of the Club by the Governing Committee, which has power to expel "for conduct improper and prejudicial to the Club." By one of the rules the proceedings of this committee must be "strictly private." The Treasurer of the Club, Mr. Leroy, who was a member of the committee, was examined as a witness before trial, and produced the minutes of the proceedings in the case. He was asked by Mr. Loubat's counsel a number of questions, the object of which was to bring out the motives that actuated him in voting for the expulsion of Mr. Loubat. Some of the questions were as follows: "What conduct on the part of Mr. Loubat did you, as a member of the Governing Committee, deem to be improper and prejudicial to the Club? For what cause did you vote for the expulsion of Mr. Loubat? Did you, as a member of the Governing Committee, deem the fact that Mr. Loubat had in private conversation in the club-house used improper language a cause for expulsion?" Judge Van Vorst's decision is that such a line of inquiry "violates the sanctity of such proceedings, and would disturb their efficiency, and is clearly opposed to the policy out of which such investigations originate and by which they are to be conducted." The English courts have decided—and with their decisions Judge Van Vorst's opinion is in accord—that every member of a club has property interests which he may call upon the courts to protect; that he cannot be turned out of a club, at least unless it has unusual features in its constitution, without some sort of trial, which involves notice, an opportunity of meeting the charges against him, etc. But one of the main objects of a club is that its life shall be just as little public as the family life of its members; that if differences or disputes occur between its members they shall be settled within doors. Now, obviously this cannot be done if a member who is disciplined for improper behavior has the right to send for a judge to see whether the club or its committee understand what improper conduct is, and to tell them what may or may not be done among gentlemen.

The increased observance of Lent in New York during the past twenty-five years is a phenomenon generally attributed to the growth of the Episcopal and Catholic churches; and probably the same thing is noticeable in other parts of the country. For fashionable people it is an institution which has great attractions, notwithstanding the "bad jokes" which, according to the *Tribune*, circulate every year with regard to their doings during Lent. These jokes are founded on the idea favorite among scoffers that the religious observances of those who carry on "society" are more or less a sham and pretence, and that it is absurd for people devoted to the pomps and vanities of the gay world to suddenly become devout for a few weeks, fast, go to church on week days, and refuse, according to one of the traditional jokes, to dance "on a crash." We have no doubt that Lent has an excellent sanitary effect, and, whatever it does for the soul of society, gives its body a chance of periodic rest, which it much needs. Society in New York, it should be remembered, is managed, not by people in mature life, who can stand a prolonged strain, but by very young girls and boys, who, having thrown aside all parental restraint, and being passionately fond of excitement, would keep it up all through the winter if the Church did not interfere to check their excesses. From this point of view all sects and denominations may rejoice in Lent.

The trouble at Annapolis seems to be the sort of trouble that might spring up in any military school where the master enforces an unpopular system of discipline. The Superintendent, Captain Ramsay, has introduced a "demerit" system which the cadets resent as degrading. In addition to this, Cadet Woodruff has been deprived of his cadet rank for certifying, on his honor, that he had not rendered any assistance at an examination to any cadet, when, as a matter of fact, he had written out solutions of half the questions proposed, and taken means to bring them within reach of his fellow-pupils. A large number of the students have been placed under arrest for expressing sympathy with Mr. Woodruff and other cadets who have been disciplined. They have now resorted to the columns of the *Herald* to state their case, which is a very improper thing for them to do; and their sympathy with Mr. Woodruff seems uncalled for, as his case evidently merited severe punishment. The affair will probably, however, make an inquiry into the system of discipline adopted by the Superintendent seem necessary.

The probabilities are now that the bill empowering the Government to expel pretenders from France will be defeated in the Senate, and to the hearty satisfaction of all but the Extremists of the Left. Discussion has had a most destructive effect on the whole scheme. People are ashamed of the alarm into which Prince Napoleon's manifesto threw the Assembly. They are ashamed of the notion that the Republic can be endangered by placards. Moreover, exceptional legislation, directed against individual officers—like the Orleanist Princes, whom it is proposed to put on the retired list, not because they are old, or incompetent, or culpable, but because they are dangerous—is said to be viewed with great disfavor in the army, as an exercise of power which puts every officer's commission in peril. The *Temps*, the ablest and calmest of the Republican journals, argues powerfully and with ill-concealed scorn, that if individuals are to be exposed to "exceptional legislation" because they are supposed to be dangerous to the state, where is it to end? In the opinion of many, great wealth, or great talents or ambition make a man dangerous to the state. Gambetta was considered by many far more dangerous than any of the pretenders. Many, too, consider all persons holding Socialist opinions danger-

ous to the state. Is there to be legislation empowering the Government to expel from the country everybody whom it singles out as likely by his presence to imperil republican institutions?

Mr. Chamberlain has answered his colleague Lord Hartington's assertion that nothing more is to be said about Irish Home Rule, and that the Irish question is practically closed, by the counter assertion that a good deal more is to be both said and done about the causes of Irish discontent, including, of course, Home Rule. This little incident has attracted a good deal of attention in England, as showing how much discordance Mr. Gladstone probably keeps down, and, indeed, how potent his influence as a leader must be to make it possible for both Mr. Chamberlain and Lord Hartington to serve under him. During the Liberal opposition Mr. Chamberlain made no attempt to disguise his reluctance to accept Lord Hartington's leadership, and indeed his doubts as to the genuineness of Lord Hartington's liberalism. The old divergence of sentiment and opinion has been suppressed, but evidently not extirpated, by Mr. Gladstone's leadership. We may be sure that whenever Mr. Gladstone ceases to lead, it will break out again and make a Whig-Radical combination impossible. But this is not the only sign of the trouble that is to come in the Liberal ranks whenever Mr. Gladstone quits the scene. Sir Charles Dilke has been making speeches to his constituents, which seem to show that not only has he got over his Republicanism, but that he is getting over some of his Radicalism. He is marked out in all sorts of ways for the Liberal leadership in the House of Commons after Mr. Gladstone's retirement. Lord Hartington must, in the course of nature, before very long go up to the House of Lords on the death of his father, the Duke of Devonshire, and no one sitting in the House of Peers can exert much influence in the Liberal party as it is now made up. Even if he retained the title of leader, the real authority would go to his lieutenant in the lower house, and that lieutenant Sir Charles Dilke will be.

Sir Charles is still young, very able, full of political information, in possession of a considerable fortune, without which the highest success is not possible in British politics, and is an orator of great power. Now that he has got into the Cabinet—which is to an English politician as important as getting the Governorship or the Senatorship of his own State is to an American politician—all things seem not only attainable to him, but within easy reach. When, the other day, therefore, he defined the true function of the Radicals, with whom he has hitherto acted, to be "the permeation" of the Liberal party with Radical ideas, and not the formation of a distinct critical and exacting group, and condemned their tactics in the past as erroneous, he caused great alarm and dissatisfaction in Birmingham and Manchester and other Radical centres. Even the *Pall Mall Gazette* condemns his language in no very measured terms. It ridicules the work of "permeation" as one which the Radicals could never have accomplished in the past. It denies that the Whig element in the Liberal party could be either permeated or persuaded by Radicals who did not act together as a critical and hostile minority, determined to have its way, or to make it very unpleasant if it did not; and predicts that the tactics which have had in the past such marked and valuable effects on Liberal policy will have to be persisted in.

This is probably all very true. If the Radicals had confined themselves to moral suasion, they would have had about as much influence on the Whigs as the Parnellites would have had on the House of Commons if they had continued to make that old annual statement, about the wrongs of Ireland, which the majority used to dispose of so neatly by a division without debate. It was by showing their teeth, or making it hot for the Conservative wing, that they forced a Radical programme on the party and secured a seat in the Cabinet for their most prominent member. Sir Charles Dilke's condemnation of this policy, which he himself helped to carry out, is, therefore, naturally looked on as a sign that he thinks it necessary for the success of his own career to separate himself from his old associates. But his old associates are evidently not disposed to take this performance in good part, or to take up the work of "permeation" with any zeal; and Sir Charles Dilke is probably, in proposing it to them, making the only mistake which could mar his fortunes. It will be easily seen, however, from all this on what a volcanic region Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet is built.

There seems to be very little doubt that the Government in Ireland at last has the murderers of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke in its grasp, and that this and other assassinations in and about Dublin were the work of one large band, composed principally of rather intelligent mechanics, who deliberately undertook the task of intimidating both the Government officials and the police, courts, and juries. They are evidently a sort of outcome or sequel of the Fenian organization, and have that readiness to take life under the orders of a secret society which has so long been a striking feature of Irish disorder and discontent, and has now apparently spread to the Continent. But nothing whatever has yet appeared to show that there was any connection between these conspirators and the Land League, or in fact that they had any respect whatever for the Land League agitation. The history of the Molly Maguires in Pennsylvania proves that it is very easy to organize assassination societies among a certain class of Irishmen, simply as a means of cowing authority of any kind, or of getting rid of private enemies. In fact, this readiness to conspire to assassinate seems to have become a disease of the Irish mind, very like the brigandage in Sicily and Greece. In both these countries there is apparently no class of the community which does not contain sympathizers with or confederates of brigands, and, in both, brigand means murderer in case of necessity. Curiously enough, however, the Irish assassin rarely robs his victim, or murders him with the view of robbing him, and probably manages to dignify his doings with some glamour of patriotism. Even the Pennsylvania Molly Maguires had a dig at England and Gladstone in their passwords; and some doubtless flattered themselves that in shooting overseers and contractors they were in some manner giving greatness and terror to the Irish name.

The Dublin revelations are nevertheless placing the Land League agitators in a very embarrassing position. One of the strongest traditions of Irish agitation makes it necessary to treat all Government prosecutions for offences of a political or agrarian character as unfair, owing to the corruption and partisanship of everybody connected with them, including the juries. No Irish agitator or popular leader dares openly to avow that he thinks anybody has been fairly tried for a political or agrarian murder or outrage. Consequently the Land Leaguers have to suppress all expressions of satisfaction that the Dublin assassins have been found out, lest they should seem to admit that the courts will give them justice, and at the same time have to suppress all expressions of sympathy with them, lest they should seem to approve of assassination. The Government is not helping them out of their scrape by its way of executing the Repression Act in other directions. The local authorities have been using the arbitrary powers conferred on them by the law in a way which is lamentably calculated to deprive the Dublin prosecutions of all moral weight. Severe sentences have been summarily inflicted for trifling indiscretions of speech, and the extraordinary spectacle has been presented to the people of three or four editors and reporters of provincial papers, sentenced to imprisonment for refusal to disperse at a meeting on the summons of the police, marching through the streets handcuffed, in convict's dress, and with their clothes in bundles under their arms. In fact, if half what is told is true, the worst fears of the English Radicals as to the possible abuses of the Act are being realized. The crusade against the press and the platform seems to be as fierce as under Mr. Forster's Coercion Bill, and it can be defended, and is defended, only on the plea that crime in Ireland cannot be suppressed without the suppression of free speech also.

The Court of Cassation in France has struck a heavy blow at the Silver Convention of the Latin Union. That convention gave free circulation to the silver coins of each country of the Union in all the other countries of the Union, which includes France, Italy, Switzerland, and Belgium. A French creditor, having refused to receive Swiss silver in payment of his debts from another Frenchman, was tried for it under the law which makes the refusal to receive the national coins punishable with fine or imprisonment. The Court directed his acquittal, on the ground that the Monetary Convention did not modify the law so as to bring all Latin silver within its operation. The Public Prosecutor appealed, but the Court of Cassation has confirmed the decision of the court below. It is feared that the effect of this decision will be virtually to abrogate the Monetary Convention as far as France is concerned.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 31, to TUESDAY, February 6, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE reduction of the public debt of the United States in the month of January amounted to a little more than $13,500,000, making the reduction for the first seven months of the current fiscal year $95,000,000, or an average monthly reduction of $13,570,000. This continuance of the large monthly reduction was mainly owing to an unexpected falling off in the expenses, notably in the current expenses of the Pension Bureau. The customs receipts were greater by $2,000,000 than those of December, but the internal-revenue receipts fell off about $500,000. The expenditures for the month were about $2,000,000 greater than those of December. On Thursday the Secretary of the Treasury issued another call for continued 5 per cent. bonds of 1881, the amount embraced in the call being $15,000,000.

Two large failures occurred during the week. The Kansas Rolling Mills, in the suburb of Rosedale, Mo., were closed on Saturday. For the past three months the mills have been somewhat embarrassed, influenced, it is said, by the general depression in the iron trade, and for two months they have been running on reduced time. The stock is owned chiefly by A. B. Stone, of New York; and Amasa Stone, W. R. Harris, and D. Teets, of Cleveland. Mr. A. B. Stone is the President. The Trustees have taken possession of the works. The liabilities, secured and unsecured, are $600,000. The assets, the officers state, are ample to cover all indebtedness, the plant being worth about half a million. The lumber-manufacturing firm of Ferry & Brother, of Grand Haven, Mich., the head of the house being Senator Ferry, who is now seeking a reëlection at the hands of the Michigan Legislature, has also failed. The liabilities, it is thought, will amount to upward of $500,000, contracted in large part by the failure of the firm's Utah mines.

There have been great floods during this week in Western Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana. The railroads have suffered much damage by washouts and ruined bridges, and parts of the towns of Fremont and Defiance in Ohio, Allegheny City and Pittsburg in Pennsylvania, and Wheeling, W. Virginia, have been submerged. Reports from Central Ohio show the highest water by from six to twenty inches ever known there. Along the Scioto Valley alone the damage is roughly estimated at $1,000,000. Some lives were lost and thousands of people rendered homeless, some in a destitute condition. One of the results of the floods was the igniting of oil at the Standard Oil Works in Cleveland, Ohio, which threatened for a while to cause a great conflagration, as the burning oil was carried through the flooded parts of the city on the surface of the water. On Monday the fire in the neighborhood of the oil works had been practically extinguished.

The Senate continued the debate on the Tariff Bill on Wednesday. The sugar question consumed most of the session. In the afternoon both houses adjourned early out of respect to the memory of the late Godlove S. Orth, of Indiana. The tobacco and provision schedules of the Tariff Bill were discussed on Thursday and Friday. On Saturday and Monday the Senate got through the jute and hemp schedules and began on the wool schedule.

The House also has continued its seemingly interminable debate on the tariff during the week. There seems to be little hope of a Tariff Bill being passed this session. Monday being the day set apart for suspension of the rules, the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill was called up, but a motion for its immediate consideration was lost by a vote of 176 to 108.

The House of Representatives accomplished little on Tuesday. The Democrats filibustered against the Tariff Bill. In the Senate the woollen schedule of the Tariff Bill was considered.

The Pension Appropriation Bill, as agreed upon by the Appropriation Committee, was reported to the Senate on Saturday. The bill contains only one amendment by the Senate committee. It appropriates $86,575,000, and reappropriates $15,800,000 of unexpended balances of former appropriations, now in the Treasury.

The House Committee on Military Affairs has practically agreed upon a bill to place General Grant upon the retired list of the Army, with the rank of General.

The annual statement of the organized and unorganized military force of the United States was sent to Congress by the Secretary of War on Saturday. It showed the number of commissioned officers to be 6,583; non-commissioned officers, musicians, and privates, 81,031; number of men available for military duty, 6,797,006.

Under the new treaty which it is proposed to make with the Sioux Indians, the Government, in addition to giving 320 acres of land to the head of each family and eighty acres to each minor child, stipulates to furnish to each Indian settlement a physician, carpenter, miller, engineer, farmer, and blacksmith for a period of ten years. On their part, the Sioux surrender between 17,000 and 18,000 square miles of their former reservation, and agree not to sell or slaughter for sale the cows and oxen to be furnished them by the Government unless by permission of the Interior Department.

The term of office of Messrs. Burt and Graham, Naval Officer and Surveyor, respectively, of the Port of New York, will expire on the 7th instant, but it has been decided to make no change in these offices until the President has appointed the Civil Service Commissioners, who, it is expected, will be appointed in a few days.

A public meeting was held in the rooms of the Mercantile Exchange, in New York, on Saturday, for the purpose of considering the matter of petitioning Congress to legislate against the circulation of trade-dollars. Speeches were made by several merchants, who dwelt on the inconvenience and loss occasioned to a large class of people by the trade-dollar.

A revolt took place among the first-class cadets of the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis on Wednesday. A few days previous Cadet Woodruff was reported for dishonorable conduct in certifying in connection with an examination paper to a falsehood. He was arrested and made a confession in writing of his fault. Being a cadet petty officer, he was immediately reduced to the ranks. When this became known, as he was very popular, Cadet Lieutenant Street, of his division, led his fellow-cadets in cheering for the culprit while the Superintendent and other officers were within hearing. The Lieutenant was immediately arrested. Other insubordination followed, and a number of other cadets were arrested and put on board of the man-of-war *Santee*.

On Wednesday, on the seventeenth joint ballot, Gen. C. F. Manderson, having received 75 votes, was elected United States Senator from Nebraska. On Thursday the deadlock in the Minnesota Legislature was broken, and D. M. Sabin was elected Senator from that State to succeed Mr. Windom. The result was brought about by the action of the Democratic caucus, which agreed to give up its candidate when 35 Republican votes should be cast for any candidate except Windom. Mr. Sabin is a business man of ability, and is at the head of the Northwestern Car Factory at Stillwater. He has been one of the most successful politicians of Minnesota, and is a member of the State Legislature.

It is announced that Mr. James G. Blaine has been for some time past preparing a political history under the title of 'Twenty Years of Congress, from Lincoln to Garfield. A History of National Legislation from 1861 to 1881.'

The Massachusetts Republican State Committee organized on Wednesday for the year, with young men in the leading places and old leaders on committees with them. Henry Cabot Lodge was made Chairman; Edwin B. Hale, Chairman of the Executive Committee; Henry N. Sawyer, Chairman of the Finance Committee; and George A. Flagg, Secretary of the General Committee.

The State Treasurer of Alabama, Isaac H. Vincent, has been found to be a defaulter to the amount of $212,687. The discovery was made on Wednesday, and on the preceding Monday Vincent left Montgomery and has not since been heard from. Most of the money went in cotton speculations. Attachments were levied on all his property in Montgomery, which amounts, however, to only about $15,000 in value. Vincent abstracted his bond and the book in which it was recorded from the Auditor's office, evidently with the object of protecting his bondsmen, but it is stated that the contents of the bond can be established by secondary evidence so as to fix their liability.

The Grand Jury at Washington on Thursday found an indictment against Henry A. Bowen, for corruptly endeavoring to influence the Star-route juror, William Dickson.

One of the most disastrous snow-slides ever known in the Rocky Mountain regions occurred near Crested Butte, Colorado, on Wednesday night. Thirty men, employed in a coal mine, were sleeping in a building which was crushed to atoms as it was hurled down the mountain side by the avalanche. Seven were killed and eighteen injured, several fatally.

The coroner's jury at Milwaukee, Wis., rendered a verdict in the investigation of the Newhall House disaster on Monday afternoon. They found the proprietor of the house guilty of culpable negligence in not employing a sufficient number of watchmen to guard the house against fire and to awaken the inmates in time to save all the lives possible. They found the Newhall House easy of egress and devoid of intricate passages. Nevertheless, they found the owner of the house guilty of negligence in not having provided more escapes in case of fire.

The steamboat *Old Colony*, of the Fall River Line, bound from Newport for New York, went ashore on Hart's Island, in Long Island Sound, at about eight o'clock on Sunday morning. The passengers and some of the more perishable freight were taken off by the *City of Lawrence*, of the Norwich Line.

At a meeting of the Board of Trustees of Columbia College, New York, on Monday, a petition signed by 1,352 persons was received from the Association for Promoting the Higher Education of Women. The petition asks the Trustees to extend the educational privileges of Columbia College to such women as desire and deserve them, under such restrictions as the Trustees shall deem best.

Professor George W. Greene died at East Greenwich, Rhode Island, on Friday. He was born in 1811. He was the author of a number of historical works, chiefly relating to the history of the United States.

The United States Consul at Amsterdam wrote to the State Department that no person in the United States had asked him for any information about the approaching International Exposition in that city, and that only six firms in this country had engaged space in the Fair building. He says that there is considerable disappointment in Holland at the failure of the United States to take more interest in the Exhibition.

FOREIGN.

A heated debate took place in the French Chamber of Deputies, on Thursday, on M.

Fabre's compromise bill in regard to the Orleans Princes. The bill was finally passed by a vote of 343 to 163, and the Chamber adjourned for a week. In the debate the Right persisted in an organized system of obstruction. M. Fabre's bill as passed consists of three clauses: the first prohibits the Princes from filling any civil or military post; the second empowers the President to decree their expulsion; and the third enacts a penalty of from one to five years' imprisonment for a violation of such decree. General Thibaudin explained in the debate that the bill did not strike the Princes from the Army roll, but only removed them from active service, leaving them their rank. In the French Senate, on Friday, the bill relative to oaths in courts of justice was passed, with an amendment that a juryman can demand the suppression of the formula "Before God and man" in taking the oath. An important modification in the bill, as finally passed, was the suppression of the clause ordering the removal of religious emblems from courts of justice. There seems to be little chance of the Expulsion Bill passing the Senate, as of the committee on the bill eight members are opposed to it and only one is in favor of it. Public uneasiness in France is said to be increasing. The preliminary examination of Prince Jerome Napoleon having been concluded, he will shortly be arraigned on an indictment for an attempt to overthrow the existing régime, and it is expected that his case will be decided within a week.

A meeting of Socialists was held in Marseilles on Sunday, at which about one hundred persons, including a number of women, were present. Resolutions were adopted strongly condemning the Lyons tribunal which convicted Prince Krapotkine and his fellow-prisoners. The proceedings were turbulent, and terminated amid cries of "Vive la Révolution internationale."

The examination of the men recently arrested on the charge of entering into a conspiracy to murder Government officials was resumed in Dublin on Saturday. The court-room was densely crowded and the excitement great. The Clerk of the Court read the charge against them, which was to the effect that, on the 6th of May last, James Carey, a member of the Corporation; Joseph Brady, a stone-cutter; Edward O'Brien, a shoemaker; Edward McCaffery, a car driver; Peter Carey, a mason; Lawrence Hanlon, a carpenter; Peter Doyle, a coach-builder, and Timothy Kelly, a coach-builder, murdered Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke. The reading of the charge was greeted by the prisoners with a burst of loud laughter. The evidence produced against Carey was that he had been the lessor of a room in which two knives and a rifle had been found, and that the cuts in the clothes of the murdered men and their wounds had been inflicted by instruments similar to the above-mentioned knives, which were produced in court. The evidence against O'Brien and McCaffrey was that they had been lurking about the scene of the murder shortly before it was committed. Brady was identified as the driver of the car upon which the assassins rode. On Monday the examination was resumed, and evidence introduced against the prisoners accused of attempting to kill Mr. Field. A little girl identified a man named Kavanagh as the driver of the car which contained the men who intended to assassinate Mr. Field. The identification was complete. Several more men, including Kavanagh, were added to the list of those charged with the murder of Lord Cavendish and Mr. Burke. The evidence against the prisoners on this day was not particularly important. Some sensation was caused by the reading of extracts from books found in a Fenian armory.

Earl Spencer has appointed the period between the 14th of February and the 7th of March for hearing appeals under the Crimes Act. The Bishop of Killala has issued a pastoral letter condemning secret societies. Reports of deaths from starvation in various parts of Ireland are beginning to be received.

Warrants have been issued for the arrest of Messrs. Davitt, Healy, and Quinn. Mr. Healy, in consequence of his impending imprisonment, intends to resign his seat in Parliament. The Dublin Grand Jury has returned a true bill for seditious libel against Mr. O'Brien, editor of the *United Ireland*.

Mr. Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, speaking at a banquet at Swansea, England, Thursday evening, said the next session of Parliament would be an interesting but not an exciting one. Matters relating to England and Scotland demanded consideration. He believed the recent measures passed would bring about a settled state of affairs in Ireland.

It is understood that the new Egyptian representative Assembly will meet soon to advise the Government on proposed internal reforms. The Khedive's decrees appointing Sir Auckland Colvin financial adviser to the Egyptian Government and naming the members of the Indemnity Commission have been published. The Commission includes the diplomatic agents of England, Austria, France, Germany, Italy, Russia, the United States, and Greece, and is under the presidency of Abdurrahman Pasha, Arabi's Minister of Finance.

The German military officers in the employ of the Porte have drawn up a plan for the reorganization of the Turkish Army, by which great improvements will be effected, as it retires a swarm of useless officers and devotes their pay to more useful purposes. It is understood that the Sultan has expressed his entire concurrence in the views expressed in the report of the officers.

The Pope has returned a very conciliatory answer to the German Emperor William's letter. It is hoped that a direct and personal understanding will soon be reached on the basis of a complete revision of the May laws, with concessions on the part of the Vatican upon the question of obtaining the previous consent of the German Government to all ecclesiastical appointments. The Berlin *Germania* (Ultramontane), discussing the Emperor's letter to the Pope, proclaims it injustice to conclude a peace by which the Empire would derive greater benefit than the Church. The Berlin *Reichs-Zeitung* says the Emperor's letter has produced a painful impression in Catholic circles.

By command of the Emperor, Prince Bismarck has sent a letter to the German Consuls and other diplomatic agents in the United States concerned in the collecting and forwarding of subscriptions for the relief of the sufferers by the recent floods, in which he says that the Emperor has learned with keen interest how general was the sympathy awakened among the Germans in America for the sufferings of the residents of the inundated districts, and that he is much gratified by this proof of the feeling of kinship which citizens of the German race abroad entertain for their countrymen in the old home, and which corresponds with the friendly relations existing between the Governments of Germany and the United States. In conclusion, the Emperor warmly thanks the committee which had in charge the matter of collecting the funds.

In the German Reichstag, on Thursday, Herr Sonnermann asked whether, in consequence of the disaster to the steamship *Cimbria*, the Government proposed to make any international arrangements to prevent collisions at sea. He advocated the introduction of the electric light for that purpose. Herr Scholz, replying in his capacity as Federal Commissioner, said the Government felt the same sympathy as the nation with the sufferers by the recent disaster, and had also a sense of its responsibility. The Government could not immediately answer the interpellation, but would keep the subject in view. An official inquiry had been instituted, and until a result was reached the Government must reserve its decision.

A number of Danish subjects in North Schleswig, Prussia, having objected to military service in the German Army, the Danish Government has made representations to Prussia pointing out that by the Danish law all German Schleswig-Holsteiners inhabiting Denmark are especially exempted.

A German emigration return presented to the Reichstag shows a decrease of 16,000 in the year 1882, as compared with the previous year, and that 168,454 emigrants passed through Hamburg, Bremen, and Stettin, mostly for the United States. This was exclusive of 63,756 foreigners.

A despatch from Berlin says that M. de Giers, on reassuming the direction of the Russian Foreign Office, issued a circular to the Russian representatives abroad, explaining that the result of his personal exchange of opinion with the German, Austrian, and Italian Foreign Ministers was satisfactory, and tended to the preservation of peace.

A solemn warning, printed on fine vellum, has reached the Czar and the members of the Russian Cabinet, claiming universal suffrage, the right of the people to own land, freedom of conscience, of the press, and of public meeting. If these demands are not granted before the coronation of the Czar, the Revolutionary Committee sending the warning threaten to revert to intimidation.

The Czar has issued his manifesto giving notice of his coronation at Moscow on the 27th of May. The manifesto is addressed "to all Russian subjects." An ukase orders the attendance at Moscow, on the occasion of the coronation, of all marshals of the nobility and prefects of provincial capitals except those of Siberia, whose attendance is excused on account of distance, and the presidents of the rural and urban administrations. The Minister of the Household is charged with the duty of making the necessary preparations. He will be assisted by a special commission.

The London *Times*, in an editorial commenting on the Czar's manifesto, says that much too little attention has been attracted by the subsidence of the revolutionary storm, and the reassertion of ascendency by the permanent forces of Russian society. It says that the events of the last few weeks indicate the break-up, for the present at least, of the Nihilist conspiracies.

In the Spanish Cortes on Thursday night Señor Pedregal (Republican), an ex-Minister, moved that the most-favored-nation treatment be accorded to the various countries, including England and the United States, that desire to make treaties of commerce. Señor Armijo, Foreign Minister, opposed the motion as prejudicial to Spanish interests, and asked authority from the Congress to negotiate with the various governments which should offer suitable compensation. Señor Pedregal's motion was rejected by a vote of 112 to 18. On Saturday the Chamber of Deputies discussed the new parliamentary-oath formula. Señor Sagasta, in replying to objections to the oath raised by some of the Deputies, expressed admiration for the procedure of England in all the acts of her political life, which rendered her a privileged nation as regarded liberty, prosperity, and grandeur. Señor Sagasta wished Spain would follow England's example. He insisted upon the necessity of the oath, or an equivalent therefor. The motion for the abolition of the oath was finally rejected by a vote of 162 to 13, and the Chamber adjourned until the 8th instant.

The Spanish Government has issued a ministerial circular, ordering the adoption throughout the country of the decimal metrical system of weights and measures.

Cetywayo has been reinstalled as King of Zululand. Many of the chiefs express great dissatisfaction at the terms on which he has been restored.

THE PROTECTIONIST PANIC.

THERE was a studied attempt, at the meeting at Cooper Union on Thursday evening, to put the revenue-reform movement in a false position. It was assailed as a movement for free trade, especially free trade in the interest of Great Britain. Few will be deceived by this. Nobody calls for the repeal of all tariff laws and the instant closing of custom-houses. No representative revenue reformer fails to recognize existing facts, or proposes to put out of view the interests which have grown up under our economic policy. A sentence from Mr. Evarts's own speech might well serve for a revenue-reform text. Referring to the questions upon which the people expressed an opinion at the last election, the speaker said that one of them related to the political managers, and that another declaration at the polls was to the effect "that exactions were not to be made or persisted in at the expense of the people, in the accumulation of revenue that it might be expended in wasteful and profligate jobs." Here is a starting point. The revenue is too large. It should be reduced. Upon what plan should it be reduced? The tariff reformers say, by lopping off excessive duties that go to the enrichment of favored industries which, even according to the protective notion, receive far more protection than is needed to put them on a competitive equality with foreign manufacturers; by simplifying the tax-laws and wiping out their many shams and abuses; and, above all, by relieving raw materials from extravagant duties, so as to give manufacturers genuine protection, enabling them to manufacture more cheaply, and thereby to obtain a footing in the world's markets which their European rivals now monopolize. This is not free trade. This is not in the interest of Great Britain. It is in the interest of American workingmen, and of American capital in the broad sense, since it would largely widen and multiply the profitable opportunities of both.

Having misrepresented revenue reform as an absolute free-trade movement, the meeting misrepresented history by asserting that the commercial crises and labor troubles of the past were the consequence of efforts to enforce the free-trade principle. It would be easy to refute this assertion in detail, but it is not necessary to go further back than ten years. There has been no worse crisis than that of 1873. Did it happen under a free-trade policy? Before the panic occurred, while it lasted, and during the years of slow and painful recovery, the high war tariff was in full operation—the same tariff which is still in force, and which threatens to bring about another and similar period of distress; a tariff which, by applying an artificial and excessive impulse, endangers the very interests which it aims to promote. But the summit of absurdity was reached by the resolutions adopted when they touched the question of the foreign carrying-trade. Here is something about which it is impossible to deceive the people, to whom many tariff matters are mysteries. The operation of duties upon particular interests is often understood only by experts. But anybody with two eyes, or even one, can see for himself that the carrying-trade has gone out of our own hands and into those of foreign ship-owners. Has this happened under a free-trade policy? On the contrary, it is a conspicuous illustration of the working of the opposite system. The protectionists have had their own way here. As to other articles they say, You shall only import them upon paying a heavy duty; but as to ships they say, You shall not import them at all. The result is that we have no ships. Yet, in full view of the destruction of American shipping under the navigation laws, the meeting resolved "in favor of restoring ocean navigation under our flag," but only "in American-built ships." That is, it insisted upon holding fast to a narrow system under which, as has been already proved, American ocean navigation cannot revive.

We ought, however, to give the protectionists credit for their entirely unselfish spirit, and for good, soft hearts. The speeches at the Cooper Union meeting were fairly overflowing with tender solicitude for the comfort of the working classes. "It is not for the purpose of making any manufacturer rich," says the benevolent protectionist, "that we impose high duties upon imports. It is not for the purpose of putting dollars into the pockets of the stockholders in woollen mills or in Bessemer-steel works and a multitude of other establishments, that we make the whole people pay taxes to them by obliging them to pay higher prices for the articles they have to buy. It is not the benefit of the capitalist that we have in mind at all. It is only of the poor laboring man that we think, and it is in his behalf that we tax the American people. If we did not tax them, the industries in which the laboring man is employed would go to the bottom; the laboring man would have nothing to do, and would perish in misery."

Listening to such speeches, one would think that if, in consequence of the high prices for manufactured articles which the tax imposed upon the purchasing consumer in the shape of tariff duties creates, the manufacturer "incidentally" gets rich, this philanthropic system would provide for some method to increase the benefit to the workingman, in the shape of wages, or a share in the profits in proportion to the profits of the whole business, or at least a method to secure the poor workingman—during times of prosperity, when the industry protected by a tax levy in the shape of protective duties yields large profits—against the distress of evil days, when, in consequence of the results of overstimulation, the industry breaks down and the laboring man is thrown out of work. This, however, does not seem to be the case. It is notorious that a good many manufacturers have at times made enormous profits and grown very rich, and that stockholders in some instances have received dividends amounting to from twenty to ninety per cent. on their investments. But we do not remember to have heard of a single case in which individual manufacturers or companies said to their operatives, "We have, owing to the tax levied upon your fellow-citizens for your benefit, done uncommonly well this year. The time may come when we may not do so well. We will therefore so apportion these unusual profits, which we owe to that beneficent tax, among the company and you, the operatives, that you may have a comfortable reserve to live on if evil days should overtake us." This, we are sorry to say, has not been the way in which individual manufacturers or corporations talked to their workingmen about the profits derived from the high prices which resulted from the tax upon the consumers, levied, as they say, for the benefit of the poor laboring man. No, the poor laboring man received only those wages which the manufacturer was obliged to pay him according to the current price in the labor market: he received no more. And when the evil day comes—when a great establishment like the Union Iron and Steel Company in Chicago breaks down—then we are coolly informed that some thousands of workingmen are simply turned into the street. It appears, therefore, that, although the speakers at the Cooper Institute meeting may have meant what they said, the protective tariff is not as purely a philanthropic contrivance, and not as exclusive a benefit to the workingman, as they chose to represent it.

There is another fact which makes the philanthropic argument appear rather puerile. Hearing the protectionist orators speak, one would think that men obliged to work with their hands were naturally in a state of starvation in this country, and that it required a protective tariff to give them work and bread. The mere statement of the case suffices to show how absurd it is. There never has been a country under the sun whose natural resources invite and encourage and reward labor as do ours, and in which an artificial stimulus is so little needed to make labor of all kinds remunerative, and everybody who is able and willing to work comfortable. Would anybody undertake to assert that laboring men could not find ample work to do, or that they could not make enough by it for a comfortable livelihood, in times when this country had no protective tariff? When men were thrown out of work and went for some time without any, it was only because they had been devoting themselves exclusively to some specific employment which temporarily became unprofitable. And such things happened under a protective tariff as much as when we had none, and perhaps more so. But to say that a protective tariff is necessary to give the laboring men in America work and bread, is absurd.

EDUCATING WOMEN.

THE petition presented to the Trustees of Columbia College on Monday, on benalf of the education of women, was referred to a committee, which will, we suppose, report some plan of acceding to the petitioners' request. As has been repeatedly pointed out, the object of the movement is not to secure "co-education," but, as President Barnard expressed it, to secure for women the same general opportunities for education that are open to the men. As to details, the petitioners prefer to leave them entirely to the college. If the college objects to classes of young men and women receiving instruction together in the same rooms, then it is asked to provide for them separate instruction, as the Harvard "Annex" system does now. One method or the other is in

operation at two of the English universities and at a large number of the leading American colleges. The question which is presented to the Trustees is really whether it will confine the instruction it affords to one sex, or whether it will give equal opportunities to both.

It is expected that action on the petition will be taken at the next regular meeting, and the subject is so important that we trust it will then be fully discussed. It is a matter in which men are interested quite as much as women, and we have no doubt that most of the arguments against the higher education of women would, if they were fairly examined in debate, be found to rest on mere prejudice. The feeling against it, unless we are much mistaken, exists now chiefly among women themselves, and grows out of a confusion or fallacy with regard to a supposed effect on the manners and demeanor of the sex. If you ask a "conservative" woman what objection she has to her daughter getting the best education the times afford, you generally find she has in her mind a picture of a type of woman as produced by "higher education" not agreeable to the fancy of either sex—a woman who is undomestic in her habits and unfeminine in her tastes, who takes the initiative in conversation, is perpetually agitating for some "cause," or "reform," is ill-dressed and untidy, in fact regards dress as an unimportant matter, and the desire to attract the attention and interest of men as "frivolous." To make the picture more hideous, she is generally thought of as wearing spectacles and carrying an umbrella, and as having a family of neglected children and a miserably uncomfortable husband at home.

If there be a type in society of which this picture is a caricature, as is very possible, it is agitation, not education, that has produced it. The agitation for women's rights of one kind and another has been caused by the denial of these rights, and the work of bringing about a change has at least produced, as it generally does, reformers whose behavior is distasteful to conservatives, and who run into excesses which do something to bring reform into ridicule and contempt. But to educate a woman will not tend to make her an agitator of this sort, but, on the contrary, will probably have just the opposite effect. Why should training the mind of a woman, and throwing open to her the treasures of learning, make her a disagreeable companion, and lead her to insist on taking the stump and haranguing mixed audiences whenever she has an opportunity? Agitation as a career has and will always have few attractions for any but a small percentage of either sex, and we know that in the male sex the effect of the higher education is mainly conservative. The male type that corresponds with the female type at which conservative women shudder, is generally the product of ignorance rather than education; and we have no doubt that a thorough education, just "such as the men get," would have the effect of making fewer and fewer women set up with visionary schemes for the redemption of the world by the extension of "rights" of one kind and another.

The chief difficulty with the education of woman at present is not that she is educated too much, but that she is educated imperfectly. After being provided with one or two half-learnt modern languages and a smattering of music or art, she is reported to her parents as "finished," and launched into the world. This is the old story, told, not by reformers, but by conservative satirists, a thousand times. So far from being educated, in nine cases out of ten she does not even know what education means. Of training and discipline she has little or none. One of the great advantages of opening the doors of colleges to her must be that she will be subjected to the same mental training and discipline that the experience of ages shows is the price of all intellectual improvement in either sex. Looking at the matter from a purely conservative point of view, we can imagine nothing more likely to promote intellectual modesty and diffidence among women, nothing less likely to encourage them to "unsex" themselves or to try to get up "movements" to regenerate the world, or to render a crusade against Man, in ready-made clothes, armed with the traditional umbrella and spectacles, attractive to them than a liberal education, such as a college of the standing of Columbia would provide.

The conservative ideal of women is a very old and valuable one, and has produced in times past female characters and lives of extraordinary beauty. It embraces all the gentler virtues and graces of mind and disposition, and it requires that woman should be, above all, charming—should always please. There is something almost grotesque in the notion that this ideal will be interfered with by the "higher education." A girl who has passed an examination and got a college degree does differ from a girl who has got a "diploma" from a finishing school (everybody knows, by the way, what a charmingly "domestic" place a girl's boarding-school is), chiefly in the fact of having got a diploma that is good for something. We know of no branch of human knowledge taught at Columbia or any other college which contains any principles calculated to lead women to believe that an undomestic life is best adapted to them. They will not find a hint of the kind in the classics, or mathematics, or science, or literature, or history. On the contrary, the broader a view women or men get of life—in other words, the more complete or "high" their education is—the more clear does it become that the ordinary career of woman must be that of a wife and mother.

It is this fact which makes conservatives so fond of dwelling on the importance of women being "charming." Being charming means principally, or at any rate three-quarters of the time, being charming to men. But the idea that ignorance constitutes with most men a large part of woman's permanent charm, is a delusion. An educated man may not like his wife or sister to display more knowledge than himself; but every man likes intellectual sympathy, and, consequently, on the theory that woman's first duty is to be charming, conservatives ought to admit that she should be afforded the best means of qualifying herself for the task. To provide the higher education for one sex, and to cut the other off from it, is really unfair, on the conservative theory; it gives men a very high standard as to what women might know or appreciate intellectually, while it gives women no chance to conform to it. We are being told all the time that marriages are growing later because men are getting more and more exacting.

The common liberal arguments that women are entitled to the "higher education" for the same reason that they are entitled to manage their own property, to make their own contracts, to practise medicine, we should not, of course, dream of urging on conservatives; but we can assure them that, on their own ground, nothing ought to give them greater satisfaction than the manifestation by women of an interest in the higher education. The true corrective for the half-education that produces the type of woman that conservatives dread, is the education which disciplines the mind and teaches the use of the intellectual faculties. This the colleges alone can give, and give, moreover, to the large class of young women whose circumstances do not permit them to obtain at home anything like the thorough teaching of the university.

THE ENGLISH AND AMERICAN PRESS.

LONDON, January 12, 1883.

CERTAIN of the English newspapers, not long since, made much of an article in an American review decrying American journalism. I am the last to assert that there was not much justice in the article, but such matters are, after all, entirely comparative. It is well and wise for an American publicist to criticise with all useful or justifiable severity the weak or dishonest manner in which most American journalism is carried on; but an English journalist, in taking up the outcry, should be sure of his right, from his English standpoint, to throw stones at our glass house. No two men will see the matter from the same side, but it may, perhaps, be permitted one who has served in his day on both sides of the Atlantic, and whose knowledge of both systems runs beyond the day of nearly every actual editor of a leading journal on either side, to make a comparison which no man, possibly, is entirely qualified to make otherwise than suggestively, and pass judgment on the claims of English journalism to greater consideration than its American sister enjoys.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* may be allowed greater freedom of criticism in this matter—and has taken it—than any of its English contemporaries, because the sterling honesty of its general management and the superior ability of its editor-in-chief make it, for the day that is, the best newspaper in London. It has always been able, and, even under Greenwood, was the most remarkable in many ways of all European journals; but Greenwood's pungency was greater than his judgment—he was rancorous, and lost in personal bitterness the fairness of judgment which is indispensable to a strong lead in public opinion. But Morley is as able and can be as pungent as was ever Greenwood, and, though it seems to me that in some of his ideas of national policy he goes dangerously near to a relaxation of authority in favor of a local liberty which, however just theoretically, would be dangerous to England's actual imperial position, he is still, of the whole editorial corps, the man of the

largest, most generous, and liberal ideas. Admitting this, and that my *tu quoque* applies less to the journal which has most vigorously applauded the American critic of American newspapers, there is still a pebble or two in our garden-walks for the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and some larger for most of its English contemporaries.

It is unquestionably true that the level of American journalism is, so far as the results of education, even of abstract intellectual calibre, are concerned, much below that of England; and the sweeping assertion of the *Pall Mall*, in comment on the American writer—that no American journal approaches the English standard in the conduct of the proprieties of journalism—though exaggerated, need not form subject of dispute, for the exceptions which we might make would only show the rule more just. It is evident that the comparatively large number of Englishmen, graduates of the great universities, possessors of small or large incomes, who are ambitious of public lives, and hence willing to serve in journalism without regard to the rate of compensation—to say nothing of the relatively much greater number of Englishmen who have all the intellectual advantages which an university education can give—will, as long as such a disparity exists, give English journals an immense advantage in available intellectual resources, and a consequently higher average of staff ability. In the amenities of journalism, again, it is evident that, owing to the general higher social cultivation of the brain-workers in England, there will be a great difference in the standard to which the tone and conduct of a journal will be referred; and we must admit that many things are said in many American journals which no English journal read by the classes that control the tone of journalism would admit. In scholarship, and breeding, and intellectual and social training, England has the advantage over us by the result of the centuries of her universities and great fortunes. Against such advantages no young country can struggle.

But granting these disparities, I deny any further superiority to English journalism. In political honesty, in fairness as between man and man, I can only except the *Pall Mall Gazette, under its present management*, from the general rule, that the English journals are inferior to ours; in reckless partisanship they, with very few exceptions, certainly do surpass all our leading journals; in their subserviency to personal ends and interests—such as, for instance, the owning of the *World* by Jay Gould—they are quite as bad, if the personalities which control the tone of the paper are sometimes more respectable. Even the *Times*, which used to be the organ of public opinion, is becoming that of Mr. Walter just as much as the *Herald* is that of Mr. Bennett. And that form of dishonesty which is involved in the sacrifice of a common public interest to a class, clique, or vested interest is so general and so rank with the great English prints, daily or weekly, that it is neither reprehended nor apprehended by the public, while fair play as to persons, personal or national interests, ideas or doctrines which encounter common prejudices, is scarcely known to the most liberal English journals. Fair play is a virtue Englishmen are very fond of talking about, but which, except as between parties equally indifferent to English interests and prejudices, is very little known. I have lived in England since the more than Chinese wall of prejudice against foreigners was breached by the Crimean War, and see with satisfaction a great change in English ideas with reference to "outlandish" people; but at this day the broad hospitality of American journalism to the outsider, and its general fairness of appreciation of foreign matters, is so imperfectly comprehended by the English press that they take it for our satisfaction at being noticed by foreigners (especially Englishmen), or the desire to conciliate them.

Now, as cleanliness does come after godliness though it is next to it, so good manners in the press do come after justice; and the English press, with all its ability and decorum, is as inferior to the American in the major virtue as ours to that in the minor virtues of decorum and scholarship. If American journals defend corrupt practices, English journals hide and ignore them, and the magnitude and venerable character of the abuses in nowise change the character of the defence. *Truth* is the only conspicuous print in England that does attack certain abuses which have no kind of parallel in America for journals to attack or defend, and *Truth* is an acknowledged corsair. It is true that no English journal now would defend such a corrupt system as our civil service, as certain American journals do, but the vice of English journalism is simply more decorous—it ignores.

But it is in criticism, literary and artistic, that the utter recklessness and want of conscience of the English press are most markedly shown. Art criticism is simply so preposterous that nothing need be said of it: from the *Times* to the *Saturday Review*, the notices of the plastic arts are beneath attention. In literature, the general tone is what might be expected from a society divided between mutual admiration and mutual detestation. I remember asking one of the most celebrated authors of the generation, some years ago, if he had read the criticisms on a certain volume just out, and he replied: "I never read the criticisms in the English journals; they are simply the expression of personal likes and dislikes; there is no longer any true criticism in England." Oddly enough, I had by chance known the way in which public opinion had been prepared for the work in question, which was as follows: When the first sheets were out of the press, a copy of the book (without waiting for the binding) was sent to personal friends of the author connected with the leading literary and daily papers, and a chorus of laudation was prepared so loud and so completely in accord that when it struck up, at the moment of the appearance of the book, the public ear was taken by storm, and no contrary voice dared raise itself for a long time, and until the book had reached its second edition. You have only to know to what clique an author belongs to be sure of the tone this or that paper will assume in criticising it. Even the *Times*—which, as a general thing, gives to the specialists which it has on its staff for most branches of criticism the books it considers worthy of notice—used, at the time when I was more conversant with these matters than I now am, to exclude rigorously certain authors from notice in its columns. I remember hearing a late eminent historian say that as long as —— was at the head of the literary staff of the *Times* he had never a chance of being noticed in it; and, as the *Times* rarely expresses any very decided opinions in its criticisms, its preferable form of condemnation was silence. We who are, or have been, more or less behind the veil conceive no kind of respect for the literary criticisms of the English press. We know that the *Saturday Review* will always be caustic, and the *Times* always heavy and noncommittal; but the authors and the critics, when not the same class, are too much interconnected to permit criticism to be fair and impersonal. The public is a stupid one: it goes to the Royal Academy year after year with no other desire than to be told what it shall admire, and admires it. Its intelligence is equal to the sensational novel on which it largely feeds, and for everything beyond that it is willing to take on faith what is printed for it daily. The press is beset by young men, just from the universities, who for the most part know how to write excellent English, often able and witty, with the confidence in their own opinions which young men generally have before they have learned very much. They enjoy slashing their enemies and exalting their friends. The older ones were like them, and have grown up in the belief that criticism is a matter of opinion merely—*de gustibus non disputandum*—and they go on as they began; and so it happens that the body of the literary criticism is, and deserves to be, the most ephemeral of English literature—there is little knowledge and almost no conscience in it. If the *Spectator* is honest, it is heavy, and not always wise; and if the *Saturday Review* is bright, it is utterly dishonest, and so on; the *Pall Mall Gazette* and its secedeling the *St. James's Gazette*—when the latter is not cantankerous, as it often is—leading the way in such exception as there is.

American journalistic literature has its grave faults, but, to my way of thinking, they are not so gross as those of the English. The honest, studied, deliberate opinion of the results of intellectual labor is rarer in English journalism than gentlemanly tone and scholarly brilliancy are in American; and in this comparison the press of London is losing, and perhaps the American, as a whole, is gaining.

THE PROSPECTS OF THE OPPOSITION.

LONDON, January 11, 1883.

IT is significant of the tendency to do everything in public which our great-grandfathers would have done in private, that our political parties now discuss their own affairs, their organization, their leaders, their mistakes in the past, their weakness in the present, their plans for the future, in the columns of monthly magazines. Formerly, a party was guided by its acknowledged leader and the select council of experienced politicians who surrounded him. Discontented subordinates plotted against him, but they plotted in secret. They did not, unless when some open revolt broke out, go before the public with their complaints and schemes. We have changed all this. Party discipline has generally been lax among the Liberals, so that no one was much surprised when, under Lord Beaconsfield's Government, different lights of the Liberal party used to controvert one another in the press. But the Conservatives have had a closer party cohesion, and have been much less prone to rush into print. It is the more significant, therefore, when six Conservative members are found in three successive months using the pages of the *Fortnightly Review* and the *Nineteenth Century* to discuss the causes which have brought the Conservative Opposition to its present condition of mutual distrust and collective weakness. Some of these articles have been anonymous, but the writers are pretty well known, and the views they state, the complaints they level against their leaders, are repeated in speeches and conversation by men of mark in the Conservative ranks. There is something remarkable not only in discontent so openly expressed, but in the extreme disheartenment of a party lately so powerful. Though the Conservatives were beaten badly at the general election of 1880, they had been almost as badly beaten in 1868, yet within six years they came triumphantly into power. They have no such great occasion for despondency, particularly as Mr. Gladstone, who is the chief source of Liberal ascendancy—because the country believes in him, and he unites the different sections of his

party—may probably retire in a year or two's time. When he has retired, it will be far more difficult to hold together and manage the Ministerial party; so the Conservatives will then have a chance. However, this prospect does not console them. They recall with sadness the days when Lord Beaconsfield led a strong and submissive majority, and exhaust themselves in investigating the causes of their present misfortunes. Though they throw most of the blame on their own leaders, there are really other reasons not less important.

The first and chief of these is the dominion which Mr. Gladstone possesses over the popular mind. The Conservatives have not—it is not to be expected that they should have—any one to put in competition with him. Any Liberal candidate can conjure with his name, whereas there is for the moment no Tory name to conjure with—none which excites enthusiasm and lends authority to the doctrine or the name on whose behalf it is invoked.

The second is the absence of any positive and definite policy to set before the country. No doubt the chief business of a Conservative party is to maintain and justify existing institutions, and therefore a programme of legislative changes is less to be expected from them than from their opponents. Still, even in protecting and justifying what exists, there must be certain general principles capable of being stated, and there are measures which may be, and ought to be, passed in the interest of the whole people—measures which involve no disturbance of the political equilibrium. Such principles, such measures, Conservative statesmen ought to indicate: that they are not doing so, that the party has no constructive programme to place before the country, is the complaint made by some of the writers I have referred to, and one may therefore assume that this defect does not exist merely in the imagination of those who look at Conservatism from the outside. These writers blame the present leaders. But may not the fault be traced further back? It has been the fashion ever since Lord Beaconsfield's death to treat him as a man of profound insight and skill. He has become a beatified, if not canonized, saint to the Tory party, who are often heard to wish they had such a leader now. Nevertheless, it was really he who taught the Tory party to get on without constructive ideas. He had his views as regards foreign policy, and, whether constructive or not in that department, they were positive, and had much attraction for some minds. He relied a good deal on them, and believed, till the election of 1880 arrived, that they had won for him the support and confidence of the nation. But he had never any domestic legislation to propose which interested the people, or any considerable section of the people. He did not care for such matters, thought them below the level of the "haute politique" which he enjoyed, did not even train his lieutenants to consider this as an indispensable part of an English statesman's work.

He did, it is true, conceal the absence from his scheme of politics of constructive ideas, intended either to improve the machinery of government or to better, through wiser laws, the condition of the humbler classes, by the sonorous and often half mystical phrases which he scattered abroad, and which, while they taught little, seemed to suggest much. Hence the gap was not so much felt in his reign as it is now, when there is no similar master of language to give the *mot d'ordre* to Conservative speakers. They cannot hark back to his foreign policy, because that was condemned in 1880, and upon the other burning questions of the day they have, or seem to have, nothing specific to propose. While blaming the conduct of Irish affairs by the present Government—and it is no doubt open to much criticism—they have not suggested any alternative policy. Some of the bolder spirits have, indeed, declared that nothing but repression was wanted—that the grievances of the Irish tenants are only the result of the weakness and lenity of Mr. Gladstone. The more responsible leaders do not deny that something was wrong, but have not indicated what remedial measures ought to have been taken, otherwise than by repeating that Mr. Gladstone's have been mischievous. As regards Egypt, it has been the same thing. The Government were blamed for not interfering sooner, and told that the National party was all moonshine. They were blamed for interfering in the way and at the time they chose; and when Arabi was tried, some prominent members of the Opposition pressed the Foreign Office with questions in a way which implied sympathy with Arabi, and almost went the length of espousing his cause. Such behavior gave the impression that these critics had really no view of their own, but were only casting about for some way of annoying the Government, determined to prove it wrong whether it held back in Egypt or went energetically forward. Consequently the Government was not damaged.

This mistake was made, not by the leaders of the Tory party, but by some of the younger and more eager partisans. But here we come upon the third and most serious of the evils which afflict the party. Its recognized leaders have not sufficient authority to hold their followers in check. They are flouted in Parliament and censured in magazines by those who ought to be their loyal subalterns. They are charged with want of courage, want of strategy, want of earnestness. It is alleged that they have fallen behind the time, while their jealousy of new merit makes them unwilling to bring on and give a chance to the rising young men. In fact, all the misfortunes of the party are laid at their doors. These sweeping accusations are unjust, because they do not allow for the exceptional difficulties which Sir Stafford Northcote has to encounter. His party has suffered during the last two sessions from bad generalship; but the fault has lain as much with the army as with the general. Himself a ready and effective, though not impassioned, debater, he is ill-supported in the House of Commons. Nearly all the best speakers of the Tory party are in the House of Lords, where they are not wanted, because they have there an overwhelming majority. In the Lower House there is very little debating power among the Conservatives, and a good deal on the Government side. Hence Sir Stafford Northcote feels that there is not much use in fighting pitched battles, since he is sure to be beaten, not only in numbers, but in argument. His own preference is for a quiet and watchful opposition, which may every now and then embarrass the Government and point out their mistakes to the country, but which should seldom challenge a formal trial of strength. He sees no great good to be attained by constant skirmishing, judging (and judging wisely) that the Ministerialist majority is more likely to be distracted by internal dissensions if it is not kept always on the *qui vive* to resist attacks from without. This, however, is not the view of the active youth of the Tory party. They are always ready for a fray, and have persuaded themselves that the secret of Lord Beaconsfield's success lay in his powers of invective. They are therefore perpetually taking, or making, occasions for a raid upon the Ministry; and Mr. Gladstone's readiness to lift up every glove that is thrown down, and the warmth with which he repels attacks made on his own motives, add zest to the process.

They get plenty of practice in speaking, and succeed in delaying the Government measures, but otherwise nothing is gained for their party. The country is disgusted, and the Ministerialists, irritated by this idle skirmishing, close their ranks and give a more unquestioning support to Mr. Gladstone than he might otherwise obtain. Sir Stafford Northcote and his brother-chiefs sometimes try to call in and hold back these skirmishers, but usually in vain. They think his quietness want of spirit, then refuse to obey, and sometimes draw him on into conflicts which his judgment seems to disapprove. Thus the discipline of the party suffers, and the strength of the party, the moral weight which its protests might have if reserved for important occasions, is frittered away on these trifling engagements. A party leader has with us no means of controlling the members of his party except by the ascendancy of his own character, for a constituency will not generally punish its member by throwing him over unless he has openly voted against the principles he was returned to support. This spirit of mutiny or independence, whichever one calls it, is therefore a great difficulty in his conduct of affairs, and the failures of the party may fairly be ascribed as much to its existence as to any mistakes in his strategy.

If it is asked what produces this disorderly spirit, the answer must be: impatience, and an exaggerated idea of the importance of House of Commons struggles. There are many people in the world who mistake restlessness for energy, and fancy that the way to succeed is to be always doing something. For themselves, these skirmishing politicians may be right, since they at any rate bring their names before the public, but they do no good to their party. Very often a cause has more to gain from the mistakes of its adversaries, and from the languor which sooner or later comes upon them, than from any advocacy of its own claims. There are several ways of working up a minority into a majority, but constant carping is not one of them. However, as the Liberals were constantly active in their campaigns against Lord Beaconsfield, and used pretty strong language about him and his Government, the young Conservatives think that what answered for their opponents must answer for them also. They forget that the agitation of the Liberals was chiefly an agitation in the country, with comparatively little fighting in the House of Commons. This is the second mistake the Tories have been making. They greatly overrate the influence of House of Commons debates on the country. These debates are now far less fully reported than formerly, partly because they are so inordinately long, partly because the London newspapers are printed off earlier in the morning, in order to catch the earliest trains. It is only on great occasions that speeches made in Parliament are attentively studied, even by that part of the nation which cares about politics. Those who are themselves members of the House of Commons are naturally interested by the tournaments which go on there under their own eyes, and attribute too much importance to them. The causes which move public opinion and determine the result of an appeal to the nation are large causes, and operate with little reference to the prowess shown in such tournaments. If the Conservative debaters were to strike harder home at the Government when it gets into a difficulty, that might put the party into better heart for the time, but it would make little difference in the long run. And now the weakness of the party in the House of Commons is of less evil augury than these despondent Tory writers fancy. Their turn will come, if only they have patience.

What injures them in the opinion of moderate men now is not so much their want of fighting power as their want of judgment, calmness, and

resolution, and, still more, their want of a positive and constructive policy. It is not brilliant debaters whom the English care to see at the head of a Conservative Ministry, but solid, steady men, with administrative capacity and a disposition to prevent the necessity for large changes by a willingness to make small ones in a cautious way. If the Conservative party could get hold of one or two such men—men of the type of Sir Robert Peel, even if less eminent—they might look forward to a return to power at no distant day. Firmly as the Liberal Government seems to stand now, no one can tell how its sections may feel toward one another after Mr. Gladstone's sceptre has passed to other hands. There may be dissensions and a break-up of the parliamentary majority. There may be a lukewarmness on the part of some important class, as there was among the Nonconformists in 1874. The forces which make for Conservatism are always so strong in England that Liberalism succeeds only when the Liberal party is excited, stimulated either by devotion to some particular man, or by the prospect of some much-desired reform. If a general election takes place at a dull time, and upon no important issue of principle, it is apt to result in favor of the party which has property upon its side. A quiet policy, a waiting policy, is, therefore, the true one for the Conservatives to follow at present; for it will not delay, and may hasten, that natural reaction in which their best chance lies. Unfortunately for them, this is just what the eager youth cannot reconcile themselves to. They seem disposed to repeat next session the mistakes of the last two.

Y.

THE RESTORATION OF ST. MARK'S.

VENICE, December 11, 1882.

IN my former letter there was question of the high tide of the 28th of October as of a very unusual event. And so, indeed, it seemed, as none such had occurred since 1876, and none before that since 1866—to take the dates given by shopkeepers on the Piazza. But yesterday it came again. In October there was full moon, this time there was "no moon"; there was *scirocco* (southeast wind), of course, as that is a condition precedent, blowing up the tide from the ocean and filling the channels of the Lagoon. And as yesterday was Sunday, as it was very warm (50° Fahrenheit), and not raining, the occasion served as a feast not laid down in the calendar, and the Piazza, in the morning, was crowded with boats. Perhaps one hundred and fifty small craft—gondolas, barchettas, sandolos, and canoes—were swarming there together; some had come in through the Merceria and the other little streets behind the Piazza, but the greater number came from the harbor, over the edge of the Molo. For two hours there was a scene of unusual gayety, shouts and cries, the upsetting of canoes, the transportation of foot-passengers from dry land on one side to dry land on the other, in boats or on backs; and the alarm arose that the water was falling, and there was a huddle and a rush to escape through the narrow space left open in the temporary wooden bridge along the quay.

If boats have been to day where they are not wont to go, they have also been cut off from their usual routes. The gondolas from the railway station have had to follow the circuitous course of the Grand Canal, as their usual more direct course by the smaller water streets was shut by the water rising too high under the bridges. And the steamboats on the Grand Canal could not run, because there was not height enough under the iron bridge at the Academy of Fine Arts; so that for once the twin modern abominations of Venice had quarrelled. Could they but have wrought their own mutual destruction!

Not that they are equally obnoxious to the lover of Venice. Nothing is to be said for the iron bridge: it is a monster, an eyesore, an offence in every way, and does no service to any one beyond accommodating a very few foot-passengers, at two centesimi apiece, who might have crossed in a gondola for five. As for the steamboats, it is just a year—All Saints' Day, 1881—since they began their trips, and a few months before that time a friend of yours landed at Liverpool and hurried through to Venice that he might see it again before the boats should be there to spoil it. His fears were natural; no one who knew and loved Venice could have been without such anxieties. But we have the pleasure of reporting that the result is not so bad as was to be expected. Such innocent little boats were never seen before. They are not twice as long as a gondola; they are very silent—they puff not nor ring bells, and but seldom whistle. One man, *seated* at the wheel amidships, says gently to the engineer below, "Avanti," "Dietro," "Ferma"; another man gathers the two-soldi pieces, or palancas, which constitute the fare; and he, if in Paris, would have a dreadful horn to blow as the boat approaches a station, but here he is hushed to the prevalent tranquillity. The canal is really none the worse for these boats, except as they disturb its drowsy sentiment of antiquity. Nor do they govern Venice as surface and elevated-railways are supposed to govern New York. After dark they are not allowed to run, as the canal is not lighted in any way; they are stopped when there is a fog; and on the feast of the Madonna della Salute, in November, they had to put up with the usual two bridges of boats across the Grand Canal, and to interrupt their trips accordingly. The barcaiuoli may find their monopoly infringed and their business injured, until the natural adjustment comes with time, but they don't mind the steamboats at all—peatas, barchettas, batellas, caorlinas, burcchis, and steamboats accommodate one another in the friendliest way; nor is the traveller in his gondola at all conscious of being bullied by the larger and swifter vessels.

But to come back to the flood in St. Mark's Place. It is perhaps to be wished that the columns of St. Mark's Church should rise out of the water always. Never did they look more lovely than with the little salt waves lapping against their bases. And the writer, for one, has never been able to forgive the Piazza for being so large and showy, so well paved, so uniformly walled in with palace fronts. One longs for the old time when a little canal crossed from south to north, close to the walls of St. Mark's Church; when another canal, parallel to the former, bounded the open square on the west, and that at half its present length; when all the south side was built up with private houses, as shown in Gentile Bellini's picture; and when the early Church of Saint Geminiano stood where now is the very centre of the Piazza, and on the edge of the second canal, so that the tranquil little place was no more than a *campo*, like many another in Venice, with nothing to give it especial glory beyond its fellows, except the lovely church on its eastern side. In what has just been said there may be a slight mingling of dates and epochs—no matter for that; the point is, that the square is a great deal too big and too showy for the church to have its best effect, and that it would be better if the church could never be seen at a greater distance than fifty yards.

For there is nothing about the church which appeals to the distant spectator. It is small, it is square, it is low; beyond all other buildings, it is lovely in external color and in variety and delicacy of sculptured detail. But these are addressed to the student who strolls beneath its morning shadow, or studies its mosaics in the light of evening sunshine. It is not a Gothic cathedral, to rise above a subject town and call across the fields to distant villages; it is built under the protection of a palace larger and higher than itself, of which it was the chapel. The great tower that belongs to it, and that holds its bells, is separated from the church by a public place as wide as Broadway. That, indeed, is seen from afar, and over broad stretches of sea; but of the church only the iron finials and weather-cocks are visible above the palace roofs to distant gazers. And the great tower is without detail, as if meant to attract no eyes but those of distant navigators of the lagoon, while the church is absolutely encrusted with gold and color and delicate carving in low relief, inside and out, walls, roof, and floor—a bewildering museum of precious art, and the loveliest piece of decoration in color that Europe holds.

It is upon this assemblage and combination of delicate art and workmanship that the restorers have been employed for many years, with but brief interruptions. Under the Austrian rule, from 1850 to about 1858 (it is difficult to establish the exact dates, but they are not important), the work of rebuilding the north face went on. Then came a pause. The floor and the mosaics within attracted the attention of the restorers, but not much was done at any one time until after the expulsion of the Austrians. Since Italy has begun to "do for herself," the work of renewing the south side has been undertaken and carried out, and now scaffoldings are up on the west front, with mats of reed and osier which hide what is being done behind them. To describe the results of these restorations is to deal with changes wholly unwarranted, and destruction the most wanton and inexcusable. It is apparent that the present directors are wiser and more careful, and that, so long as the present control shall exist, wanton recklessness and causeless destruction will be avoided; but even up to a very recent epoch, five or six years ago at most, changes were made without cause, and parts of the old work, taken down perhaps of necessity, were put up again haphazard, or replaced indifferently by new material.

In speaking of St. Mark's, one may use the regular terms of orientation as in speaking of a French cathedral, for St. Mark's is approximately *orienté*—much more nearly so than is common in Italy. The apse is turned to the east; the great façade on the Piazza is then the west front; the side on the little square of the lions and toward the Merceria is the north flank; and the short elevation on the Piazzetta, and looking toward the sea, is the south flank. Now, the work done during the Austrian dominion (speaking of the exterior only) consisted in rebuilding and renewing the north flank, from the projection of the transept to the northwest angle. It was done with sufficient care to insure the retention of the main lines of the building, and, so far as one can now judge, to replace each column and capital, and each encrusted piece of carved marble in its proper position. Photographs taken by Mr. Ponti in the very first years of his practice, in 1850, as he now assures us, certainly before the scaffoldings were put up on the north side, afford the means of tolerably close comparison with the existing building. Every change of a capital, or even of a slab of the thin marble veneering which invests the whole building, is perfectly visible; and one thing appears evident, that the curious and beautiful little pavilion which projects from the northwest angle—not properly to be

called a porch, as it leads to no doorway, but flanks the façade as a purely ornamental feature —that this remains intact. The work on the south side was done much more recently, and finished only five years ago. The renewed part here extends from the inner angle made by the Treasury (which was spared) to the southwest corner of the church, and, most unfortunately, it includes the angle pavilion on this side, which has been wholly rebuilt. Of the two separate pieces of work, that on the south side, the latest one, seems to have been done with the least conscience. Even sections of mouldings have in one case at least been changed, as if the old work had been plucked down and carted off before anybody had thought to take a careful mould of its profiles.

But there is one point in which the destruction has been at once the greatest and the most wanton. The walls of the church are faced and entirely covered with thin slabs of marble. In the old work these were of extraordinary beauty—Greek and Oriental stones of strange veinings of purple and warm brown—and set so as to be the most effective, in small pieces, the veinings prettily contrasted and opposed in "herring-bone" patterns and zigzags, or more elaborately combined into rhomboids by opposing the reversed slabs cut out of one richly-veined block. The effect of color produced by this wonderful surface of warm tints, subdued and gilded by time, emphasized by the more brilliant hues of the few mosaics which line niches and the like, and contrasted by the soft gray shades of delicate bas-relief, is indescribable, and, so far as we know, unequalled in art. As the walls of the Treasury building and of most of the west front still are, so was the whole south flank and its corner pavilion when the writer was last in Venice, and so was the north flank, unquestionably, before 1850.

Nor should any one, thinking of the merely expensive and gorgeous, but never very effective, use of rich marbles in sixteenth-century door-pieces and seventeenth-century altars, in churches at Rome or at Florence, at Ghent or Bruges, for one moment think that all this Venetian splendor was, after all, not very valuable—only sheets of veined marble, mere curiosity and bric-à-brac, not architecture. Byzantine art was always strongest in pure decoration separated from the sterner and graver duties of the builder: color was to the whole twelfth century, in the East and in the West, what organized sculpture grew to be in the thirteenth—its favorite mode of expression. Both influences combined in the choice of the external adornment of St. Mark's, and the tribute of Greece and of the Levant to the powerful and dreaded Republic was embodied in the precious materials sent by the shipload to adorn the chapel of her dukes. The use of beautiful materials is therefore more free and extensive, and also immeasurably more artistical, than elsewhere. Small pieces of Byzantine enamelling are of priceless value, not to collectors only, but to the lover of color-harmonies; the whole church of St. Mark is like a great casket, where still richer and softer colors than those of enamel are combined on a great scale and with unequalled knowledge and skill.

What, then, have the restorers done to this exterior to justify this long preface? They have stripped the walls of their precious, ancient, richly-colored, and richly-veined stones, and have substituted a smooth and uniform sheathing of common and inexpensive bluish, gray-veined Italian marble, purchasable anywhere by the square metre. They have done this, not in one place or in two, but over great surfaces of wall. We count, now, on the south flank of the church and on the north, the places where the marble has been spared—not those where new marble has been put in. The old marbles were fitted together in small pieces; here and there they had corners broken and pieced, or irregular cracks across their surface. The metal clamps and anchors that held them fast to the brickwork were rather easily seen by those who looked for them; weather-stains were plenty. Irregularity like that of a fine Eastern carpet, and not accurate balance; unexpectedness, and not regular repetition; glow and splendor, not colorless uniformity, were the motives of the old design. But to the modern engineer or architect, brought up and taught in the Italy of 1830 to 1860, to whom Palladio probably was a demigod, all this old work was unpleasing. He did not hate it as long as it passed for an antique, for a curiosity, for barbaric spoils of the past; but to reproduce it, to take pains to disturb it the least possible, and to put back religiously all he had to take down—a thing not to be asked of him. Down it came, to allow of the perhaps necessary strengthening of the brickwork behind it; much of it was broken in the hasty stripping off; much of it, as appears, was allowed to be appropriated and sold to this and that foreigner; the rest was sorted out, and the less-injured and more uniformly-marked pieces were brought together and used in certain recessed and withdrawn parts of the building. All the rest of the wall, including the outer and more prominent parts, spandrils and archivolts of the great vaults, large lower surfaces below the windows and bas-reliefs—all was faced with marble of no color and but little variety of veining, in slabs of uniform size, very accurately and neatly adjusted.

There remain, in the defaced north and south sides of the church, disks of some of the richest of the old marbles, an archivolt of the "Arabian Porch" on the north side, and many a good bit besides, cleaned off, to be sure, and deprived of its old soft color given by time. The old shafts of porphyry and verde antique, alabaster, and cipollino remain, and are all, or nearly all, in their old places, though they also have been washed up and rejuvenated. The square projection of the Treasury, next to the Porta della Carta and the Ducal Palace, remains intact; the northwest angle pavilion and the old front of the church are also intact, or very nearly so. Scaffoldings, indeed, are up now on the west front, but, as has been said above, the present direction seems to be better advised than those which have gone before. If much has been lost, much remains. But few of the lovely Byzantine capitals have been replaced by new ones, and those few were terrible wrecks. Even in the rebuilt southwest pavilion, the old shafts and the old capitals fill their old places. Nor has any hand been lifted up against the bas-reliefs of Grecian, Oriental, and Italian work, of which there are, though few on the south side, many elsewhere.

Now, as to the necessity of the rebuilding, and taking up the question with reference to the south flank and southwest corner only: it is asserted very positively that the whole of the masonry here threatened ruin. It has been very completely rebuilt. The wall here is that of the Zeno Chapel (Cappella Zen) and of the Baptistery. The mosaics of these two apartments, both walls and vaults, were torn down with pick-axes, and without attempt to preserve even parts of them. All the accounts agree as to this, and yet those were as precious mosaics as almost any in the building.

None of the numerous commentators upon these restorations have denied the haste and recklessness of the demolitions; but neither do any of them deny that rebuilding here was a necessity. It is plainly asserted that the angle pavilion was threatening to fall, and to drag down with itself the never very solid, and now thousand-year old, brickwork of the neighboring walls—in partial proof of which photographs are shown of this part of the building as it was in 1867, exhibiting certainly a bewildering tangle of iron-ties and straps and suspension-rods. Let us, then, admit that most extensive and thorough repairs were called for, and that they were rightly undertaken. It remains true that every part of the outside decoration could have been put up again exactly as it had always been. Nothing is easier than to make a great cartoon with every joint and every irregularity of surface marked upon it; to number each scrap or fragment of stone with stiff water-color and a brush; to lay every piece flat on a garret-floor in its original relations to every other; to take off from the wall and to preserve every piece of mosaic; and, finally, to put all back *in statu quo ante*. Nothing, we say, is easier, except to do as the engineers did—that is, to let it all be torn down anyhow by contractors; to exercise no watchfulness over the smaller and less seemly fragments; to leave it all to the fidelity to a common contract of common builders, and to the supervision of ordinary building superintendents. The capitals of the Ducal Palace, of which there was question in my former letter, are constructive features: if they are unsound, the building is unsafe. The marble and mosaic decoration of St. Mark's Church are not, in any sense, constructional. No injuries to these, no wear, no shabbiness, no slow decay, no gaps, no breaks, no cracks, can authorize interference with them. The old work, no matter how defaced and injured, is better than the best modernization of it. That, one would have said, was an established law in such cases.

R. Sturgis.

Correspondence.

MR. H. H. BANCROFT'S LITERARY METHODS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is not your correspondent, Mr. Charles H. Phelps, in your issue of the 1st instant, less than just to Mr. H. H. Bancroft?

Perhaps Mr. Phelps is not aware that there are *two* Mr. Bancrofts in the publishing firm of A. L. Bancroft & Co., of San Francisco, and that it is Mr. A. L. Bancroft who may be seen "every business day at the head of the extensive and complicated business, signing checks, etc." This Mr. Bancroft told the present writer, in London, last spring, that after his return to San Francisco in the summer his brother, Mr. H. H. Bancroft, would devote all of his time to his historical work.—I am, sir, etc.,

A. F. Hunter.

Boston, Feb. 3, 1883.

A NEW FIELD FOR CONVICT LABOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to offer a suggestion on the subject of convict labor? It is this: Let all convicts who can read and write be set, under competent supervision, to *indexing books;* and let those who cannot, receive the necessary instruction as soon as may be.

It is almost an insult to your penetration to point out the advantages of this plan. I may mention, however—

That it will not conflict with the interests of any class of laboring persons, or at least any that has a claim to consideration;

That the kind of labor proposed is peculiarly suited to the reformatory idea, being incomparable for teaching order, patience, humility, and

for thoroughly eradicating the last trace of the Old Adam in whoever pursues it.—I am, sir, etc.,

ANOBIUM PERTINAX.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, Feb. 2, 1883.

THE SACRAMENT OF PENANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In one of your editorials of last week, speaking of the protestation of innocence made by some men convicted of murder in Ireland, you alluded to a Catholic manual, entitled, 'What Every Christian Must Know and Do.' In the course of your remarks, you seemed to opine that the manual in question, bearing the approbation of Cardinal Cullen, would afford outlaws and criminals arguments to parade their innocence before the public. In proof thereof, you quoted a passage to the effect that, when absolution is given by the priest, "your sins are forgiven, the pains of hell taken away, and your soul made bright and beautiful like an angel of God, and the kingdom of heaven is yours."

The fair spirit, however, which uniformly characterizes the *Nation* redeemed itself when you requested some Catholic theologian to make an explanation on the subject. If no abler and better qualified person has already acted under your suggestion when this reaches you, I would ask the favor of submitting to your readers the following simple considerations:

By the sacrament of auricular confession the Catholic Church understands a conscientious self-accusation of sins committed, to a lawfully ordained priest. If the penitent is *heartily* sorry, fully determined never to repeat the crime, animated with a firm purpose of amendment, and possessed of other concomitant dispositions, absolution is granted unto him; but supposing that one of the sins confessed might have been a murder, the fact that he received sacramental absolution does not make him "innocent as the child unborn," either in the sight of God or of man. I speak of innocence in contradistinction to guilt deserving a human punishment. Christ on the cross told the penitent thief: "This day thou shalt be with me in paradise." He forgave him, but did not call him innocent, and say that he was suffering unjustly.

A sin, a crime, especially when injurious to a fellow-being, must be considered in a twofold light: first, as an offence to God, and as such deserving an eternal punishment in the future life; second, as a grievous human offence against society, and as such deserving a human retribution in this world. Now, sacramental absolution, granted and applied through the merits of Christ, remits the eternal punishment; but the temporal one consequent on the infringement of human laws cannot be washed away by the vicarious blood shed on Mount Calvary. The first is a matter of conscience, and with that human justice has nothing to do; for, according to the old Roman maxim, "De internis non judicat prætor."

Hence it becomes evident that when the priest, in virtue of a delegated power, grants pardon "in foro interno"—that is to say, in the court of conscience—the course and operations of human justice are not in the least affected, and the penitent, rising from his knees, is as guilty and accountable to society after as well as he was before going to confession.

Any man, Protestant or Catholic, has a right to plead "not guilty" before the sentence is pronounced from the judicial bench—"nemo se criminari tenetur." But if he happens to be a member of the Catholic Church, he cannot call himself innocent because a priest said, in the name of God, that his sin was forgiven him.

If a Catholic, then, should have the effrontery to declare himself innocent of a murder he really committed, because the future punishment due to it was forgiven in the sacrament of penance, we may say of him with St. John, "that he lies, and the truth is not in him."

Yours truly, A. T. ENNIS,
Pastor Catholic Church.

MANHATTAN, KANSAS, Jan. 26, 1883.

RELIGIOUS DISCIPLINE AT HARVARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A communication which appears in the *Nation*, whatever its native excellence, is thereby raised to a level which perforce makes criticism necessary. For fear that the letter in your last number, "Religious Discipline at Harvard," may not come to the eyes of men better informed on the subject than myself, as a past officer of the St. Paul's Society (of the Episcopal Church) of Harvard, caring for its reputation, I cannot let the charges in it pass unnoticed.

In the winter or spring of 1881, some $8,000 or $9,000 was offered to the Society with which to build a permanent chapel, provided a suitable building-lot could be found, and the Society should show that there were enough good, earnest churchmen in the University to keep up such a building, and warrant the expenditure of so great a sum—the good sense of which was apparent to all. As most of the land in the neighborhood is owned by the College, and the rest very closely held, it became necessary to petition the Faculty or Overseers for land on which to build. This petition was refused on the ground that the College could not recognize sectarianism, and the plan fell through.

In the meantime, to satisfy themselves of the number of churchmen, a canvass was made. How thorough this was I am unable to say, but feel sure it was done in good faith, and know that the results were not markedly different from the annual statistics taken by the Faculty and published in "The Harvard Book," triennial reports, etc. Upon so slight a foundation, "A Student," fretting under the irksome religious discipline (?) of Harvard, and with the petulance of a child who won't eat bread because its milk is sour, charges that these statistics "were taken with the express purpose of deceiving"; that "a zealous member, through one of the papers —*an organ of his* [the italics are mine]—attempted to show," etc.; that "the returns were falsified"; that "the list was drawn up for a purpose, and the designers did not scruple at any means to bring about the desired end." These statements have the raciness of a political controversy, are decidedly "brash," and, applied to men now out of college, are lacking in that courtesy which, by a longer sojourn in Cambridge, the writer may acquire. They are wholly inapplicable to the then officers and members of the Society active in this affair, who were known as a more than ordinarily "good set of fellows"—their social standing of the best. The one making them in an outside publication, no matter how thoughtlessly, merits a good round rebuke.

The reason of all this rancor is thus quietly summed up: "As a result, the public have the opinion that Harvard is more religious than she really is"!

This was written merely to correct gross misstatement, not with the intention of carrying on the old argument, nor as a Philistine warring on the chosen few of agnosticism. A few words, however, may not be out of place. It is questionable whether the prevalence of scepticism and unbelief, *pari passu* with increasing liberalism in the matter of chapel-going, is an argument for its total abolishment. The young student, still groaning under the burden of occasional chapel-going and attendance at church (not a Senior), could have been at the time but a Sophomore—more probably a Freshman. As one who has had his bout in Spencerian philosophy, and been thrown with the agnostic tendencies of Harvard, I should like to record that a Freshman who knew at least a dozen agnostics in one class, and whose "acquaintance" was so limited as to escape the canvasser, is the precocious and wholly abnormal development, *not* of Harvard, but of those fortuitous circumstances that led him there. As a matter of fact, the young man who is "agnostic" for the sake of argument, when it comes to enrolment, in general stands out in the faith of his fathers; and hence the "dozen" easily and naturally become "three."

More than this, there is a strong undercurrent against voluntary prayers among the students. The matter came up for debate in the Harvard Union, I think, which contained more than a fair proportion of the free-thinking and Bohemian elements, and a large number of men came out decidedly opposed to the abolishment of prayers. Out of the rut, and rubbing with the world, their position seems to me correct; for, though the remark quoted from President Eliot's report may be one of *the President's blank forms*, it is yet true that this discipline is wholesome, even from a material point of view. The majority of people one meets have religious sentiment and are sensitive to it. It is well to have a sense of that sentiment ground into the young man. The youth who in the Cambridge garden is so hurt with the thorns as he plucks the roses of undergraduate life, will find it bitter pushing through the barriers and hedgerows that exist, outside the cultivated circle, in this everyday, working world. The present system of religious discipline at Harvard has no doubt its evil side. Is there a better? A practical test would show its results highly preferable to none at all. A GRADUATE.

JANUARY 29, 1883.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We Southerners who think substantially with the *Nation* on this question can, I think, do our section some service by writing short articles to our papers, both secular and religious, presenting the question fairly and directly; and if the papers of our city or town have brought up the subject, we can insist on their discussing the question on its merits, and not allow them to evade the real issue, as so many are doing, by searching for the ulterior motives of the *Nation*. From my intercourse with Northern men, I find the *Nation* but expresses the common opinion of the North. This opinion was formed before the *Nation* came into existence. With Redfield's 'Homicide, North and South' (J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia) in our hands, we can get enough startling facts to jar the self-complacent and to produce some agitation. It is at least worth the effort. VIRGINIAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: My subscription is nearly out. I enclose $3 to renew. To some extent, renewal seems to have been made the test of your subscribers' opinions upon the question of homicidal ethics discussed in your columns; hence you will permit me to say I make this enclosure because I cannot spend the same amount in any way which, in a year, will give me the same intellectual enjoyment, or as much food for reflection. With some of your opinions I do not agree, but surely it is wise to hear the other side of any question, especially when as fairly put as

you generally have it. If you are to express only my opinions, it would be better for me to stop my subscription, save my money, and rely on my own thinking.

Most you say of Southern homicides is true, though I do not concur in all your conclusions. My not concurring, however, shall not make me fly off at a tangent and in a pet. I cannot forget your manly course in sustaining the great principles of civil and individual liberty during the dark days of reconstruction, when to do so was not popular in your section, and when our dearest rights were dependent on their maintenance. Nor do I complain that your criticisms on homicidal tendencies are confined to this section; it is always more agreeable to take the beam out of our brother's eye than the mote out of our own. Allow me, however, in conclusion, to suggest, more as a question of taste than in any spirit of unfriendly criticism, that perhaps your readers would be happier if you brought the homicidal discussion to an end. Northern people must sometimes tire of hearing of Southern sins, and we Southerners, like other sick people, become nauseated with too much medicine, though given with the kindest motives, and however much we may acknowledge the necessity of the original dose.

Very truly your friend,

CHAS. M. BLACKFORD.

LYNCHBURG, VA., Jan. 29, 1883.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Perhaps if all the Northern press were to discuss the question of "Southern Homicide" and "Why Capital does not Seek Investment in the South" in the judicial, conservative manner in which you have lately argued it, there would not be that sensitiveness on the part of Southern people to the publicity given to the matter which you see now manifested. But your way of treating the subject, unfortunately, is not the prevailing disposition of the Northern press. Namely, in the Christmas number of *Puck*, with the chimes of Peace and Good-Will echoing o'er the earth, there appears on its last page a colored picture aimed at the South, and calculated to do us lasting harm. The picture represents a swamp, with a big sign (sticking out of the mud and water) inviting Northern immigrants to come and settle; but as the immigrants come down the road headed by a fat capitalist with a bundle of greenbacks, and a sturdy workingman with his tools on his shoulder, they are halted by a ghastly figure—a stalwart skeleton, with knives and pistols in its belt, a rope around its neck, and carrying a shotgun—warning them to turn back in haste unless they would "die by violence." Behind this ghastly desperado who bars their path can be seen a fine rolling country, but on every hill-top a negro swinging from a tree, and in every field a lonely grave.

In his comments on this "cartoon," the editor says—without limiting his language to any one State, or to one part of the South, but embracing the entire country—that the capitalist who attempts to collect his just debts in the South must expect either to be lynched or assassinated for "doing his duty"—*i.e.*, collecting his just debts. *Puck* has probably a large circulation in this country, and doubtless finds readers in England and on the Continent of Europe. The effect on the imagination of an ignorant foreigner of such a picture illustrating life in the South would be to arouse the most horrible conceptions and forebodings if he contemplated migrating there. How incalculable the injury it could do. It has been said you cannot indict a nation; ought there to be immunity for libelling an entire people, and accusing them, without limit, of assassinating and lynching unoffending capitalists who are simply in the act of collecting their just dues? The world knows that society in the South is not in the disturbed condition it is at present in Ireland. Yet, in sober earnest, the editor of *Puck* accuses the Southern people of greater crimes against unoffending capitalists who come to their country to do them good, than have yet been charged against the Irish peasantry in the most disaffected districts.

A heart regardless of its social duties, and fatally bent on mischief, is one definition of malice. Malice is also inferred from want of probable cause. How, then, can the editor of *Puck* escape the charge of having wantonly and maliciously printed a libel against the Southern people, who have done him no wrong, but, by buying his paper, have contributed to his good? Your paper, Mr. Editor, has treated Southern questions in a very different manner from the heartless, false satire of *Puck*.

I have subscribed to the *Nation* for years; have had my heart delighted at some of your defences and kind words in encouragement of the South, and I thought at the time such a course must lose you subscribers with a certain class at the North. As I have followed you in your discussion of "Southern Homicide," I have thought it a pity that the South just at this time should be brought into such unpleasant notoriety. If one could induce some portion of the tide of immigration to flow to her, and some of the unemployed capital at the North to seek investment in her borders, he would do a better service to the South than by holding up to public scorn and ridicule a defect in her social system. But I see there are others who differ, and think that to secure the immigrants and capital we must first bring about a change in public sentiment as to the "sacredness of human life." How far the late war may be responsible for such a state of affairs, I cannot pretend to say; but it seems to me that after four years of fighting, in which every family lost some member, and the entire male population took part, and death by violence—*i. e.*, in battle—was a daily occurrence, people would naturally grow somewhat obtuse on the subject of homicide; and during the years of the carpet-bag régime it became very general for the whites to carry arms for their own protection and that of others, in case of any unforeseen disturbance, mêlée, or quarrel between the whites and blacks, and among the whites themselves. But, whatever the cause, the habit of carrying concealed deadly weapons, and the disposition to resort to them in settlement of personal quarrels, are much to be deprecated; and where inveighed against in a manly, charitable way, let us hope the people of the South will find some return for the irritation the discussion has given rise to in an improved public sentiment on the subject.

Yours truly, WM. H. S. BURGWYN.

HENDERSON, VANCE CO., N. C., Jan. 29, 1883.

Notes.

'THE War between Peru and Chile,' by Clements R. Markham, will bear the American imprint of R. Worthington. The same publisher has nearly ready a new edition of Mr. Theodore Tilton's novel, 'Tempest Tossed.'

The Century Co. will revise the revised 'Imperial Dictionary,' and give it the name of 'The Century Dictionary.' This task will occupy several years, and will be under the direction of Prof. W. D. Whitney.

Dr. E. H. Knight, whose death in Ohio was recently announced, had been engaged for some time on a supplementary volume to his valuable 'Mechanical Dictionary,' incorporating the numerous inventions and improvements in mechanics since the publication of his previous volumes. Fortunately, he lived to complete the work, having put the finishing touches to it but a short time before his death. It will be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Chas. Scribner's Sons will shortly reprint for this country the 'Life of Lord Lawrence,' and have also in press 'Ice Pack and Tundra,' by W. H. Gilder; 'Historical Handbook of Italian Sculpture,' by Charles C. Perkins; a new American novel, 'An Honorable Surrender'; and a new edition of Dr. S. Wells Williams's 'The Middle Kingdom.'

Volume 1 of 'A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War,' by Prof. John B. McMaster, is nearly ready to be brought out by D. Appleton & Co.

Henry Holt & Co. will be the American publishers of Miss Helen Zimmern's 'Epic of the Kings,' an English prose version of Firdusi's 'Shah-Nameh.'

Jowett's translation of Thucydides is announced by D. Lothrop & Co., Boston. Dr. Peabody, of Harvard, will furnish an introduction.

A 'Comparison of all Theologies,' by the Rev. James Freeman Clarke, being this author's Lowell lectures supplementary to his 'Ten Great Religions,' will be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

John E. Potter & Co., Philadelphia, announce for immediate publication a 'Pictorial History of the Bible,' quarto.

'Walks in Southern Italy and Sicily,' by the Rev. Augustus J. C. Hare, is in preparation by Geo. Routledge & Sons.

Miss Hoppus, a young English authoress of much promise, has just written the concluding chapters of a story to which she gives the title of 'A Great Treason.' The scene is laid in America during the War of Independence.

Last summer we reviewed the Messrs. Holt's edition of Mr. Serjeant Ballantine's 'Some Experiences of a Barrister's Life.' This work has, since the author's arrival in America, been reproduced with his consent from the sixth London edition, and now bears the imprint of J. B. Lippincott & Co., the copyright being in the name of J. M. Stoddart, another Philadelphia publisher. Serjeant Ballantine supplies a special preface. The plates were purchased of the Messrs. Holt; the binding is a clever imitation in cloth of legal sheep.

From Ginn, Heath & Co. we have a treatise on 'Vibratory Motion and Sound,' by J. D. Everett, Professor of Natural Philosophy in Queens College, Belfast, and long and favorably known as an active and prominent member of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. The present treatise explains the laws of vibratory motion in perhaps as clear a manner as is possible in the present state of mathematical science. Many simple geometrical demonstrations are given of propositions which have heretofore been treated only by means of the higher branches of mathematics. The seventh chapter, which describes several ingenious methods of converting rectilinear into circular motion, and *vice versa*, is especially interesting. The theory of waves and undulations is presented in a very satisfactory manner. The laws of vibratory motion are the foundation of the modern theories of sound and light, and it is perhaps as an introduction to acoustics and optics that the book will have its chief value. Chapter xii. of the work treats of "simple and compound tones"; and chapter xiii. and last, of "musical intervals." They are very short, and contain nothing new.

From the Clarendon Press, Oxford, we have a

new volume, Corneille's "Horace," edited, with introduction and notes, by George Saintsbury. It contains a very elaborate introduction, consisting of four essays upon French tragedy, a life of Corneille, and a special introduction to Horace, all good and interesting. The text is carefully edited, and the twenty-five pages of notes are among the best that have ever been appended to a French classic for school uses. They are sufficiently minute to give an idea, in a condensed form, of the criticism of words and grammatical forms to which French editors have subjected their classic writers, and at the same time they sufficiently bring out the high literary merits of the tragedy. Altogether this neat little volume is worthy to take its place by the side of the excellent editions of Shakspere's plays issued from the same press.

A third, revised edition of Dr. James R. Nichols's 'Whence, What, Where?' has just been published by A. Williams & Co., Boston.

Part 1 of the *Journal of Social Science*, embracing the papers read at Saratoga last summer before the American Association, is now procurable of the firm last mentioned or of G. P. Putnam's Sons. Two papers have an historic as well as social-economic interest—"Early Factory Life in New England," by Mrs. H. H. Robinson, and "American Factory Life," by Miss Lucy Larcom.

In the *Harvard University Bulletin* No. 24 is given the first instalment of the Cromwell and Frederic the Great books left by Carlyle to the University Library; and the beginning of a bibliography of Ptolemy's 'Geography,' by Mr. Winsor.

The current number of the *Magazine of American History* is noticeable for an imaginative article by the late Dr. J. G. Kohl, of Bremen, on the naming of Rhode Island. It displays critical acuteness and much ingenuity, but can hardly be said to settle the question.

The weekly issues of *Our Continent*, bound together as a monthly, show that this periodical rivals the magazines in the profuseness, though not (on the average) in the quality, of its illustrations. Like them, too, it sometimes suffers the illustrations to be cause of the articles rather than the reverse. The opening article is a good illustration of the danger of this want of logic in the editing.

The *American Angler* of this city is now publishing a series of essays upon the game fishes of America, and gives every week, on its front page, a cut of some representative American fish.

The students of the School of Drawing and Painting at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts have issued a December number of their publication launched in June—the *Art Student*. It offers a number of creditable examples of the work of the school—several from the life and from the nude—together with some note-book jottings, a promising etching, etc. The literary portion is agreeably youthful.

The Valentine Cards sent us by L. Prang & Co. do, as the publishers allege in their circular, convey "only the most pure and refined sentiment." They are not without interest as industrial and commercial products, and as "survivals" on the one hand, and "developments" on the other. As either art or literature they do not differ in quality from the holiday cards of the same enterprising firm.

As their Economic Tract No. 8, the Society for Political Education (4 Morton Street) have reprinted, by permission, Mr. F. W. Whitridge's, article on the caucus system from Vol. I. of Lalor's 'Cyclopædia of Political Science.'

Morris Coster, 1162 Broadway, has issued a Dutch-American 'Almanak en Jaarboekje voor het jaar 1883,' the first ever produced, as he informs us. It contains information for immigrants, and celebrates the various Dutch churches of this city, with the aid of woodcuts of the buildings themselves and of pastors. The publisher promises a better compilation hereafter.

Dr. C. H. F. Peters, of Hamilton College, has within a month past begun the publication of his Celestial Charts, the construction of which he commenced in 1860, according to the method described by him in the quarterly journal of the Astronomische Gesellschaft ten years ago. The charts were made with the thirteen-inch refracting telescope of the Litchfield Observatory—the same instrument with which so many additions to the group of small planets have been made by Dr. Peters. The faintest stars included are of the eleventh magnitude. The first issue embraces twenty charts, none of which exceed in declination twenty-five degrees either north or south of the equator. Each chart is twenty minutes long in right ascension, and five degrees broad in declination, thus covering nearly twenty-five square degrees of the celestial sphere. It is most gratifying that astronomers everywhere may now avail themselves of the great advantages to be derived from these charts, which have been, in part, so long in existence as manuscript. All the work, observations, reductions, and drafting, having been done by Dr. Peters without any assistance—and the expense of publication and gratuitous distribution being borne by him also—the celestial charts are likewise noteworthy as constituting a memorial quite unique in the life of an astronomer.

In the very handy little *Annuaire de l'Observatoire Royal de Bruxelles*, for 1883 (the fiftieth year of its issue), Professor Niesten gives a "Table des Comètes" which will be of great service in determining whether objects of this sort, so frequently discovered of late, are old or new. The table is compiled from all the best available authorities, and contains the usual elements of nearly three hundred comets; and they are arranged, not, as ordinarily in tables heretofore, in the order of time, but according to the constants of inclination of their orbits to the plane of the ecliptic. Sixty-seven comets fall between the inclinations zero and thirty degrees, 113 between thirty and sixty degrees, and 110 between sixty and ninety.

A translation into Greek of Professor Butcher's inaugural discourse, noticed in a recent number of the *Nation*, has appeared in the well-known Κλείω of Trieste.

By the agreement between Germany and Greece in regard to the excavations at Olympia, Germany was to have one copy of all duplicates. The division of spoils has just been made by a commission appointed by Greece, and seven cases of the smaller objects have arrived at Berlin, the larger statues being stored for the present at Olympia. There are many terra-cottas and numerous archaic bronzes. One of the most precious of the latter is an image of a woman of extreme plainness, which is very ancient, for it came from the foundations of the temple of Juno, which is at least not later than the eighth century B. C. But German archæologists just now are more occupied with a very remarkable find lately made in Saxony of a large gold fish, valued at 10,000 marks for the gold alone. It is covered with carvings in an archaic Greek style, representing mythological personages.

M. Oppert read lately before the Académie des Inscriptions a communication on a cylinder just deciphered by Mr. Pinches, of the British Museum, containing a curious inscription of King Nabonid, who reigned from 555 to 538 before our era. Nabonid, like the authorities of the British Museum, had been making excavations at Sippara, and had found "an inscription of Naram Sin, son of Sargon, which for 3,200 years no king among our predecessors had seen." This will put the reign of Naram Sin at about 3750 B. C., and of Sargon, his father, at about 3800. Both kings were previously known by several texts, but not their date. Sargon is the king who tells of himself how he was, when an infant, exposed on the water in a basket, and saved by a peasant; a story which of course reminds one of Moses in the bulrushes.

More and more, as it seems to us, the leading articles in *Le Livre* claim the attention of its readers without omissions. "The Librarians of the Emperor Napoleon I." is the subject of the first in the January number, and is interesting for the light it throws on Napoleon's judgment and selection of men, and for a glimpse of the "695 volumes of jurisprudence, literature, ancient and modern history, military art, geography, travels, etc.," which he took with him upon his abdication to Elba. In the second, a book illustrator who survives his generation, M. Camille Rogier, furnishes M. Eugène Forgues an agreeable topic, and justifies the reproduction of some of the artist's designs. The third paper has a greater value than the foregoing, for it tells of the formation, neglect, and restoration of the unsurpassed library of the Paris Conservatoire de Musique. It is only lately that full effect has been given to the royal ordinance of March 29, 1834, providing for the deposit in this collection of a copy of every musical publication in France; but now the library is very much in the condition of that of Congress, and books piled upon the floors are fast choking the passages and making research impracticable. Both Berlioz and Félicien David held the post of librarian, but treated it as a sinecure, and left the library worse than they found it. In the present custodian, M. Weckerlin, the right man has been found for the right place. He has in particular, besides a general methodical rearrangement and filling up of lacunæ, made a collection of more than 1,500 musical portraits, and another of autographs, equally precious; and, finally, he has substituted a card catalogue for the former folio. The veteran statesman Victor Schœlcher, a passionate admirer of Handel and collector of his works, has given his invaluable Handel library to that of the Conservatoire.

In addition to the Italian *Esploratore* there is to be a new *L'Esplorazione*, "a fortnightly review of geographical achievement and of Italian interests in all parts of the globe." The editors are Prof. G. B. Licata, of the African Society, and Chev. F. Borsari, Secretary of Committee of the Third International Geographical Congress. The place of publication is Naples, Largo Carolina, 1. The first number, now before us, bears date of Jan. 15, 1883. Reviews of geographical publications, and particularly of Italian text-books, "whose mode of compilation is generally deplorable," form a part of the programme.

—We regret to record the death, on February 2, of Prof. George Washington Greene, in the seventy-second year of his age, and in his native town, East Greenwich, R. I. He was a grandson of the revolutionary General Nathanael Greene, and his life of this ancestor, of which the third and last volume was published in 1871, is his most enduring monument, and in its class is not surpassed by any American biography. Prof. Greene belonged to the generation which was outraged by Mr. George Bancroft's judgments and imputations on its grandsires, and which had both the requisite knowledge and literary skill to repel them. His education, begun but not carried far in Brown University, was completed by study abroad, which was favored by a long residence in Rome as U. S.

consul (1837-45). In the spring of 1848 he was appointed instructor in modern languages at Brown, and in 1852 became a resident of this city for a period of some dozen years, during which he was engaged on the life of General Greene. In 1865 he put forth the admirable 'Historical View of the American Revolution,' composed of his Lowell lectures in 1863. Other works, showing the versatility of his scholarship —such as his 'Historical Studies' (relating especially to Italian genius and literature), republished in 1850 from the *North American Review*, and his 'History and Geography of the Middle Ages' (1851)—might be enumerated. In 1872 he was appointed non-resident Professor of American History at Cornell University. He was for many years an esteemed contributor to the *Nation*. In spite of his failing eyesight, he continued his literary labors to the last, and was, we believe, contemplating a life of the poet Longfellow, between whom and himself a very warm friendship existed.

—We have received from D. Appleton & Co. the first volume of the new edition of Bancroft's 'History of the United States,' an edition which will contain in six volumes the substance of the original twelve. It is a handsome octavo, well printed on good, but not very heavy, paper. Although considerably thicker than a single volume of the original edition, it is not at all clumsy or cumbersome. On comparing this with the corresponding volume of the "Centenary" edition of 1876, one is surprised to see how extensive changes the author has found desirable, even after so short an interval. The comparison of the three editions illustrates his untiring energy and faithfulness of preparation, as well as, perhaps, a certain restlessness and captiousness of self-criticism. The first thing that strikes one is the increased number of chapters, resulting from subdivision. This volume contains two volumes of the original, and is divided into thirty-eight chapters instead of eighteen. This is in itself an improvement. The original chapters were unduly long; the new ones are some of them too short; but, on the whole, short chapters are far more manageable for the reader than long ones, even where, as in this case, there is an excellent analytic table of contents. But the new arrangement is not the result merely of subdivision: the matter is rearranged in such a manner as vastly to increase the lucidity and continuousness of treatment. For example, chapter viii. (the same in both the earlier editions), "The Pilgrims," is divided into two chapters—chapter xi., "Prelates and Puritans," and chapter xii., "The Pilgrims." But this is not enough. The chapter originally contained several pages upon the early explorations of New England, which could not but be felt to be out of place, standing as they did between the headings "Influence of Calvin" and "The Reformation in Germany." These pages are now removed, so that the treatment of the religious movement is uninterrupted, and the irrelevant matter is incorporated partly in chapter v., "The English Attempt Colonization," partly in chapter vi., "England Plants a New Nation in Virginia." The substance of the one chapter is therefore now found distributed among four. In the present edition Mr. Bancroft returns to the principle of division into periods, abandoned in the "Centenary" edition. His division is, however, a new one, the present volume containing two periods, or rather parts—Part 1, "The English People Found a Nation in America"; Part 2, "The Colonies Obtain Geographical Unity"—thus emphasizing an historical fact of great importance. Each part consists of nineteen chapters. As the permanent shape taken by a great historical work, this new arrangement—which we have thought it worth while to describe at some length—is certainly an improvement, and probably a desirable one. It must, however, make the work of citation and reference rather hard. It is a great convenience in referring, for example, to Gibbon, to know that in all editions chapter xv. is one and the same; and Bancroft's is a work which will always be extensively cited. The author tells us in his preface, with a certain pathetic dignity, that this revision "must be his last." However this may be, the spectacle of two men past eighty busily engaged in carrying on the literary labors which they began when young, is an inspiring one to all students of history. If Bancroft does not stand—as no living historian does —upon the same plane as Ranke, their names will, at any rate, ever be joined by virtue of this association.

—'Dr. Breen's Practice,' it appears, illustrates, rather unexpectedly, the truth that "we are a great nation." The contrast between the manners of *jeunes américaines* abroad and the prejudice with which Grace Breen's setting up as a doctor is received in her country town, has struck a French critic. He sees that there may be varieties in American character, notwithstanding that dreadful monotony which English travellers who spend four or five weeks in traversing a country as large as Europe discover on the surface. A French mother who sees a stranger violate with utter unconcern some of the most sacred laws of social propriety, thinks she has entirely accounted for it by saying, "Oh, she is an American." Yet Dr. Mulbridge refused to consult with a woman, and Dr. Breen's very friends would not trust her in a real illness, but wanted *a doctor*. Even in Paris, female medical students are better received than this. Our critic has heard some of the most eminent members of the Faculty of Medicine speak of one or two of their theses as among the most remarkable of the last few years. Conclusion: Americans—some Americans—have prejudices, like the rest of the world; there are conservatives even in the country of radicals. But after all the critic is not quite fair to us. He does not believe in female physicians, but he attributes his own doubts, not to stupid conservatism, but to perception of the plain laws of nature. He quotes a sentence of Mlle. Aubertine Auclerc written to the Municipal Council of Paris: "It is a shame that men should make women their milch cows," and declares he cannot find that men have ever done so. It seems to him that it is Nature who is responsible for this division of labor. Until it is proved that the injustice of society has made women mothers and men fathers, and that a law could remedy all this, he for his part will continue to believe that the two sexes were created for different ends, and consequently have received different faculties and aptitudes. "Not that either is therefore superior to the other, but they are not the same, that is all." Very well, if these are the reasons that convince an Arvède Barine that doctors should always be men, may not the most hidebound conservative of a New England village be in part influenced by the same idea?

—Karl Blind, in an article in the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse*, notes the curious fact that the recent revelations regarding Darwin's religious opinions were only noticed by three or four of the English periodicals, and that even *Nature* suppressed Darwin's letter to a Jena student, which Haeckel had sent to the editor as part of one of his lectures. In this letter, it will be remembered, Darwin had stated, verbatim: "For myself, I do not believe that there ever has been any revelation"; and in a conversation with Dr. Ludwig Büchner, he said he was with him in thought, but preferred the word agnostic to atheist, and that he had given up Christianity because "it is not supported by evidence." Karl Blind adds to this testimony another item, in the form of a letter written by Darwin in 1873 to a Dutch gentleman, N. D. Doedes, of which we make the following translation from the German as given in the *Presse*:

"I find it impossible to give a brief answer to your question. I do not know if I should be able to answer it if I were to write a great deal about it. Thus much I can say, that the impossibility of understanding how this great and wonderful universe, besides our own consciousness, could have come into existence through chance, seems to me to be our principal argument for the existence of a God; but whether this argument is of any value I have never been able to decide, for I know that, if we accept a highest cause, the mind again strives to know whence *it* came and how *it* arose. Moreover, I cannot pass over the difficulty which, on this assumption, arises from the vast amount of suffering prevalent in the world. I am, indeed, asked to attach a certain amount of weight to the judgment of the large number of intelligent men who have implicitly believed in God; but here again I see what an insufficient kind of proof this is. The safest conclusion seems to be that the whole subject lies beyond the range of human understanding; and yet—a man can do his duty."

—We have met with some most alarming statistics in a German writer. Every one knows that there is a Goethe bibliomania as there is a Shakspere mania and a Molière mania, and Calderon and Cervantes manias, and as we thought last year there was going to be a Longfellow mania. Now, the result of the German epidemic is that, whereas in 1868 there had been printed in one place or another 3,900 letters of Goethe addressed to 340 different persons, in 1879, only eleven years later, there were, we are told, 8,600, written to 600 correspondents. The reader will notice that the two dates are separated by a sun-spot interval, though it is not said that this has anything to do with the result. But what a terrible prospect! By 1890, at the same rate, there will be 20,640; in 1901, 45,408; and by the end of that century no library could contain them, and not even a German professor would be able to read them through. Perhaps it is in view of this that Goedecke and Vollmer are preparing a "critical and definitive" edition of all the works in the 'Bibliothek der Weltlitteratur.' For the letters are not the only works of Goethe that are growing. During his life only one form of "Goetz von Berlichingen" was printed, that of 1773. Now there are three. The text of 1772, which was never performed, was published after the poet's death. Still later came the arrangement of 1804, which had increased (as we have seen to be the habit of the works of this writer) so much that, like Wagner's operas, it could not all be performed on one day, and three acts were played September 29, the rest on October 13. This enlarged *recension* was found in a closet at Munich, was acquired by the Heidelberg University Library, and is now published by Professor Baechtold. "Iphigenia," too, is growing by gemmation, like the fungi: a new text arrangement (*rédaction*), by the poet's own hand, has been discovered. We say growing, because these sister texts are not used to give various readings, as in editing the Greek and Latin classics, but both texts are printed by any conscientious German editor at full length. At least that is what Professor Baechtold has done for "Goetz von Berlichingen," and what he will probably do for "Iphigenia."

—At least six worthy editions of Molière's complete works are now passing through the press in Paris, and there is never a month and rarely a week which does not record the publication of some book or pamphlet about the master mind of the French drama. Among the latest of these many volumes is one which is highly characteristic of the length to which a literary passion and a thirst for discovery may lead a

patient critic. M. Auguste Vitu, the brilliant dramatic critic of the *Figaro*, has just published a book on the house in which Molière died, which he identifies with the present No. 40 of the Rue Richelieu, although unfortunately no vestige of the original edifice remains, save a well in the party-wall, now covered out of sight. Hitherto it has been supposed that the house was No. 34, and an inscription on its front sets forth the belief. But M. Vitu marshals a host of new witnesses, the best of them being extracts from family papers of the present owners, some of which are almost contemporary with Molière's death. The real house was built in 1658 and leased by Molière in July, 1672. It overlooked on the rear the garden of the Palais Royal, to which Molière had a key, and through which he could thus take a short cut to his theatre, standing then very nearly on the ground now occupied by its successor, the Théâtre-Français of to-day. But he did not live long to enjoy it, nor did he enjoy it much while he lived. He got possession in the first week of October, 1672, and on October 11 his second son died; in the next few months he was hard at work rehearsing the "Malade Imaginaire," a very genuine invalid himself; and after the first performance of the new play he was brought home to die in an upper room, on February 17, 1673. Most interesting is M. Vitu's reconstruction of this fatal abode. The consideration of this house, however, fills only the first seventy pages of his 'Maison Mortuaire de Molière' (Paris: Lemerre; New York: F. W. Christern), the remaining 400 pages of which are taken up with a history of the Rue de Richelieu, house by house—a history now told for the first time from researches in the archives, public and private, of Paris. M. Vitu announces as in press similar exhaustive volumes on two other Molièrean houses—the tennis court which the Illustre Théâtre hired, and Molière's father's house in the Halles.

— The January number of the *Rundschau* is the one hundredth issue of that periodical. Of its 160 pages, no less than 74 are devoted to fiction. L. Friedländer has an article on Roman Strategy, and Freiherr von Goltz one on Africa. Freiherr von der Brüggen considers the relation between Church and State, in an essay on the evangelic-religious movement in Russia, which throws light on the moral condition of that nation and the efforts of propagandists to introduce New Testament teachings. Besides the regular bibliographic, artistic, and literary notices, there is a long article by Karl Frenzel on the Berlin theatres, which not only reviews the new plays produced within the last few months, but incidentally gives a clear view of the condition of the German drama in general. The Germans evidently do not lack interest in theatres. Berlin has one theatre to every 68,000 inhabitants; Paris, one to every 70,000. Hamburg has four theatres, Munich three. Since 1870, permission has been given to private theatres to make use of the classical repertory of which, before that date, the Court theatres had a monopoly. The poorer classes, who were unable to pay the prices asked at the royal theatres, were thus allowed to become familiar with these plays, and it became possible to give such performances as those of the Meiningen Company, in which every detail is represented with historical accuracy and great splendor. But the great desideratum at present is new plays. Everybody writes them, many are printed and acted, but few succeed. The Schiller prize has not been assigned for several years. No one could rival the classical drama except Wagner, who has had the assistance of music. Anzengruber, Wilbrandt, Lindau, Putlitz, Bürger, L'Arronge gave up the unequal contest, and applied themselves, with more or less success, to the treatment of modern social problems and conflicts. This year, however, a reaction seems to have set in, in favor of Wildenbruch, whose historical play, "Harold," made a great sensation in Berlin and elsewhere. But Herr Frenzel believes that, like other reactions in favor of tragedy, this one will be limited to a single author or even to a single play.

TROLLOPE'S LORD PALMERSTON.

Lord Palmerston. By Anthony Trollope. London: Wm. Isbister.

"In his sixty-seventh year (January, 1851) he [Lord Palmerston] wrote to his brother from Broadlands. Speaking of the Christmas just past, he says: 'I took a fling, and went out several days hunting and shooting in the fine of the early day, coming home, of course, for work earlier than if I had been only a sportsman.' Let gentlemen of sixty-seven who habitually go out hunting and shooting—for I am aware that there are Englishmen of the age who do so—bethink themselves of the manner in which they pass the remainder of the day after they have come home. Are they tired, and do they sleep, or sit over their tea? Do they congratulate themselves that at sixty-seven they have been still able to perform so well many of the feats of their youth? I think I may say that they none of them betake themselves to the hard, thoughtful work of their lives: and that, if such work still falls to their lot, it has to be done before they go out hunting or shooting."

This paragraph from Mr. Trollope's work has a twofold interest. It exhibits Mr. Trollope's special gifts as a biographer; it also draws attention to the main secret or explanation of Lord Palmerston's success as a statesman.

The best talent which the writer of biography can possess is the capacity for seizing the personality of his hero; the power, that is to say, of seeing all the character which is shown in small personal traits, or the way in which petty facts of every-day life are the best illustration of character. The possession by Mr. Trollope of this gift or power is manifest in every line of his reflections on the very simple sentence from Lord Palmerston's correspondence. Most of us would have passed over the words which convey so much to Mr. Trollope without any particular attention. Some of us would have noted them as showing that Palmerston was a genial English gentleman with the tastes of a country squire. Very few would have seen, as Mr. Trollope perceived at a glance, all the physical and mental energy implied in the fact that a gentleman of sixty-seven could for two or three days together have a fling with the hounds in the early part of the day, and then come home for hard work in the afternoon. Nor is it difficult to perceive why Mr. Trollope saw so much more meaning in Lord Palmerston's habits than would be apparent to an ordinary reader: the training of the novelist came in to aid the labors of the biographer. For the greater part of his active life Mr. Trollope observed, reflected upon, and noted down the ways of English gentlemen. The whole of his works may be described under the title of one of them—they might all be headed, 'The Way We Live Now.' Hence, when he learned that a gentleman well advanced in years found it easy to hunt in the morning and work hard in the evening, Mr. Trollope could in a moment compare Palmerston's manner of life with the existence of the other squires and country gentlemen whom he has painted in 'Framley Parsonage,' 'Orley Farm,' 'The Last Chronicle of Barset,' or in any other among the score of pictures of modern England which he has left behind him for the entertainment of the present and the instruction of many a future generation. He thought of all his worthy friends as they came in wearied and worn-out from the hunting-field; he imagined them sipping tea, lounging in their easy-chairs, nodding over a book before dinner, or falling fast asleep after dinner, undisturbed by the music of their daughters or by the conversation of the youngsters who talked around them. He compared the squires he had known or imagined—knowledge and imagination may in this case be pretty much identified—and contrasted the minister of sixty-seven with the whole of the group. With this gallery of English portraits before him, Mr. Trollope could see at a hint where Palmerston agreed and where Palmerston differed from other Englishmen.

Add to this, that novel-writing, whatever its defects as a training for the intellect (and these defects are not inconsiderable), leads any one who practises the art to avoid abstractions. A successful novelist must train himself to look at men as they are. Hence a biography by a writer such as Trollope may have many deficiencies, but the one fault which it hardly can have is the fault, common enough to many distinguished writers, of treating a statesman as if he were merely the incarnation of some principles of statesmanship, instead of being, as he must of necessity be, a man of human flesh and blood, who, though occupied in politics as other men are occupied in the practice of the law or the transaction of business, is, like all of us, mainly taken up in hundreds of concerns and interests which have no direct reference to the pursuit which has made him famous. Mr. Trollope, at any rate, never forgot or suffered his readers to forget that Palmerston was a living, vigorous man of marked virtues, and of equally marked faults, whom it was absolutely impossible to treat as a mere representative of Palmerstonian policy.

Whoever wishes to measure the merit no less than the deficiencies of Mr. Trollope as a biographer, will find few better modes of doing so than by comparing the small, superficial, and probably ephemeral 'Lord Palmerston' with Mr. John Morley's lengthy and elaborate 'Cobden,' which may probably be a lasting memorial both of Cobden's policy and of the views maintained by Cobden's biographer. In many respects Mr. Trollope's work is sure to suffer by the proposed comparison. Mr. Morley is a trained thinker; his book bears throughout the traces of thought; he is the advocate or exponent of something like a political system; his 'Life of Cobden' is an exposition or defence of Cobdenism. Mr. Morley, further, is, as every one who has studied his writings must perceive, one of the most conscientious of workers; he has, it is clear, carefully examined every topic which in his judgment required to be studied by any one who undertook to narrate the history of the work done by Cobden for the world. Mr. Trollope, on the other hand, never professed to be, and certainly was not, a master of political theories. His observations on politics, whether in his novels or elsewhere, never go very deep. A good deal may be learned, even about social or political questions, from Mr. Trollope's descriptions of character and of society; but there is rarely much instruction to be got from his set remarks on public affairs. His 'Palmerston,' it must be admitted, is sketchy. No one will be surprised to find it in some respects inaccurate, as it certainly is in many respects superficial.

Yet, for all this, Mr. Trollope's work possesses one merit which is not to be found in Mr. Morley's 'Cobden': it contains a picture of Palmerston. Mr. Morley's two volumes contain, not a portrait of Cobden, but a treatise on Cobden's doctrine. Unless it be the one graphic and powerful description of the blow which befell Cobden on the death of his son, we doubt whether there is one picture throughout the whole of Mr. Morley's pages. Such a passage as that which we have cited from Trollope's 'Palmer-

ston' is, we are well assured, not to be found in the length and breadth of the whole of the didactic biographies with which Mr. Morley has instructed, and we may also add interested, the world. The truth is, that Mr. Trollope did not study, and perhaps would not have understood, sociology or political science; but he did thoroughly observe English society. He knew much less of man than of men, but of men he knew a great deal, and the men he understood best were Englishmen. Hence Lord Palmerston's account of his hunting and his working not only conveyed to Trollope, as we have already pointed out, a real glimpse into Palmerston's character, but also enabled the trained novelist to give to his readers, in the form of a few casual reflections on the way in which Palmerston spent his time, something like a key to the causes of Palmerston's success as a statesman.

Palmerston, happily for Mr. Trollope's reputation, was one of those persons whom the sympathetic painter of modern English society could thoroughly understand. His Lordship was not a man of genius or originality; he was not a great orator; he was not one of those leaders who tower above their fellows; he was not gifted with any extraordinary grasp of intellect or with any very remarkable originality of character. He received from nature the best outfit for success—genuine success—in the affairs of life which any man can desire. He was endowed, not with extraordinary qualities, but with an extraordinary amount of various valuable, though not in themselves uncommon, qualities. At the bottom of his success lay, as Mr. Trollope points out in effect in the passage we have cited, the possession of perfect physical health and strength. A strong body is, as we have all of us been taught from our youth up, often enough (and perhaps a good deal too often) a very inferior thing to mental or moral excellence. Teachers who are so careful to impress this maxim on the mind of youth appear to forget that a strong, and above all a healthy, body (the two things are by no means the same) is, if not the necessary yet certainly the natural, foundation for a strong character and a healthy mind. Lord Palmerston's physical endowments exactly represented his mental and moral gifts. England has possessed several better, nobler, and more far-sighted statesmen; but it may well be doubted whether among the line of English ministers will be found more than, at the most, two or three men who, in combined soundness of judgment, firmness of resolution, and energy of action, equalled Palmerston.

In nothing was his strong sense better seen than in a characteristic of his career on which Mr. Trollope has laid just emphasis—namely, the utter absence of all effort to push himself unduly forward, and even the cautious avoidance of undertaking any duties for which he was not fully prepared. This determination to bide his time is the characteristic of a strong man. The impatience which forces weaker natures to seize on positions which they can hardly hold with credit is, to a certain extent, connected with the sense of physical weakness or disease. He who has no certainty that his life will be long, feels that he cannot sacrifice the chances of the present day for the better opportunities which may never be his. The man of vigorous body has within himself the presage of a long life. Looking for a lengthy existence, he can play a waiting and therefore, in many cases, a wise game. Healthiness, again, is at least half the secret of sound judgment. Morbid feeling is the almost certain concomitant of a sickly body; but morbid sentiment is a fatal bar to forming a correct estimate of other men's character. There is no proof that Palmerston was gifted with any of the intuition of genius. He assuredly had strong feelings and strong prejudices. But, on the whole, his fairness and soundness of judgment led him right, both in his views of character and in his decision as to the course of action to be adopted at a given moment. He was utterly free from cant and from a belief in formulas, and he was, it must be added, like most persons of a coarse and vigorous nature, not very tightly bound to general political principles. His dealings with Louis Napoleon show him both at his worst and at his best. He had no special liking for Napoleon III. at any period of that adventurer's career; but Palmerston, it must now be admitted, perceived at the time of the *Coup d'État* one or two facts completely hidden from every Englishman of note, unless we except (the exception is an odd one) Walter Bagehot. He saw, more clearly perhaps than the President himself, that the name of Napoleon had a real hold on the French people; he held—and subsequent events have amply justified Palmerston's judgment—that the Orleanists and the so-called Party of Order hated the Empire a great deal more than they loved liberty, and were not much more concerned to support the Republic than was the President who overthrew it. He probably underrated—though this is not quite certain—the power of Republicanism in France, and he certainly grievously, and with very discreditable want of moral insight, overlooked the flagrant immorality of the *Coup d'État*. Still, for the purposes of immediate action, and especially for determining the course to be taken by English statesmanship, it must now be admitted that Palmerston took as clear and true a view of the crisis in 1851 and 1852 as any English statesman.

The alliance, it should be noted, with Louis Napoleon—or rather with France—was used by Palmerston for objects which he judged to be of paramount importance to England and to Europe. He was, moreover (and this is the point to be specially noticed), not the least disposed to let himself be hoodwinked by his ally. "The Emperor's mind," he writes in 1859 or 1860, "is as full of schemes as a warren is full of rabbits, and, like rabbits, his schemes go to ground for the moment to avoid notice or antagonism." In another letter, he tells the Duke of Somerset: "I have watched the Emperor narrowly, and have studied his character and conduct. You may rely upon it that at the bottom of his heart there lurks an inextinguishable desire to humble and punish England." And Palmerston was always ready to act upon his own convictions of political expediency. In a private conversation with the French Ambassador, he said outright that England desired peace, but that if the Emperor wished for war he would find that England was quite ready for him. Can any one who remembers 1870 doubt both that Palmerston had rightly gauged Louis Napoleon's character, and that his bold words were the wisest and most effective means of meeting the plots of a conspirator whose hesitation was equal to his faithlessness? Compare Lord Palmerston's insight with Cobden's complete blindness as to the real character of a statesman whose intellectual appreciation of free trade covered a multitude of sins in the eyes of the great free-trader.

In point of moral obtuseness, Palmerston and Cobden stand pretty much on the same level. Each was prepared far too readily to condone the crime of December. The unscrupulosity of Cobden was, it is true, the kind of unscrupulosity which is common to enthusiasts, religious or otherwise, to whom the "cause" is everything; and the man who promotes the "cause" cannot, whatever his offences, be a bad man. The unscrupulosity of Palmerston was the unscrupulosity of the man of the world, who takes things as they are, and is far too willing to shake hands with a scoundrel if the scoundrel's friendship is of value. But if you waive the moral question, Palmerston has, in every point of view, the advantage of Cobden. The old minister used his eyes and ears, watched the Emperor narrowly, and saw clearly enough how the land lay. The freetrader clung tight to his economical principles, made up his mind truly enough that it was not the "interest" of France to attack England, or for that matter Germany, and therefore derided all fear of invasion on the part whether of Englishmen or of Prussians. The plain truth is, that Palmerston had in great perfection the qualities, not in themselves very rare qualities, of a good working political leader. He could, when necessary, at any rate in his younger days, recognize the force of new ideas. Though a disciple of Canning, he placed himself in time on the side of parliamentary reform, and, though a nobleman and a landowner, saw at least as soon as others of his class the truth of free trade. But he was neither a man of original conceptions nor a man endowed with any special aptitude for grasping general ideas or principles.

As one looks over the whole of his life, as narrated rather too sympathetically by Mr. Trollope, one can see why Palmerston was hated, the extent to which the aversion felt to him by many opponents was justified, and the kind of defence which can justly be made for his policy and influence. He was a man of rather common qualities, who, by virtue of judgment, force, and often of rather vulgar self-assertion, defeated men of greater intellectual powers than himself. Mr. Trollope's comparison between Palmerston and Guizot is, by way of contrast, a very apt one. We may feel perfectly sure that, measured as men of intellect, the English minister fell far short of his French rival. Guizot will occupy a permanent place in literature after the failure of his policy is entirely forgotten. Palmerston neither by word nor writing contributed a single thought to the stock of human knowledge. But in politics Guizot failed as markedly as Palmerston succeeded. Nor let any one attribute this to the injustice of fortune. Palmerston succeeded because he had what Guizot had not—an eye for facts, and vigor to act in accordance with the facts of each crisis in so far as he perceived them. Let any one compare the miserable intrigue by which the French minister tried to support the Sonderbund, with the energy with which Palmerston really did support the cause of the Swiss Federation, and he will soon admit that Guizot's permanent banishment from the political life of France was as just and as natural as Palmerston's life-long influence on the politics of England. Cobden and Bright hated Palmerston partly because he was the most vigorous and dangerous opponent of their political system, partly, and more justly, because he represented that kind of hand-to-mouth statesmanship which all but refuses to look to anything more than the immediate exigencies of the day, and which entirely declines to recognize the often very important truths of economists and other theorists who are in certain respects in advance of their age. No one can say that this tendency simply to "deal with things as they occur," which is characteristic of all English statesmanship, and more especially characteristic of Palmerstonian statesmanship, is without its grave evils. The fourteen years from 1850 to 1864 were, as one now sees or imagines, a period when much might have been done to anticipate or avert the difficulties which now beset English statesmanship in Ireland. Palmerston knew in some respects more of Ireland

than most premiers. He did nothing whatever to modify the Irish policy of England.

Yet the very hand-to-mouth character of Palmerstonian statesmanship suggests to a certain extent the defence of his policy, and the true apology or explanation for the confidence placed in him, and men like him, by the English people. Whatever may be the case centuries hence, politics is not now a science, nor anything like a science. There are, it is true, a certain, though very limited, number of principles, mainly economical, to which every competent statesman ought to take heed in the conduct of affairs. There are, further, doctrines of justice and humanity which, though their application may sometimes be a little difficult, cannot be neglected by any one who believes that the aim of political as of other human efforts is to promote the welfare of mankind. But the immediate calling of every statesman is to deal with occasions as they arise. He has, at best, before him in many instances but a choice of evils. For this rough-and-ready work of every-day politics, presence of mind, energy, decision, insight into character, knowledge of men, and belief in plain dealing are for the most part of far greater avail to a minister than the rarer gifts of eloquence or genius. With the qualities needed for the every-day work of politics Palmerston was endowed, and the English people followed a competent leader who was known to care for the interests of England as they always have followed, and to the end of time probably will follow, men of the Palmerstonian stamp. If Palmerston were alive, he would probably even now, under conditions not very favorable to his influence, soon return to power. Let no one suppose that Mr. Gladstone's immense authority is inconsistent with this assertion. The present Premier, who, be it remarked to the credit of both statesmen, served zealously under Palmerston, has an infinite number of gifts not possessed by Mr. Trollope's hero. But it is very questionable whether the hold on popular sympathy undoubtedly possessed by Mr. Gladstone is not due as much to the qualities which are common to him and to Palmerston as to the qualities which will always, from some points of view, render the one minister a marked contrast to the other. Immense strength of body, unwearied love of work, unbounded determination, amounting at times to arrogance, great capacity for acting boldly when requisite on the spur of the moment, are characteristics which, though in a somewhat different form, marked the policy of Palmerston as they now mark the policy of Gladstone. The minister who has bombarded Alexandria and has occupied Egypt has not much to learn in the way of prompt energy from the Premier who sent the Guards to Canada, and was prepared to declare war with the United States rather than tolerate the seizure of the representatives of the Confederacy. Both Palmerston and Gladstone have thoroughly understood that it is the electors, and not the House of Commons, who are the ultimate sovereign of England. The differences between the two men are patent; the one, however, was, and the other is, the really strong man, both physically and morally, of his day. The future biographer of Mr. Gladstone will, if he knows his work, tell how his hero cut down trees and returned to the labors of a minister after going through the toil of a woodman, just as Mr. Trollope tells us how Palmerston, when an old man, rode out with the hounds in the morning, and then in the afternoon worked at memoranda and despatches a good deal harder than any young Foreign-Office clerk.

"SCHAFF-HERZOG."

A Religious Encyclopædia, or Dictionary of Biblical, Historical, Doctrinal, and Practical Theology. Based on the Real-Encyklopädie of Herzog, Plitt, and Hauck. Edited by Philip Schaff, D.D., LL.D., Professor in the Union Theological Seminary, New York. Associate Editors: Rev. Samuel M. Jackson, M.A., and Rev. D. S. Schaff. Volume i. Funk & Wagnalls. 1882.

THIS is a stately volume of 850 very large pages. The work is to be completed in three volumes. Herzog's original 'Real-Encyklopädie für protestantische Theologie und Kirche' (1854-68) embraced twenty-two, including the supplement. His new edition, begun in 1877, on which Dr. Schaff's publication is based, is to consist of not less than fifteen, of which ten have appeared. Dr. Schaff's three, comparing the number and size of the pages and the type, will contain more print than four of Herzog's. Judicious condensation and a strict excision of repetitions might have considerably increased the comparative amount of matter, in the higher sense; but no such process, except in trifles, is to be discovered. The 'Religious Encyclopædia' is in reality neither a translation nor an abridgment of the 'Real-Encyklopädie,' but "a condensed reproduction and adaptation of all the important German articles, with necessary additions, especially in the literature, and with a large number of new articles by the editors and special contributors. More than one-third of the work is original. Every article is credited to its author, except the majority of editorial articles, which are unsigned." Much British and American biography has been added. "Living celebrities are excluded." The bibliography has been brought down to date. The "List of Writers," which comprises the contributors, living and dead, for both the German and the American work, represents a tremendous array of learning; but, unfortunately, some of the best contributions have been left out or badly cut up in the American reproduction, and a very large portion of the original American matter has been contributed by writers not deemed worthy of a place in the list, or belongs to the "unsigned" part of the editorial labor. Herzog himself, like his associate editor Plitt, is now numbered among the dead contributors.

The comparison of a number of successive notices may show how far the 'Religious Encyclopædia' differs as to contents from the 'Real-Encyklopädie.' The latter devotes eight pages, by Pastor Michelsen, to Lars Anderson, the greatest promoter of the reformation in Sweden; the 'Religious Encyclopædia' replaces them by eighteen lines, beginning thus: "Anderson, Lars (*Laurentius Andreä*), b. probably at Streugnas [*sic*, for Strengnäs], 1480; d. in the same place, April 29, 1552; was chancellor of the realm and most intimate councillor of the King from 1523 to 1540, and stood together with Olans [*sic*, for Olaus] and Laurentius Petri," etc. The reader soon enough discovers that "the realm" means Sweden, and in some other article he may find out that "the King" means Gustavus Vasa. Schaff gives a life of Rufus Anderson, "D.D., LL.D.," who "was president for many years of the trustees of Bradford Academy; a member of the board of trust of Andover Seminary; was active in benevolence": Herzog knows no such man. Schaff alone has an article on Andover Theological Seminary—an article teeming with "Rev.," "Dr.," "D.D.," "Hon.," "Esq.," and "Madam"—and some lines on Antonio Andrada, the author of 'Novo Descobrimento do Grão [Grão] Catayo on [ou] dos Reynos de Thibet,' and also on Diogo Andrada—a name changed in the same notice into Andradias. The 'Religious Encyclopædia' abridges the 'Real-Encyklopädie's' lives of Jakob and Johann Valentin Andreä, and adds brief notices of Abraham Andreä, of Andreas Cretensis and Andreas of Cæsarea in Cappadocia—misplacing these two both alphabetically and chronologically—and of Andreas "of Crain" (that is, which is not stated, of Carniola). Herzog has, of course, a notice of the apostle "Andreas"; Schaff forgets the apostle, both as Andreas and as Andrew.

The preceding will have incidentally shown our readers that slight editorial slips are not unfrequent in the new work before us. Dr. Schaff himself tells us in the preface that "an apology may be due the German authors for abridging their contributions"; ampler apology is surely due for abridging them carelessly and revising the abridgments with equal carelessness. The German authors and editors are perfectly guiltless of such Hebrew as "g'natz" (page 99, where ignorance of the language terribly distorts the accurate statements of Schürer), "shūbāth" (550), "*h*orbāh" and "y'shīmō*kh*" (629), "b'nē *v*'eden" (692), or "*g*iddūy" (783); such Assyrian as "Acha-abb*re*" (41); such Italian as "Pitture Sacræ . . . *D*ei Cemeteri di Roma" and "dell*i* Antiche Arti" (417); such French as "*la* génie" (175), "des Église Réformées" (222), "la Républiques" (228), "*R*évue des Deux Mondes" (320), "cœur humaine" (337), "Répertoire Assyrien*ne*" (585), or "demotique," "ritual funeraire," "*l*e Bible," and "notices recueille*s*" (all on page 707); such renderings of Hebrew words or names in English as "Sichem" (15), "*S*ohar" (immediately after "Hazohar," 353), "Ehe*j*eh" (354), "Juda ben Isaa*k*" (355), or "*Ch*iddekel" (690); such spellings of classical names, in an English text with the ordinary rules, as "Berœa" (80), "*K*tesiphon" (187), "*K*allistus" and "Philo*k*alus" (416), "*K*aly*k*adnus" (577), or "*K*tesias" (side by side with "Cyrus," "Cambyses," and even "Ctesias," on p. 597); and such geographical nomenclature as "Münich" (four times in one column, 225), "Freisig" (for Freisingen, 225), "Méaux" (three times in a few lines, 325), or "Osnabrüc*h*" (513). Nor are the German authors or editors responsible for the frequent omission of Greek accents; for the almost general omission of definitions after the titles; and such awkward beginnings of notices as "Ahimelech (*brother of the king*) was probably a son of Ahiah," "Alexandria, founded in 322 [*sic*, for 332] B.C. by Alexander the Great, rose rapidly," and "Chili, The Republic of, established Feb. 16, 1817, and [*sic*] numbered 1,938,861 inhabitants in 1869"; for beginnings, on the other hand, so gushing as "Brooks, . . . an able and beloved minister of the Universalist Church," or "Budington, . . . a beloved and able Congregational minister"; or for references to titles which do not exist in the book, as to "Accad" (p. 583), which ought to be there.

We would not dwell on editorial slips like these, were such the only ones; but graver offences are equally frequent, and we have neither room nor time to point them out. A few examples, however, must be presented: Paul de Lagarde's "Abulfaradsch" is editorially reproduced in twenty lines, of which thirteen are devoted to a very imperfect enumeration of books and editions. The life proper is condensed in this one sentence of characteristic construction: "Abulfaraj (*Bar Hebræus*), b. at Malatia in Cappadocia, 1226; d. at Maragha in Adharbaid*schan* [*sic*]; the son of a Jewish physician, who had embraced Jacobinism; was appointed Bishop of Gubos in 1246, Bishop of Aleppo in 1247 [?], and Maphrian, or Primate of the Jacobites, in Chaldæa, Assyria, and Mesopotamia, in 1266." That Abulfaraj's Christian name was

Gregory; that he was himself a physician like his father; that he died in 1286; that he was "appointed" Maphrian years before he could occupy his seat as such "in 1266"; that he resided at Tekrit on the Tigris, facts clearly stated by Lagarde, and subject to no critical doubts—all this is forgotten in this one-sentence biography of the famous Jacobite, not to speak of other interesting points. Almost exactly equal space, and much more minute attention, is devoted in the 'Religious Encyclopædia' to Jacob Abbott, an American writer as dear, it is true, to children as the Syrian is to theologians and historians, and "mentioned here because of his 'Young Christian Series,' . . . a series which has been extensively circulated." And the life of Jacob Abbott is incomparably fuller than that of King David, which, after telling where and when he was born and died, immediately proceeds thus: "While a fugitive from Saul, he headed a band of freebooters"; then devotes six lines to the cave of Adullam, which ought to be given under that head; and finishes the narrative in fourteen more lines—the whole presenting a unique biographical sketch of the warrior king, in which there is absolutely no mention of Samuel or Jonathan, Michal or Abigail, Gath or Ziklag, Joab or Abishai, Philistines or Syrians, Moab or Ammon, Bathsheba or Uriah, Nathan or Gad, Absalom or Ahithophel, Adonijah or Solomon. This is substituted by the associate editor, Rev. Samuel M. Jackson, for Orelli's nine pages of close historical narrative in the 'Real-Encyklopädie,' and is drawn out into a page by some very superficial remarks on psalms and text-criticism, and some twaddle on David as "the man after God's own heart," all of the trite old pattern, but including the original discovery that Kuenen "slighted David's claims upon the enthusiasm of the Church, and sought to emphasize his faults," so that he "might sneer at his religion."

The omission of almost all the events in the life of David in the sketch devoted to him is not to be attributed to an editorial rule excluding or limiting the narration of facts popularly well known or easily discoverable in the household Bible. Far from it. The abridgment of Herzog's "Abraham" reproduces only the stories, so well known to every Sunday-school pupil, about the patriarch's wanderings, Lot and Sarah, Hagar and Ishmael, Melchizedek and Abimelech, angelic apparitions and divine revelations; everything historico-critical is left out, and there is not even an allusion to the age in which the father of the Hebrew nation is believed to have lived. Nor is there a chronological date attached to any of the heroes of the legendary or semi-legendary periods of Hebrew history whom we can discover in this volume—ending with the letter F—such as Aaron, Abimelech, Barak, Caleb, Deborah, or Eli, while such interesting characters as Agag, Boaz, and Ehud are completely forgotten, though the insignificant Abdon is noticed. The abridger of Orelli's "Debora," by the by, makes her enemy Sisera, King Jabin's captain, a "Canaanitish King," and has this "King, Sisera, . . . *executed* . . . in the tent of Jael." The reader will in vain look for historical dates under "Chronology," for there he finds only: "See 'Era,'" and "Era" naturally reproduces only Herzog's "Ära" (by Orelli), while Herzog's "Zeitrechnung"—embracing sixty-three pages in vol. xviii., and twenty-seven in vol. xxii., of the first edition—is still to come. Thus Schaff's "Chronology" is also still to come—in a supplement; and with it we may also have an "Andrew," an "Athaliah," an "Azariah," and the other forgotten notices—say, after Smith's 'Dictionary of the Bible,' the pages of which Dr. Schaff and his associates might have turned over more diligently than they did—and also the article "Accad," already referred to in the book. The last-named notice would be very well done by Prof. Francis Brown, whose contributions to this volume, including "Cuneiform Inscriptions" and "Eden," show him to be perfectly familiar with the latest products of Assyriology, and a painstaking and careful scholar.

Let us add, in justice to Dr. Schaff and his associates—whose undertaking we cannot but recognize as not less arduous than useful—that Prof. Brown's are not the only original American contributions that deserve commendation; that many an abridgment appears to be well executed; and that many an omission is due to too much reliance upon Herzog's guidance. Thus, the 'Real-Encyklopädie,' the plan of which is somewhat peculiar, has no "Agag," "Asarja," "Athalja," "Boas," or "Ehud" either. If Schaff's abridger leaves "Ahab" without a chronological mark, and furnishes "Ahaz" and "Ahaziah" with dates, he only follows the example of the German writer, F. W. Schultz, whose reason in not dating the reign of Ahab was probably the desire to ignore the conflict between the Biblical and Assyrian chronologies arising from the mention, in the Assyrian inscriptions, of Ahabbu Sir'lai, identified with Ahab of Israel, as a contemporary of Shalmaneser II. Ignoring at one place, however, does not remove the discrepancy; for, returning to Schaff, already, under "Azariah"—"the son and successor of Ahab . . . (B.C. 897–896)"—and also under "Elijah," we find Ahab dead in 897, while, under "Ben-hadad," we read that "the Assyrian King, Shalmaneser II. (B.C. 858–823), . . . thoroughly in agreement with the Bible [*sic*]," says that, at the time of his first expedition against Ben-hadad II. of Syria, "the Syrian king was in league with 'Achabbu'—*i. e.*, Ahab of Israel." The 'Real-Encyklopädie,' too, betrays under "Ahasja" and "Elia" what it suppresses under "Ahab"; but it has no "Ben-hadad," its "Syria" and "Shalmaneser" are still to come, and from "Assyrien" all trouble is removed by reference to "Nineve." Whether it will in the Assyrian articles, like the 'Religious Encyclopædia,' compromise the Biblical chronology and vitiate its earlier notices by adopting the common Assyriological date for the reign of Shalmaneser, or adopt Oppert's view of a break in the Assyrian Eponym Canon, remains to be seen. In any case, it is a question of consistency only, and not of orthodoxy; for surely neither of the two cyclopædias can be reproached with want of reverence for the inspiration and the text of the Bible, though both dare to question occasionally the correctness of a word or a figure. Dr. Schaff's orthodoxy is particularly broad and deep. It colors every article with the tenor of which critical scepticism can have anything to do, even after all that Herzog's conservatism has done in defence of authenticity or belief. In regard to the fundamental Christian tenets, we have from the pen of the veteran writer on religious topics, at the close of the long article, "Christology"—an article evidently intended to be his own crowning contribution—the following confession of faith, which speaks for itself:

"We accept fully the faith of the Church in all ages, and consider the divinity of our Lord as the corner-stone of Christianity. We hold, with Rothe and Ritschl, to the *moral* nature of the God-manhood of Christ, but without sacrificing his eternal divinity. We would go as far with the Kenosis theory as the unchangeable nature of God permits and as the unbounded love of God demands. We dissent from the dyophysitic and dualistic psychology of Chalcedon, and hold to the inseparable personal unity of the life, and at the same time to the genuine growth, of Christ, without asserting, with the Kenoticists, a growth of the divine Logos, who is unchangeable in his nature; but we substitute for this impossible idea a gradual *communication* of the divinity to the God-man."

The intense Biblico-religious sentiment which pervades Dr. Schaff's 'Encyclopædia' manifests itself not only in the defence of the often-assailed genuineness or remote antiquity of such books as Canticles, Ecclesiastes, Chronicles, and even Daniel—Chronicles is called "thoroughly reliable history," and Daniel is defended against so orthodox a scholar as Franz Delitzsch—but it also radiates charity and admiration over the Jewish spirit and literature of the rabbinical periods. Thus we read, under "Education," that the schools of Tiberias and Jerusalem poured forth in the two Talmuds "a stream of varied learning unparalleled in history." Not satisfied with this eulogium, the writer quotes, apparently from an article in McClintock and Strong's 'Cyclopædia,' the following extraordinary statement: "The Talmud is an encyclopædia of all the sciences of that time, and shows that in many departments of science these Jewish teachers have anticipated modern discoveries." We would exclaim, "Credat Judæus!" were it not for the circumstance that the Talmud is best known to Jews. In this sad time of Rohlings and Stöckers, Jews may be delighted by learned defences of the Talmud like Delitzsch's, but glorifications of it based on hearsay or pan-theological sentimentality no more touch a chord in the Jewish heart than, for instance, the full statement, under "Egypt," how, by the ten plagues, "in order the following gods were mocked: (1) Osiris, the great god of the Nile, the sacred river; (2) Heki, the 'driver away of frogs'; (3) and (4) the fly gods; (5) the sacred ram worshipped at Thebes, and the sacred ox at Memphis and On," etc. To Jewish students, at least, the worldly science of the Talmud and the plagues of Egypt are of little account. May our readers pardon this digression.

Lectures on Art, Delivered in support of the Society for the Protection of Ancient Buildings. By Reginald Stuart Poole, Prof. W. B. Richmond, E. J. Poynter, J. T. Micklethwaite, and William Morris. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

THE gentlemen whose lectures make up this attractive volume are all men of distinguished attainments as artists or special students of art, and the lectures themselves will repay attentive perusal. The introductory discourse, by Mr. Poole, keeper of coins in the British Museum, treats of the Egyptian tomb and the Egyptian idea of the future state. The architecture and art of the ancient Egyptians were, as he points out, so intimately associated with their religious beliefs, and especially with that concerning a future state, that they cannot be understood independently. The construction and decoration of the tomb are carefully examined, and the manner in which these have resulted from the peculiar religious beliefs is explained. A fact of startling significance to students of archæology, to which Mr. Poole calls attention, is that whereas the paintings of these Egyptian tombs were preserved essentially intact from remote antiquity till within the past thirty years, they have now nearly perished—owing largely to the indiscretion and violence of explorers and travellers.

Professor Richmond's lecture is on monumental painting. In the course of his remarks, we think he draws the line somewhat too sharply between monumental and decorative painting, as if they were two distinct classes of art. We conceive, on the contrary, that all good monumental art has a strictly decorative basis. The frescoes at Assisi, for instance, illustrate this; they illumi-

nate the walls and roofs precisely as the ornamental devices of the mediæval scribes do the pages of a missal. It is the same with all the great frescoes of the Italian schools, even with those of Correggio at Parma. The decorative element does not disappear till the decline of painting, under the late Renaissance. Much might be said on this point did our space allow. We cannot, however, do more than to add that, in our judgment, the decorative element, when rightly understood, is an integral part of all good painting whatever. That is to say, any picture, however realistic, and whether associated with architecture or not, ought to be so designed as to present an arrangement of lines, lights and shades, or color masses, which shall be agreeable to the eye, even when no regard is had to anything else. All narrative, didactic, or other expressional motive must be based upon this as a primal scheme, or else we shall not have a work of art in the truest sense.

Mr. Richmond (pp. 29, 30) calls attention to the methodical, deliberate, and precise nature of Italian painting; and he argues that the chaste and severe character of Italian design in fresco is owing to the peculiar nature of the fresco process. This last we take to be not wholly true, for chasteness and severity of design are constant in all early and central Italian art, whether in fresco or tempera; and they are equally constant in the architecture and sculpture. These qualities have their origin in the Italian genius rather than in the peculiarities of any technical process. The fact is noted that the excellence of Italian art is largely due to the close connection which was maintained between architecture, sculpture, and painting—the three being very commonly practised by the same person—and that this association of the arts is necessary to the normal development of each. He touches, too, upon a point of much importance respecting the nature of Masaccio's combined realism and classic design, and remarks truly (p. 51) that this master shows "what true realistic painting may be without loss of dignity." There has been a great deal of confused thought and teaching about the idealization of form in Italian design as derived from the example of the Greeks. But in truth there was nothing of the kind in the early and central schools of Italy. The Italians possessed, by native inheritance and tradition, instincts of design akin to those of the Greeks; but they studied and represented nature as they found it, incorporating into beautiful compositions forms which often (as in the case of Masaccio's works) were positively ugly when considered by themselves as types of beauty. It was not until the true life of art was dying in Italy that artists began to idealize form in the common sense of the term.

The third lecture, by Mr. E. J. Poynter, appears to us the least instructive of the series. His subject is ancient decorative art, but he gives very little information; the larger part of the discourse being devoted to a conjectural consideration of the character of Greek painting. In the absence of all remains whereby to form a clear conception, Mr. Poynter infers this and that about Greek painting. His inferences seem sometimes plausible, it is true, as where, concerning the art of Polygnotus, he judges that since the sculptures of the pediments of Ægina were executed just before the time when this master exercised his talents, his outlines would probably be at least as perfect as theirs. But this and kindred argument, belonging to the domain of curious speculation, are not what we want as the substance of a lecture on ancient decorative art.

Mr. Micklethwaite treats of the development of English parish churches from the monastic plan, introduced by the Italian missionaries, and the secular, which was a continuation of the British type. In the course of his remarks he says some very good things about restoration, and about the fallacy of the idea that the original style of a church which has been altered according to the successive wants of the people for perhaps a thousand years, can always be determined, or is worth restoring by the sacrifice of all these historic accumulations and associations.

The fifth and sixth lectures are by Mr. William Morris. The first of these is on "The History of Pattern Designing," and the second on "The Lesser Arts of Life." Both are mainly characterized by the general good sense with which Mr. Morris always expresses himself. In the early part of the first lecture (p. 139) he disconnects ancient from mediæval art rather too absolutely, in our opinion; and we are not quite sure whether by the remark on p. 142, that the realistic tendency of Assyrian art, "had it lived longer, would most likely have driven it out of the path of monumental and decorative art," he means to affirm that a realistic character in art is necessarily inconsistent with what is monumental and decorative. We could not agree with such an idea so long as the Parthenon sculptures and Tintoret's Crucifixion and many other such examples are before our minds. The important fact that the lesser arts cannot be separated from the greater—that they always depend upon the greater—is clearly and well stated, and this statement may be useful to those who suppose that the art which concerns itself with beautifying the products of industry is essentially different from higher art, and may be cultivated by different means. Mr. Morris argues forcibly in favor of that true art cultivation for artisans which will make them happy in the consciousness of ability to produce what is really beautiful—a cultivation which can result only from training of the perceptions and tastes without any direct reference to utilitarian ends.

Dorothea Scott. Oxford : Parkers. 1882.

THIS monograph of twenty-eight pages, printed for private circulation, was prepared by Mr. G. D. Scull, an Anglo-American who has already done good service by his volume on 'The Evelyns in America,' noticed in these columns. Mr. Scull has made a special study of the relations between our early English visitors and settlers and the mother country, and among the family papers of some old English country homes he has found much valuable original material throwing light on persons of note in both countries. Wooton supplied him with curious details of successive generations of Evelyns who tried their fortunes on this side the Atlantic. The Journals of Col. Montresor, of the British Engineers, with the record of his services in this country in the old French War and in the Revolution, are being printed in the *Magazine* of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, from the originals in possession of the present representative of the family. Dorothea Scott has a more purely personal interest for Mr. Scull and his kinsfolk, for from the three elaborate pedigrees appended to his pamphlet she figures as the ancestress of the Sculls, Woods, Tysons, and other well-known Jersey and Pennsylvania Quaker families, and thus connects them with the Scotts, who trace their descent back to Henry III. and through a long line of royal and noble names. But for the general reader, Dorothea Scott's story is a curious bit of domestic grief, well worth studying as illustrative of her time.

She was the youngest daughter of a Scott, of Egerton, and his wife, a Knatchbull, whose present representative, now Lord Brabourne, is well known for his share in English politics and literature. She was born in 1611, and was heiress in her own right of an estate in Kent of £500 a year; and having first married a Major Daniel Gotherson, who died in 1666, she afterwards married a man named Hogben. Before 1660 she and Gotherson joined the Society of Friends, and her meeting went under the name of Scott's Congregation, from her success as a preacher. About 1662, at Whitehall, in the presence of the King, she met a John Scott who claimed relationship and made good use of her credulity. She and her husband paid him large sums of money for lands in Long Island, and made him their agent for the purchase of still larger tracts which he said he had bought on their account directly from the Indians. About 1667 she undertook, through Governor Lovelace, to get at the truth, and promised, in case of a favorable report from him, to "goe over to New Yorke and carry an hundred and twenty families with her to the great advantage of ye Place"; but Lovelace and his brother could find no trace of any lands belonging to Scott or to her. Worse still, she had intrusted to Scott her only son, under promise of preferment and of advancing his fortune, and Lovelace found that Scott had sold the lad to an innkeeper at New Haven, from whom he was redeemed by the payment of seven pounds. Her petition to the King, that Lovelace should be ordered to examine her claim, was referred to the Duke of York, as the Chief Proprietary of New York, and by him to our old friend Samuel Pepys, then Secretary of the Admiralty, to collect evidence against Scott.

It is owing to the careful, business-like solicitude of Pepys that the few writings touching Dorothea Scott's case were preserved, and it was out of his zeal for the establishment of her claim that Pepys fell under the machination of John Scott, and was long put to trouble and vexation before he could effectually clear himself from the aspersions cast upon him by that unscrupulous and plotting adventurer. Pepys set to work with characteristic thoroughness, and brought together a great number of depositions and informations as to Scott's dishonest proceedings in New England, Long Island, Barbadoes, France, Holland, and England. He reported that Scott had sold the Gothersons (Dorothea Scott and her husband) 20,000 acres of land in Long Island, although he did not own a foot there; he made the Gothersons pay large sums for timber to build houses on their land; he even got poor Dorothea's jewels, and showed them, among others, to "Col. Lewis Morris, an eminent planter and great Quaker in Barbadoes," who bought £200 of his Long Island perpetuities or leases for 999 years.

Scott declared that he would be revenged upon Pepys, and, to this end, joined a band of desperate malcontents, among them the notorious Dr. Titus Oates, and hatched a conspiracy against the Government as well as against Pepys. They accused him of being a Papist and keeping a priest in his house, and alleged that Sir Anthony Deane (a famous shipbuilder for the Government) and himself were friendly to the King of France, and treasonably furnished him with secret information as to the strength of the navy. Other charges were made against Pepys in Parliament, and a discharged servant was induced to commit perjury to sustain the charges. Pepys was seized and committed to the Tower; bail was for some time refused, but at last he was allowed his liberty on giving security in £30,000. It was eight months before the case came on for trial; in the meantime the servant confessed his perjuries on his death-bed. Pepys sent queries to Dorothea Scott, who again recounted her grievances at the hands of her rascally kinsman, adding that her old family jewels were worn by the wife of the man who had cheated her out of them, for Scott, in one

of his visits to New York, had married Deborah, daughter of Joseph Rayner, of Southampton, Long Island. Poor Pepys was long cut off from the King's friendship for his share of the business, but finally established the truth of his charges against Scott and his own innocence.

In 1680, Dorothea Scott and her family came to Long Island, no doubt to secure a grant of land as compensation for her losses. Her youngest daughter married a Welsh emigrant, John Davis—one of the sect called "Singing Quakers"—who lived at Oyster Bay, on Long Island, and, as his name appears on the assessor's list for 1683 rated at £40 per annum, presumably a man of substance. In 1705, he followed his sons to Salem County, New Jersey, and from them the blood of Dorothea Scott, the representative of kings of England and Scotland, runs in the veins of the Quakers of that peaceful region. A more creditable kinsman was Richard Scott, one of the earliest settlers of Rhode Island, and a sturdy Quaker, whose wife wrote a strong letter of remonstrance to Governor John Winthrop, protesting against those whom "the world in scorne calls quaikers."

Of John Scott's subsequent fate little is known, and although Mr. Scull has not told that little in this sketch of his ancestress, he has in preparation a full memoir of that knavish agent, for the New York Historical Society, and it is satisfactory to learn that the arch-scamp had at least to seek safety in exile in Norway—the Alsatia of the English rogues of the seventeenth century—and that only in his extreme old age was he again allowed to enjoy a small pension and to return home to die. How far poor Dorothea's only son profited by his harsh experience in being sold to service is nowhere told, although Lovelace in his report says that he "putt him to school in New Yorke, where hee much improved himselfe." The whole story is of interest in itself, and of value as showing what side-lights are thrown on contemporary history in the pursuit of genealogical researches.

The Still-Hunter. By Theodore S. Van Dyke. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

It is a good sign of the increasing intelligent interest taken in field-sports in this country that the literature on the subject is being thought worthy the efforts of men who know what they write about, and are able to express their ideas in a clear and interesting manner. Mr. Van Dyke's book on still-hunting shows that he has carefully and lovingly studied the art (for art it is), and his minute and exhaustive instructions, derived from personal experience, cannot but be as instructive to those trying to surmount the difficulties of still-hunting for deer, as they are interesting to all who have but a general and undeveloped taste for wood-life and the chase. The man who goes to the Adirondack lakes in July and August, and shoots a deer stupefied by the light of a jack at ten yards' distance, or held by the tail in the water by his partner in crime, the guide, may perhaps feel, after reading fifty pages of this book, that he is not the true sportsman his fancy has led him to think, and that rectitude and skill in deer-shooting are as difficult to live up to and acquire as almost any of the graces and arts of life. Mr. Van Dyke's book is almost wholly one of instruction; and to those whose idea of a "still-hunt" is largely indebted to the rather vague recent use of the term in a political sense, it will prove a revelation.

Still-hunting is, beyond doubt, the most scientific of all sports, especially in a country where deer have been much shot at; and at the same time, when followed by an expert, it is the most certain in its results. Mr. Van Dyke assumes that his reader is a tyro, and takes him along from the first to the ninth chapter before his education in woodcraft and venery suffices to get him a shot at the game, though it is plentiful on the ground he travels over. These nine chapters are all of great interest, and admirably ordered. The first great difficulty in still-hunting is to get a sight of a deer at all. When you have overcome that, the second one presents itself, which is to see the animal near enough to shoot at it. The rolling, wooded country into which Mr. Van Dyke takes us is the most favorable for still-hunting, and now, "after several days of blighted hopes have passed over your head, on some of which you have seen nothing but tracks and occasional long jumps, and on others only a tail or two glimmering out of sight in the dark depths of timber or over a ridge," he allows you experience enough to bring you within shot of a deer. She (for it is a doe) first appears on

"a ridge a hundred and fifty yards away, just dimly visible through the cloud of twigs and branches of intervening trees. It can hardly be a deer; it looks small and dark, and lacks all that graceful outline of the deer engraved on the lock-plate of your gun. Its head, too, is low down, and projecting like that of a long-necked goat, while its nether extremity looks awkwardly angular, like that of a cow."

The fidelity of this description can be proved by any one who has had the rare pleasure of watching a doe strolling leisurely through the woods. She comes on within thirty yards of the hunter, he bleats to stop her, and

"Presto! what a change! at the sound the awkward-looking thing is resolved, as by the stroke of an enchanter's wand, into all the grace and symmetry of the artist's deer. It stands in the light of the rising sun with sleek and shiny coat, rotund with fatness; its dark eyes are turned inquiringly toward you; its delicate ears are turned forward to catch the slightest sound."

The doe is shot at, and missed through being too sure, but an hour or two later another chance occurs, and the first deer is killed.

Fifteen more very interesting chapters are devoted to hunting under almost every conceivable condition of locality, weather, and habits of the game, which vary wonderfully, according to their surroundings. Then follow nine chapters devoted almost entirely to the rifle, showing as much close study, research, and rhetorical clearness as those preceding; and a concluding one on "moccasins, buckskin, etc."—the "etc." being a few pages of most excellent advice and hints—finishes altogether the best and most complete American book we have yet seen on any branch of field-sports. We hope Mr. Van Dyke will not consider us invidious in alluding to one error of belief he labors under, when he states, on page 25, that he "has never known a deer to eat what is known as 'dry feed'—to wit, sun-dried grass." We have seen in Michigan, in October, a small stack of wild hay much plucked out and eaten by deer, and in the winter, along certain logging-roads, deer are certain to come out of the swamps and eat the "tame hay" which has fallen from the loads going through to the lumbering camps.

The Home Needle. By Ella Rodman Church.—*Home Occupations.* By Janet E. Ruutz-Rees. D. Appleton & Co.

To our thinking no one of the series of "Home Books" is so much to be commended as either of the two before us. The first is an intelligible and simple manual from which to learn all the kinds of sewing which are essential to make a family comfortable and a home attractive. Not dress-making only, but the house-linen and the mending-basket receive due attention. The sensible comments scattered through it are a needed corrective for the mistaken notion, unhappily gaining ground, that the sewing-machine is to supplant the old "home needle." Undoubtedly, it lessens the number of hours to be spent over long seams, but no machine can *finish*, and, besides, machine sewing is only too apt to make the worker careless and slack about the finishing. Every woman should know practically how to sew, if for no other purpose than to gain a rational idea of what should be expected of seamstresses and such work-people.

'Home Occupations' brings a refreshing memory of an older time when it was permissible to enjoy a thing because it was pretty, without painful questionings as to sincerity or high art. "The Possibilities of Tissue Paper," and "What Can be Done with Beads," may be suggestions horrifying to those initiated in the mysteries of current taste, but the craze for ceramics and crewels implies well-filled purses, while bright leaves and nutshells are to be had for the seeking, and there are plain folk, and gentle folk withal, who can find much pleasure in the dainty and inexpensive devices with which the book is filled.

The writer has very successfully carried out her purpose, which was, not to suggest definite plans or rules for regular employment, but to find pleasant ways of filling hours not spent in the active pursuit either of business or amusement. With all our ever-increasing desire to acquire "accomplishments," there must be a great many persons who never attain excellence either in music or painting, while there are others to whom the leisure for such employments comes too late in life for them ever to gain technical skill. To all such the making of pretty things which need only patience and natural cleverness is a delightful resource, and this book to them will be most helpful. Two chapters might easily lead to actual scientific study. From "The Preservation of Flowers, Grasses, and Seaweeds" to the study of their structure and habits is but a step. (May we add in passing that botany is the one natural science which no girl should fail to study? Of nothing is it more true that the delight of youth will be the solace of age.) "Amateur Photography" is almost sure to teach something of chemistry, and to develop somewhat of artistic taste. It is strange we have been so long in coming to it. It is five and twenty years since "Claude Mellot" undertook it, in Kingsley's 'Two Years Ago.' One use of it does not appear to have occurred to the writer, though it is as simple as it is valuable—the copying of prints or drawings not otherwise to be obtained. There lies before us a photograph of a map of the Scotch lakes taken ten years ago from a then rare book. A large class in a high school who were reading the "Lady of the Lake" were supplied with copies that cost practically nothing.

Beowulf, an Anglo-Saxon Poem; and the Fight at Finnsburg. Translated by James M. Garnett, M.A., L.L.D. Pp., xl.-107. Boston: Ginn & Heath. 1882.

A few months ago we had the pleasure of noting the appearance of Professor Harrison's edition of the 'Beowulf' text. Before the end of the year Professor Garnett surprised us with his modern rendering of the noble old poem. That there was need of such a version no one will hesitate to admit. Kemble's rendering, made in 1837, was not only out of print and excessively rare, but even when procurable could be of little service, being based on an antiquated text. Colonel Lumsden's rhyming version, published in 1881, might enable the general reader to form a tolerable estimate of the more striking literary features of the poem, but to the genuine student of Anglo-Saxon could be little more than a

stumbling-block. It was faulty in plan and careless in execution, whereas the present work is evidently the ripe fruit of genuine scholarship. A glance at the introduction alone, irrespective of the translation, will make this clear. Pages xxiii.-xxviii. contain the fullest bibliography that has ever yet been prepared on the subject. It supersedes the work of all previous editors, German or English.

Professor Garnett's general remarks and criticisms are also admirable. As to the translation itself, we have not merely read it with great satisfaction, but have examined two test passages with all possible care. The first is the description of Beowulf's fight with Grendel (pp. 22-26); the second is the narrative of the robbing of the dragon's cave (pp. 67-71). The fight with Grendel is one of the easiest to read in the entire poem, and on that account probably all the harder to render. It is unquestionably the most graphic bit of alliterative verse in Germanic literature. We do not say that Professor Garnett has reproduced all the directness and fire of the original: our modern speech is not adequate to the task. But we do judge that within the limits of a line-for-line and word-for-word rendering the translator has had remarkable success. He has felt the sustained power and dignity of the original, and imparts a just sense thereof to his readers. The second passage is difficult for a very different reason. It is one of those tangled, obscure preambles which are the sorest test of one's patience. The MS. is wofully corrupt. Grein, Heyne, and other editors, by dint of conjectural restorations that seem akin to inspiration, have succeeded in making sense out of broken letters and ugly *lacunæ*. The translator has toiled painfully in their footsteps and smoothed down the path still more. No one, we venture to say, will have the first conception of such efforts unless he put Grein's or Heyne's text by the side of this English, and then compare them all with Wülcker's reprint of the MS. in his new edition of Grein's 'Bibliothek.' It is like stepping back from daylight into "chaos and old night."

We have no space here for the minutiæ of criticism, although we have noted several words and phrases for correction. Such corrections belong in a technical journal of philology. We prefer to dwell upon the general merits of the rendering, and to congratulate American scholarship upon having at last achieved in our speech of today a thoroughly honest and intelligible reproduction of our earliest great poem. If the translator has erred at all, it has been in the direction of too great literalness. By occasionally sacrificing the Anglo-Saxon construction, and using more freely words of Latin origin, he would, we believe, have made his lines smoother and their meaning more obvious. But the point is a debatable one, and we do not offer it as more than a suggestion. At any rate, whoever, philologist or not, will use Professor Garnett's translation faithfully, will find in it the best possible aid to his own understanding or interpretation of an unusually difficult subject.

Early New England People: Some Account of the Ellis, Pemberton, Willard, Prescott, Titcomb, Sewall and Longfellow, and allied Families. By Sarah Elizabeth Titcomb. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth. 1882.

To work out from one's family as a centre, and gratify one's curiosity by tracing more or less fully its connections by blood and marriage, is a natural impulse for the genealogist, especially the neophyte. To publish a selection from such a correlated group of ancestors, especially if there be plenty of talent and distinction to adorn it, would also seem natural, and this is what Miss Titcomb has done, though we do not now recall another instance. The names mentioned in the title are a guarantee of the widespread interest which the volume before us possesses; but we can add Sir Wm. Pepperell, Judge Haliburton, Robert Treat Paine, Gen. Return Jonathan Meigs, Margaret Fuller, Harriet Prescott Spofford, Harriet Hosmer, the Evarts and Hoar families, Gen. Wm. F. Bartlett, and many others. There is no lack of romance, particularly in the case of the Ellises; and some of the biographical sketches of the elder worthies have for non-scholarly readers an obvious convenience and value. The great drawback, however, to the usefulness of the work arises from the author's want of literary dexterity and her defective chronological sense, which last, quite as much, perhaps, as inexperience in book-making, has prevented a clear arrangement. The employment of different kinds and sizes of type and of the conventional genealogical enumeration would have brought out in relief the relationships which it is the author's object to display, and which a skeleton chart would still further have elucidated. It must be said, also, that authorities are rather loosely cited, and that the general pedigrees inspire more distrust than perhaps, with the counsel and assistance at Miss Titcomb's command, they deserve. The book is handsomely printed.

The Iliad of Homer, done into English Prose by Andrew Lang, M.A., Walter Leaf, M.A., and Ernest Myers, M.A. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

BUTCHER and Lang's translation of the Odyssey has been generally recognized as an excellent work. It has been widely recommended by Homeric scholars, and most readers have been delighted with it. Now we have a translation of the Iliad done on the same plan and in part by one of the same persons. If it does not attain the same popularity, the chief reason, we presume, will be the different nature of the poem, which is not perhaps so well represented in this smooth, evenly-flowing prose as the more quiet narrative of the Odyssey. Besides, the version is not quite so successful as in the former case, though the difference is not very great. The slight affectation of archaism in language which in the Odyssey offended some critics, is somewhat increased in this new volume, and there are passages here and there in which, to a careful and loving student of the poem, the present translators will seem to have missed the connection of thought or the point of some special word. Still, we are thankful to have the general impression of the poem thus faithfully reproduced for the many readers who have not time for the study of the original. We cannot help also being glad that the opinion of the two new translators prevailed so far as to introduce *k* and *os* instead of *c* and *us* in the spelling of proper names (though Olymp*us* and *C*orinth are admitted). The wide circulation which this book deserves and will obtain will do a great deal to familiarize people outside of scholarly circles with these forms, which will certainly, we think, in time prevail over the Latinized forms that have been so long in use. Mr. Myers's introductory sonnet deserves notice as a fit companion to that which Mr. Lang prefixed to the Odyssey.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Thoms, J. A. A Complete Concordance of the Revised Version of the New Testament. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2 50.
Thorold, A. W. The Claim of Christ on the Young. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 90 cents.
Townsend, L. T. Bible Theology and Modern Thought. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 50.
Trimble, Esther J. A Hand-book of English and American Literature, for Schools and Academies. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. $1 50.
Tyrrell, R. Y. Dublin Translations into Greek and Latin Verse. Dublin: Hodges, Figgis & Co.
Vinton, J. A. The Richardson Memorial: Full History and Genealogy of the Posterity of Three Brothers—Ezekiel, Samuel, and Thomas Richardson. Portland: Hoyt, Fogg & Donham.
Whitelaw, R. Sophocles, Translated into English Verse. London: Rivingtons; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.
Whist, or Bumblepuppy? Ten Lectures Addressed to Children. Boston: Roberts Bros.

Henry Holt & Co.

HAVE READY:

Evolution and Christianity.

By J. F. Yorke. 12mo, $1 50.

An attempt to point out the bearing of Evolution upon Religion, and especially upon Christianity.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 15, 1883.

The Week.

THERE is an effort made by the advocates of protection to cry down Mr. Lamar's speech in the Senate against the protective system, as the utterance of a man who was always given to wild fancies, and who has many times in the past misled the people of the South, greatly to their own detriment. This will not do. There is no public man of prominence in the South to whom such a description would be more unjust than to Mr. Lamar. It is true that in his younger days he was swept along by the whirl of the secession movement. But when the war was over, no Southern man recognized the new order of things more promptly and justly, and no one used the voice of peace and reconciliation more impressively than he. He did this, too, although representing one of the most hot-headed and turbulent of Southern constituencies. Neither should it be forgotten that when the seductive cry of cheap paper money rang all over the South, and when the silver craze had reached its highest mark, Mr. Lamar had the moral courage to throw himself against the prejudices and follies of those who had sent him to Congress, and to defend the cause of sound money at the imminent peril of losing his place in public life. With such a record of self-sacrificing fidelity to his convictions, Mr. Lamar may claim that respect for his utterances which established character and ability command.

While a great part of his argument against protection as a system is not novel in character, and in the nature of the case could not be—for it is a well-worn subject—he sets forth two ideas with peculiar force, which deserve the most earnest reflection on the part of the American people. One is, that this is probably the only country in the world whose people have been severely and superfluously taxed for a series of years because their rulers were unable to devise a mode of reducing taxation, for the simple reason that the taxes were not imposed for the one legitimate purpose of raising revenue, but for the purpose of paying bounties to certain business interests. We present, therefore, the curious spectacle of a people complaining of excessive taxation, possessing also the supreme power, through their representatives, to do with taxation what they please, but vainly struggling to get rid of the burden because it conceals and disguises itself in a variety of specious pretences. How true this is, and how pitiable is the exhibition, the debates in Congress demonstrate every day. The other leading thought in Mr. Lamar's speech is, that the protective system has brought forth a vast organization of capital and labor which professes to be dependent for existence not upon the natural development of resources and the natural growth of industries, but upon taxation by the Government: "two thousand millions of capital and millions of people—the one for profit, the other for bread and butter—depend upon an aye-and-no vote of the Government." And after a high tariff of twenty years' duration, the industries so propped up profess to be in a state of embarrassment, tottering on the verge of disaster, their respective representatives declaring on oath that if the duty affecting them be reduced their business will be destroyed. It needs no further argument to show that such a condition of things is, in the long run, intolerable and untenable, especially in a country with free institutions.

Heavy snows and extreme cold weather throughout the Northwest, and heavy rains and floods in the Ohio Valley, have seriously interfered with all traffic and industry during the past week. Thus far the damage from the floods has not been so great as might have been apprehended, but their full effects have not yet been felt. The decrease of traffic and railway business in the Northwest on account of snows is largely only a delay of business that will yet have to be done with the advent of better weather; but the delay has been very trying to the Western merchants, who have sold few goods and collected but little money. This delay in so important a portion of the commercial area has affected business generally. In financial affairs there has been a tendency toward stagnation in the money market. There are large amounts awaiting some profitable employment, and the endeavor to find some temporary use for this has depressed the rate for call loans on stock collaterals as low as two per cent. The difficulty of finding any profitable employment for money is reflected in the small amount of bonds presented for redemption at the United States Treasury. The collections of the Treasury have also been largely in excess of its disbursements; the Sub-Treasury in New York gaining about $2,000,000. This has drawn some money out of the banks, the weekly statement of which on Saturday last showed a decrease of $438,300 in the average amount of their total reserve for the week as compared with the previous week. Foreign exchange has remained comparatively firm, notwithstanding the fact that in the last four months the value of our exports has exceeded the value of our imports by about $100,000,000. If we deduct from this a reasonable amount for the annual interest and dividends that would be due and payable to foreign holders of American stocks and securities in January, it would still leave a large amount, which would naturally be expected to depress the price of exchange to the gold-importing point. But it is apparent that we must have been receiving something else that has offset the large balance in our favor on the exchange of commodities alone, and it is to be presumed that this something else has been, to a considerable extent, American railroad stocks. It is possible that this has been one of the factors in keeping the stock market in the feverish, depressed condition which has prevailed for the past month. There seems, however, to be a better tone in the stock market than a week or two weeks ago, and though the changes in prices in the last ten days have not been large in either direction, there seems to be a growing feeling that they are about at the lowest.

The Boston *Advertiser* says, apropos of the leasing of the Mutual Union Telegraph lines by the Western Union, "that it might not be strictly accurate to say that the former company was organized for the purpose of being sold out to the latter, but it is quite true that the result was inevitable from the beginning," and that "there is no better or safer business in the country than starting rivals to the Western Union Telegraph Company." We believe the history of the Western Union would go far to justify this statement. A large proportion of the growth of its stock has been due to the absorption of rival companies, started for the express purpose of being absorbed; and starting them has been found a very profitable enterprise for the promoters. Of course, in order to make them rivals worth buying up, the public has to be persuaded that they are set on foot by a band of determined men who are disgusted with the monopoly of the Western Union, and propose to relieve the American people from it. This always excites the sympathy of a warm-hearted and sanguine people, especially if accompanied by low rates, and it soon gives its business to these enemies of monopoly, to enable them to drive hard bargains with the monopolists and sell themselves at a highly remunerative figure. There is something very ingenious in this method of making the monopolists themselves pay the cost of occasional attacks on them in their strongholds. Of course, it is a kind of business that cannot be carried on indefinitely. We are evidently approaching a period in which the absorbing powers of the Western Union and the gullibility of the public will be exhausted, without bettering the condition of those who use the telegraph. And yet something must be done to deliver us from exclusive dependence on the telegraph of one great corporation. We say this without meaning to find any fault with the way the Western Union does its business; but we do say that no corporation, however well managed, is fit to be intrusted with the telegraphic business of a whole nation. The public interest requires that such work should be done either by competing companies, or by an organization like the Post-office, which is controlled by public opinion. The objection to giving the work to the Post-office is, that it would increase the patronage of the party in power for the time being, already far too great. We have yet to see whether the Civil-Service Reform Act will lessen the weight of this objection, and, if so, to what extent.

In the meantime, there is another remedy which has not been sufficiently considered—that the railroad companies, many of whom are already chartered as railroad and telegraph companies—should do not only their own telegraph business, but also that of the public,

which they could do with comparatively little expense. The Reading Railroad Company has already adopted this course, and the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company has a line from Chicago to the seaboard east, and should it be followed by the larger Western railroad companies, a very strong opposing interest would be created which could not readily be bought out. To-day the Western Union depends very largely upon contracts with such railroad companies which will in course of time run out by limitation or otherwise be broken up. Of the capital and debt of the Western Union a very large percentage to-day consists in contracts with the railroads and in the good-will of its business, and a very small percentage in actual capital put in. This has probably been the chief element of its weakness in the market, where competition with the smaller telegraph companies and the litigation growing out of it have only been minor symptoms. There is no good reason why railroad companies should not do the telegraph business for the public, and also the express business—both now going over to middlemen, much to the detriment of both the railroads and the public.

Among the wise vetoes of Governor Cornell was one which Governor Cleveland is likely to have a chance to repeat. It related to a bill speciously entitled "to secure to inmates of institutions for the care of the poor freedom of worship," etc., but the purpose and the effect of which were to introduce sectarian distinctions in these public establishments. The bill, which is again before the Legislature, provides that the institutions shall be open to the visits of clergymen of the several denominations to which the inmates belong, or, if they are infants, to which their parents belong, and that facilities shall be afforded for denominational services, as well as for these visits. If this scheme should prevail, the House of Refuge—which is understood to be the object chiefly aimed at by the promoters of the measure—would be divided into little sectarian groups. The Baptists and the Methodists would have their days, the Presbyterians and the Unitarians would be set apart in their respective corners, while the Roman Catholics would be found in one room, and the Protestant Episcopalians in another. But we could not reasonably stop with these familiar branches of the Christian Church. If an unthrifty Parsee should neglect his children so that they should fall within the control of the Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents, the devout parent would have the right to demand—indeed, the managers would be bound, without any demand, to furnish—facilities for the exposition and practice of fire-worship. It is necessary only to state the case to show how disastrous such a situation would be to order and discipline. Governor Cornell very truly said in his veto message that "charitable support or correction," and not religious instruction, is what the inmates are primarily brought together for; that while freedom of worship is a guaranteed and cherished right, it "presupposes certain conditions," among which is "the ability of independent or self-maintenance"; and that "provision for religious worship must depend upon circumstances peculiar to each case." We understand that the provision made in the House of Refuge is purely unsectarian, and so general as to adapt itself to all denominations, while Jewish rabbis, Catholic priests, or so-called evangelical ministers are at liberty to take part in the simple services. The managers, in a protest against the measure, object that a parent "who has lost the right of control over his child because of its conviction and imprisonment for crime" should not be allowed to dictate a form of worship to the prison; and they say that the bill ought to be entitled "to compel juvenile delinquents to conform to the supposed sectarian observances of parents who have neglected their natural duties." This is a terse summary of an argument that should be conclusive with the legislative committee which has the bill under consideration.

The exposure of the lobbying operations in General Hazen's interest, made by Mr. Beltzhoover in the House on Thursday, shows that the officers of the Signal Corps undertook last winter a systematic and comprehensive scheme of lobbying to gain support for and secure the passage of a bill introduced last session, called "The Majors' and Captains' Bill," which provided for the addition of three majors, twelve captains, and twelve first lieutenants to the Signal Corps, for the regulation of appointments and promotions, and for other details tending to consolidate the Corps and establish it on a permanent foundation in connection with the Army. The evidence is documentary, consisting of letters written by the officers interested in the bill, which show that, to get up a "boom," the usual lobby devices were resorted to—editors aldermen, and chambers of commerce being stimulated into action which was made to seem "spontaneous." The case is a bad one, but it must be said in defence of General Hazen that to convince Congress of the necessity of passing bills where the Executive has no direct means of influencing legislation, there is no way but "lobbying" of some kind.

The celebration of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of Georgia, which began on Monday at Savannah, would be interesting merely as the commemoration of an historical event, but is far more so from the fact that during the latter part of the third half-century since her birth Georgia has undergone what might be described as a second birth. In no part of the South were the results of the war more promptly and heartily acquiesced in. Nowhere were more intelligent and earnest efforts made to repair its material waste. Nowhere have the people more successfully adapted themselves to the new order of things, and nowhere are the signs of an awakening of the commercial and industrial energies more abundant and gratifying. Perhaps it would not be extravagant to say that Georgia has done more to develop the resources which are the foundation of a great State during the last eighteen years than in all the remainder of the one hundred and fifty years which she is now celebrating.

A number of Stalwarts, calling themselves the "Lincoln Club," had their twelfth annual dinner on Monday night, many of the leading lights being present, including "Sol" Smith, "Jake" Hess, "Johnny" O'Brien, "Tom" Platt, and others less known to fame, and the chaplain of the party, the Rev. Dr. Newman. We have read the report with much interest, expecting that some of the speakers would reveal that long-kept secret, what a Stalwart is and wishes; but the matter was carefully avoided by all except Tom Platt. He made what was evidently intended to be a biting, sarcastic speech, showing that Tom feels sore and thinks the times are out of joint, and that the country is going to the dogs, just like the literary pessimists. His revelations, however, were deprived of nearly all value by their being thrown into a negative form. He did not tell us what Stalwarts believe, but what they do not believe. He, for his part, did not believe in Republicans electing Democrats to office, or in such reforms as the newspapers are now advocating, or in such Republicanism as they are now teaching, and, becoming facetious, he added that if this be the heaven they had been preaching, he felt like the little girl who wanted to go to hell on Saturday afternoons to have a good time. Tom's humor, though a little profane, is not bad on the whole, but it will not take the place of exposition. He must some day describe to us *his* heaven and that of his friends. At present the public does not think it a very nice sort of place. The Rev. Dr. Newman struck a cruel blow at Darwin and the evolutionists by remarking that he preferred finding his ancestors in the Garden of Eden to finding them in a zoölogical garden.

There is a great deal of trouble in the Methodist Church over the Isabella silver mine, which was originally "endorsed" by the *Christian Advocate*, the official organ of the Church, and now turns out, to say the least, to be of doubtful value. The *Herald* publishes interviews with one or two high Church authorities which show that they take a very singular view of the responsibility of the Church in the matter. Bishop Harris says: "I do not think it is right or just to saddle the Isabella mine transactions upon the Methodist Church." The *Advocate*, he continued, "is the official organ of the Church in the sense that it is published by authority of the Church's legislative body, the General Conference, which chooses the editors, and which can remove them, too—and does sometimes," added the Bishop, with emphasis, "if it is dissatisfied with their course. But neither the General Conference nor the Church is responsible for the editorial utterances of the *Advocate*. This has been called a Methodist mine, but I think very unfairly. It has no more connection with the Methodist Church than a burglary would have if committed by a member of the same church." Mr. Phillips, of the Methodist Book Concern, goes beyond this, and insists that Dr. Fowler and Dr. De Puy were "free agents in such a case as this." Now, what is charged is that Drs. Fowler and De Puy, who were conducting the *Advocate*, and published an enthusiastic editorial on the mine, were, immediately before doing so, let in "on the ground floor," or, in other words, got their shares at half price in consideration of the article.

Whether this is true we do not know, but it shows clearly enough what trouble any church would be likely to get into if it took the view of such matters suggested by Dr. Harris and Mr. Phillips. The only reason why a puff of a silver mine appearing in a religious paper like the *Advocate* has any more weight with a church-member than any other puff, is that it is an "editorial utterance" made by men selected for the express purpose of giving advice by the Church. The only way that the Church can show that it is not responsible is by taking the severest measures when the puffing begins, and not waiting till there has been an exposure.

In the not very sweet-tempered controversy between Senator Ingalls and the Rev. Dr. Patton, the latter displays his immense superiority to his adversary in the rhetorical art, by expressing, in reply to the Senator's hope that he (Dr. Patton) may be damned eternally, his own hope that the Senator, "putting away all malice, evil speaking, bribery, and corrupt practices, may be finally welcomed to the glorious rewards of the eternal hereafter." If Mr. Ingalls had had the smallest experience of religious controversy, he would have known that its keenest weapon is a prayer, not that an opponent may suffer eternal punishment—which is simply a vulgar street oath—but that he may escape it—especially if uttered in a despairing tone. Dr. Patton has shown himself a complete master of this arm by surrounding his prayer with conditions which he evidently doubts much whether the Senator will ever be able to fulfil; but in this he may be disappointed.

Mr. Parnell's proposal that provision should be made for the payment by their constituents of the members of his party in Parliament, as a necessity of successful agitation, is another sign of the extent to which the representation of Ireland has passed, and is likely to pass, out of the hands of the landlord class, who have always hitherto held it, into that of poor men, more nearly connected with the peasantry. There is no doubt that it will hardly be possible to keep the kind of material of which the Home Rule party is composed in London without furnishing them with the means of support. Probably not one in a hundred of those whom any Home Rule constituency is at all likely to elect, has any private means. A considerable number of the Parnellites now in Parliament have had to support themselves in London, some by writing for the press, some by subsidies from the voters, and some nobody knows how. But, anyhow, their poverty has furnished their English colleagues with many a bitter jibe, which we may be sure has not contributed to the reconciliation of the two countries. But if the Nationalist members, when they come in in larger numbers, have to depend on contributions from the constituencies, the outlook is rather a blue one for the cause. The most liberal patriots get tired of voluntary contributions to any man's support, and we may be sure the prospect of a salary in London, for making the British lion howl at St. Stephen's, will tempt a good many men into public life whose doings and sayings will not glorify the Irish name.

Mr. Trevelyan, the Irish Secretary, has been making a speech in England which shows that he, too, is falling a victim to the pernicious atmosphere which seems to surround Irish official life. He has been justifying the prosecution and imprisonment of Healy, Davitt, Quinn, and others for press and platform offences, by alleging that their language prompts to crime. Now, the peculiarity of this is that it is the argument by which restrictions on speech and writing have been justified in every country in Europe, and which Englishmen have now been deriding for fifty years. Liberty of speech was denied to Frenchmen, Germans, and Italians during all the earlier part of this century, on the express ground that it would lead to disturbance. The modern doctrine, which we practise here, and which is practised in part in England, is that the less notice there is taken of violent language the more harmless it is. Another peculiarity of Mr. Trevelyan's position, as well as that of nearly all English men who go to Ireland to hold office, is that Irish experience apparently produces no effect on it whatever. Each Englishman when he takes up the Irish question treats it as if the particular experiment he was going to try upon Irishmen had never been tried before; the fact being that every means of bringing Ireland to reason, except good government, has been frequently tried. Press prosecutions as a means of making Irishmen behave themselves—that is, stop murdering landlords, bailiffs, and policemen, and getting up riots and outrages—have been tried for over a century, and have always ended simply in making the criminals more popular than before, and giving increased weight to their talk.

We called attention a fortnight ago to the Mallow election in Ireland, a small and corrupt borough hitherto held by the Liberals, in which the Liberal candidate had just been defeated, in spite of all exertions, by O'Brien, a Home Ruler, or Nationalist, without a cent in his pocket. We said that it was an extremely important event, as indicating beyond much doubt the sweeping of all the Irish Moderates and Liberals from Parliament at the next election, and the return of a powerful force of Home Rulers under Parnell's lead, and therefore as illustrating the shortsightedness of those English statesmen who fancy they are going to close the Irish question by the Land Act and the Repression Act. The last *Pall Mall Gazette* confirms this view in the following emphatic warning:

"This disappearance of Liberalism in the south of Ireland has been very confidently predicted by well-informed people for the last two years. It means, in plain English, that Mr. Parnell, or somebody more advanced than Mr. Parnell, will come back after the next general election with his contingent doubled or trebled. That possibility has long been present to all prudent politicians, as well as the decisive power which in a more nearly balanced state of English parties it would place in the hands of the Irish members. If in a couple of years we have a clean sweep of Liberals and moderate Home Rulers like Mr. Shaw, the two Blennerhassets, and the rest, we shall at last find ourselves face to face for the first time with a Nationalist majority from Ireland. Then, indeed, Lord Harrington will be able to say that the government of 5,000,000 people who live in Ireland presents problems by the side of which all our other problems together sink into insignificance. It would be easy enough, as everybody knows, to govern Ireland in a fashion if she sent no representatives to Parliament, and if our rule were non-constitutional. But, as it is, the principles of the English political system, to say nothing of the exigencies of our parties, make it certain that Irish opinion and the Irish members will be considered, and that attempts of all kinds and degrees will be made from time to time to conciliate them. We may all talk as loud as we please about refusing to go another inch, and taking care not to make Ireland a party question. But everybody with his eyes open knows that what we have just said is the simple and honest truth."

The Ministerial confusion in France continues. The various combinations through which M. Grévy is trying to get a new Ministry dissolve almost as rapidly as they are formed, and as they are simply combinations of persons of no political weight or significance, and with no support in the Chambers, they are not worth following. The crisis is one to which any parliamentary government is exposed, but which in England would be met by a dissolution. The Presidency of the Council would be given to some man of mark, and he would form a Cabinet, and, by dissolving Parliament, appeal to the country either to support it or to indicate what should take its place. M. Grévy cannot adopt this course without the consent of the Senate; but why he does not ask for this consent is one of the mysteries of the occasion. It is quite clear that with the present Chamber no strong Ministry is possible. Every fresh effort to patch up a Cabinet seems to carry the President lower down in the political strata. General Thibaudin, the latest Minister of War, is charged, we believe truly, with having surrendered and given his parole at Metz, and with having broken it and taken the field before being exchanged.

The French Senate, as was expected, has rejected the bill providing for the expulsion of the Princes, and, going further than this, has refused to agree to a compromise, offered by the Ministry, authorizing the President to expel the Princes by decree if their conduct should seem to him prejudicial to the safety of the state. In fact, the only thing the Senate is willing to do in the matter is to provide the punishment of banishment for any Prince found guilty of furthering pretensions dangerous to the state, but only after a trial before the Court of Assizes or the Senate. The result of all this is that the Ministry have resigned again. Of course, nobody cares about the resignation of the Ministry, but it seems as if it must carry M. Grévy and the Senate one step nearer to a dissolution. As far as can be gathered from the press, all the moderate opinion of France is growing steadily more hostile to the violent and exciting courses of the present Assembly, and especially to this last attempt to begin a policy of administrative or legislative proscription of individuals. There is no knowing where such a policy would stop, and it is therefore an alarming precedent. If the Princes may be punished without trial to-day because the majority does not like them, somebody or anybody else may be to-morrow; and, in a country of revolutions, every man with anything to lose is disposed to dread such weapons, no matter who may carry them.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 7, to TUESDAY, February 13, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Ohio River has been rising steadily, and on Monday the situation in Cincinnati became serious, the rise having exceeded 64 feet. The losses of property will amount to millions of dollars, and thousands of people have been made homeless. All the factories and houses in the streets nearest the river are flooded. All railroads but one running into the city have suspended business entirely. On Sunday the fires of the gas-works which supply both Cincinnati and Newport, Ky., were put out by the flood, and the city has been obliged to depend on lamps and a few electric lights. Measures have been taken to meet promptly all cases of distress, over $15,000 having been collected for this purpose. Great damage has also been caused in Louisville, Ky., by the overflow, as well as in the river towns of Indiana. A great number of persons have been thrown out of employment.

On Tuesday the floods in the Ohio Valley reached an alarming point. In Cincinnati the water continued to rise till it reached sixty-five feet and one inch. The depot of the Cincinnati Railroad, which, however, consisted of small temporary frame buildings, was carried away by the bursting of a sewer in McLean Avenue, and for a time there were rumors of an extensive loss of life, which failed to be substantiated. In Louisville on Tuesday night nearly a square mile of territory was under water within the limits of the city. At eleven o'clock at night a dam in the north-eastern part of the city gave way, causing great destruction of property and the loss of a few lives. From 5,000 to 8,000 people are homeless. Business has been practically suspended in both Louisville and Cincinnati.

On Saturday, "for the first time in the memory of the oldest inhabitant," navigation on Lake Michigan was completely closed. The perils of winter navigation on the lakes this season are said to have been very great.

A special report from the Bureau of Statistics shows that the excess of our exports over our imports was nearly $260,000,000 in 1881, but in 1882 the balance in our favor was a little less than $26,000,000. The balance in our favor for the first half of the current fiscal year was $54,500,000. The exports were $425,500,000, in round numbers, for the six months, and the imports $371,000,000. If this rate of export should be maintained, our exports for the year would exceed those of last year by $100,000,000. In December the value of the exports of merchandise was $92,960,433, or about $3,000,000 a day. This rate has been exceeded only once in the history of the country.

The result of the tariff debate in the Senate on Wednesday was that books, pamphlets, and other printed matter were put on the free list; the duty on bituminous coal and shale was made 75 cents per ton, on matches 35 per cent. *ad valorem*, and on diamonds and other precious stones 25 per cent. *ad valorem*. On Thursday the duty on dressed and undressed building stones, with the exception of marble, was made $1 50 and $1 respectively, and the consideration of the free list was completed. On Friday a charge of $2 50 was put upon the entrance and clearance of vessels of 300 tons burthen and upward. On Saturday the tax on tobacco was reduced to 8 cents a pound, and the bill was reported from the Committee of the Whole to the Senate. On Monday so many amendments were offered that it was found impossible to pass the bill on that day, or on Tuesday.

The House has spent most of the week on the metal schedule.

The Senate Committee on Foreign Affairs on Friday decided to report a bill to provide for the execution of the provisions of Article 2 of the Supplemental Commercial Treaty of November 17, 1880, between the United States and China, for the repression of the opium traffic. It prohibits the importation of opium into the United States by Chinese subjects under penalty of a fine of not more than $500, imprisonment of not more than six months, and forfeiture of the package; and provides a similar penalty for the importation of opium into any open ports of China, or its transportation from one open port to another, by American citizens. The bill is to take effect on July 1, 1883.

The Senate Judiciary Committee has agreed upon a bill appropriating $150,000, to pay Mr. G. W. P. C. Lee for the Arlington property, the Government to be responsible for back taxes; and it is said that Mr. Lee has consented to accept this sum.

Representative Beltzhoover, who has favored the transfer of the Weather Bureau to the Interior Department, published on Thursday, in the *Congressional Record*, accompanying a speech upon this subject, a number of letters which indicate that the officers of the Signal Corps under General Hazen undertook, last winter, a systematic scheme of lobbying and of organizing demonstrations of public sentiment in support of a bill called "The Majors' and Captains' Bill," which provided for the addition of three majors, twelve captains, and twelve first lieutenants to the Signal Corps, for the regulation of appointments and promotions, and for other details, tending to consolidate the Corps and establish it on a permanent foundation in connection with the Army. General Hazen has made some very unsatisfactory explanations.

Treaties with the Sioux Indians have been submitted to Congress for action, which will throw open the great Indian reservation in Southern Dakota to settlers. The area of the territory included in the reservation is about 11,500,000 acres. The Indians are not to be removed to other Territories, but will be gathered into small reservations within the limits of the large one. The consideration paid to the Indians will be 25,000 cows and 1,000 bulls; 320 acres of land in the new reservation secured to the head of each family, with eighty acres for each child; and a good cow and yoke of oxen to each family that takes land and begins to cultivate it. The Government will also furnish to each of the new reservations a doctor, a carpenter, a miller, a blacksmith, an engineer, and a farmer for ten years.

Governor Bate, of Tennessee, in his message, reviews at length the history of the creation of the State debt. He says that $14,000,000 of bonds were issued to railroads immediately after the war, when a majority of the citizens were disfranchised; that purchasers were put upon their guard, and that he doubts if any Southern State has settled this class of indebtedness upon more liberal terms than those proposed by Tennessee. He suggests the tender of a settlement of the State debt proper in full, less the war interest, at the same interest as that of the original bonds; also, of those held by educational and charitable institutions, and the twenty-nine bonds of Mrs. Polk. He proposes that the remainder, or "contingent debt," be settled at fifty cents on the dollar, principal and interest, with interest at three per cent.

The proposition to submit a prohibition amendment to the Constitution of West Virginia to a popular vote, was defeated in the State Senate on Wednesday. The Prohibitionists of Iowa held a convention on Wednesday evening, and voted to demand of the Governor that he call a special session of the Legislature to reënact the prohibition amendment to the State Constitution, the former amendment having been declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court.

The sesquicentennial celebration of the settlement of the State of Georgia began in Savannah on Monday and finished on Tuesday. It was a success.

Mayor Edson, of New York, presented the draft of a new charter for that city, prepared by himself, to the State Legislature on Thursday. It provides for single heads for all the departments of the city government except the Board of Education. The sole power of appointment and removal is vested in the Mayor. It is not believed that the proposed charter meets with the approval of politicians of either party, and there is little chance of its becoming law in its present shape.

A meeting of merchants engaged in the manufacture and sale of dry goods was held at Cooper Institute, New York, on Wednesday evening, to "protest against any legislation by which finished goods can be imported at lower rates than those imposed on the materials of which they are manufactured." The President of the meeting said that the protectionist meeting of the preceding week did not properly represent the manufacturers of New York, who were, in fact, outraged and insulted by the views expressed at that meeting, and that New York manufacturers demand that they shall not be taxed by the new tariff law so that they cannot compete with foreign manufacturers. Resolutions to this effect were adopted.

President Jarrett, of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers, has sent out a circular to the workingmen in the iron industries, saying: "We suggest that our craft, in every town and city in the country, organized or unorganized, get up tariff meetings immediately, invite every one to attend, and adopt resolutions calling on Congress to pass at once a tariff bill similar to the one recommended by the Tariff Commission or none at all. To pass a tariff bill such as the one now before the Senate would be to nearly, if not completely, close every iron and steel mill in the country."

The New York Chamber of Commerce has sent to President Arthur a memorial setting forth that the German prohibition of American pork is founded on misinformation, and suggesting that Germany be invited to send a commission here to see how carefully diseased pork is excluded from the exports.

On Saturday a meeting of the Board of Directors of the Mutual Union and Western Union Telegraph Companies was held, at which a contract was signed by which the Mutual Union is leased to the Western Union for 999 years. In consideration, the Western Union agrees to pay to the Mutual Union various sums amounting to $500,000 a year. The Western Union assumes full control of the Mutual Union's lines, and will carry out all its existing contracts.

Ex-Governor Marshall Jewell, of Connecticut, died in Hartford on Saturday. He was three times elected Governor of Connecticut, was appointed Minister to Russia in 1873, and returned to the United States in 1874 to take the Postmaster-Generalship in General Grant's Cabinet. He was Chairman of the Republican National Committee in the campaign which resulted in the election of President Garfield.

William E. Dodge, an old New York merchant, famous for his philanthropy and public spirit, died in New York on Friday morning, in the seventy-eighth year of his age.

The Department of State received a despatch on Monday from the United States Consul at Marseilles, stating that the remains of John Howard Payne had been forwarded to New York by the French steamer *Burgundia*, and are expected to arrive about the 15th inst.

FOREIGN.

M. Devès, Minister of Justice, and General Thibaudin, Minister of War, attended the sitting of the French Senate Committee on the Expulsion Bill on Wednesday, and spoke in support of the measure. The Committee, however, drafted a report demanding the rejection of the bill without debate on its individual clauses. On Thursday the report was read in the Senate. It stated that in the opi-

nion of the Committee there was no cause for the Republic either to feel alarm or to resort to the violent measures embraced in the proposed law. It would be a step in a dangerous path, and contrary to the ideas upon which the Republic was founded. The rumors, the report said, of conflicts or of a dissolution did not disturb the Committee, which was steadfastly Republican. Urgency was voted for the debate on the bill on Saturday, and the debate was then commenced. M. Challemel-Lacour, Republican, combated the proposal to reject the bill. He said the Government ought to be armed, as the natural leaders of the parties opposing the republic did not disarm. M. Barthélemy-Saint-Hilaire, President of the Committee, in opposing the bill, said he regretted to see the Republic depart from the path of tolerance. The Government, he said, should propose a general measure, not one directed against individuals. M. Devès, Minister of Justice, replied that the Orleanist Princes had requited the Republic's generosity by proclaiming their adhesion to the Comte de Chambord. If the Government shuts its eyes to the machinations of the Royalists it would be deserting the Republic. On Monday the debate was continued. M. Devès announced that the Government had agreed to abandon the Expulsion Bill and accept the proposal of M. Barbey, rendering the Princes liable to expulsion by the decree of the President of the Republic, if their acts should compromise the safety of the state. This proposal was rejected by a vote of 148 to 132. The first article of the Ministerial bill was then negatived by a vote of 172 to 89. A proposal submitted by M. Waddington, that any Prince found guilty of furthering pretensions endangering the state should be banished after trial before a Court of Assizes, or before the Senate sitting as a High Court, was adopted by a vote of 165 to 127.

All the members of the French Cabinet have resigned in consequence of the action of the Senate on the Expulsion Bill. President Grévy has requested them to remain at their posts for the present. It is stated that M. de Freycinet was summoned to form a Ministry, but that he hesitates to undertake the task.

On Friday the indictment against Prince Napoleon was quashed and he was released. The Radicals were violently excited against the judiciary by this action. The Government has introduced an additional clause in the Press Bill, making the issue of placards inciting to the overthrow of the Republic punishable.

The examination of the prisoners was continued in the Kilmainham court-room on Saturday. Michael Kavanagh, the carman, turned informer, and was the first witness examined. He deposed that on the 6th of May last he was engaged by four men—Brady, Kelly, Patrick Delaney, and one other. He drove the men into Phœnix Park to the Gough monument, where they were met by a cab driven by Fitzharris, from which four men alighted. James Carey and Daniel Delaney were on seats at the side of the road. In a few moments he saw Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke approaching arm in arm. Some one among those he drove said the tall man was to be assassinated. Kavanagh was then ordered to go further away by some of the conspirators. As he started he heard some one repeat, "Mind, it is the tall man." Kavanagh was so near the scene of the assassination that he heard one of the victims cry "Oh!" and on looking round he saw one gentleman fall, and saw that the other, who had an umbrella, was lying on the ground. The four men he had driven to the Park jumped on his car and he drove away. Kavanagh then described the route he took. He received £3 and some harness from Brady in payment for his services on this occasion. He was afterward engaged by the party which attacked the juror Field. In their flight on this occasion Brady and Kavanagh wrapped some kind of swords in paper and threw them into the basin at the gas-works. Brady again paid for the car. In replying to the counsel for the Crown, Kavanagh said that on the 6th of May he wore a white hat, but that a man on the car, who was not in the prisoner's dock, changed with him, giving him a large brown one. This evidence is important, as it is believed to furnish a clew to a murderer who has not yet been apprehended. After Kavanagh's evidence had been given, various points in his account were corroborated by other witnesses. Kavanagh's evidence is thought to be conclusive. The Crown has accepted the evidence of another informer, who will identify the actual murderer of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Under-Secretary Burke. It is certain, from the evidence given so far, that Mr. Burke was first murdered, and that the plot was primarily against him. The examination is to be continued on Thursday.

On Thursday Messrs. Davitt, Healy, and Quinn, who were arrested some time ago for making inflammatory speeches, having refused to give bail for good behavior, were arrested and conveyed to Kilmainham Jail.

The trial of Mr. William O'Brien, editor of the *United Ireland*, for seditious libel, was begun on Friday. On Thursday 2,000 starving persons surrounded the house of Mr. Woodhouse, the Poor-Law Inspector at Glencolumbkill, and demanded employment. Mr. Woodhouse, in replying to the crowd, advocated emigration.

Archbishop Croke has written a letter confirming the accounts of the widespread and fearful distress prevailing in the counties of Mayo, Donegal, Clare, and Sligo. He says the country can never expect peace and plenty until it is rid of the yoke of a bloated and ruthless oligarchy.

Mr. Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, in a speech at Hawick, Scotland, on Friday, denied the statement that the diminution of agrarian crime in Ireland was more apparent than real. He referred to the rapidity with which murderous crimes had diminished when it became apparent that the murderers would be hanged. He denied that the Government had suppressed freedom of speech or liberty of the press. The Government, he said, was ready to work with the Irish members of Parliament in advocating legitimate schemes of reform. Mr. Trevelyan stated that 90,000 farmers in Ireland had taken advantage of the Arrears of Rent Act.

The London *Times*, in an article on the programme of the Irish party in Parliament, says it is probable that Mr. Healy's scheme for local government in Ireland will form the basis of the chief Irish Bill. On the address in reply to the speech from the throne there will be a debate on the general subject of the Irish policy of the Government. Mr. Parnell will demand an official account of the private inquiry held at Dublin Castle, and will point out the necessity of further measures for the relief of distress in Ireland. A bill to amend the Land Act has been drafted already.

Mr. Parnell, in a communication asking the attendance of the Irish members of the House of Commons at the opening of Parliament next week, says events of the greatest importance to Ireland will be discussed. A preliminary meeting of the party will be held on the 14th inst. to consider the action of the Irish members during the session. Mr. Parnell, writing to Mr. Joseph Walsh concerning a possible vacancy in the representation for the County of Mayo, deprecates the election of a member who will refuse to take his seat. If the time came for the Irish members to retire from the House of Commons, he says, they should do so in a body. He earnestly advocates the adoption of some system of pecuniary compensation to members. If the constituencies did not make an effort in that direction, he should be obliged to consider whether he could persevere in the thankless task of endeavoring to keep together an independent Irish party.

Mr. Judah P. Benjamin, the celebrated London barrister, formerly a member of the Cabinet of the Confederate States, has retired from the practice of his profession.

The late Earl of Ashburnham's collection of manuscripts is offered for sale to the British Museum. They extend from the Saxon period to the time of Cromwell, and include the refusal of Hampden to pay ship money. There are 4,000 volumes in all. The price will probably be £160,000. The London *Times* points out that if Great Britain hesitates to purchase the collection, America is certainly ready to do so.

The conference on the Danubian question was formally opened in London on Thursday. All the delegates were present except the Turkish Ambassador. Rumania has protested against being admitted to the conference with a consultative voice only, and has declined to attend the conference or to recognize the resolutions.

The Montenegrin Government has issued a circular letter to the Powers, announcing the rupture of the relations between Turkey and Montenegro, on account of the refusal of the former to agree to the cession of territory on the frontier.

Mr. Wallace, United States Minister to Turkey, has protested against the maintenance of the petroleum depots established in Smyrna and Constantinople, in which all the petroleum imported into Turkey has to be stored, the importers paying eight per cent. of the value for storage dues. Mr. Wallace declares that this really amounts to an increase of the import duty. He will accept a compromise making a considerable reduction in the charges for storage.

Richard Wagner, the great German composer, died in Venice at 4 o'clock on Tuesday afternoon. He was born at Leipsic on the 22d of May, 1813.

Mr. Edwin Booth made his last appearance in Berlin on Monday night. The house was crowded, and he was received with enthusiasm. His season in Germany has been most successful. He has played before crowded and enthusiastic houses every night, and been presented with a silver laurel crown.

The German Reichstag on Thursday rejected the estimates for 1884–85, thus sealing the fate of Prince Bismarck's biennial-budget scheme.

The Court of Appeals at Vienna has confirmed the sentence passed against the manager of the Ring Theatre and other persons who were convicted of criminal neglect in not providing adequate means of exit from the theatre, thereby causing such great destruction of life.

The Spanish Council of Ministers has decided to treat as freemen 40,000 slaves who were not liberated by their owners in Cuba in 1870. These slaves are those who were not included in the census taken in 1870, under the law for gradual abolition, because of the failure of their owners to enter them in the lists. The Minister of the Colonies has announced that he will grant Cuba electoral laws similar to those in force in Spain. At a meeting of the Dynastic Left on Monday, Marshal Serrano presiding, it was resolved to actively oppose the Ministry, notwithstanding that Señor Moret counselled a pacific attitude. The divergence of views among the prominent members of the party is much commented on.

The Egyptian Council of Ministers has adopted the first thirty-four clauses of the new charter for Egypt, embodying the proposals made by Lord Dufferin.

The news from South America is that the Chilians continue to collect the monthly war contributions in Lima. The Cholo Indians in the Department of Piura have risen in arms to the number of 5,000, and have been plundering indiscriminately.

A CLEAR ALTERNATIVE.

THE fact that more than five weeks after the passage of the Civil-Service Reform Bill, and four weeks after his approval of it, the President has not yet appointed the Commissioners provided for in that act, begins to attract general attention and to excite remark. Nobody will find fault with the President if he makes his selection for those important places with great care and deliberate circumspection. It may, indeed, not be the easiest thing in the world to find three persons each one in every respect fit for the position and all three likely to work harmoniously together. The President, therefore, ought not to be unnecessarily pushed and hurried by his advisers and critics.

But rumor has it that the President finds great difficulty in solving a problem which he thinks the Civil-Service Reform Act to have imposed upon him—namely, the problem to appoint a Civil-Service Commission which will be equally satisfactory to the civil-service reformers and to the Machine politicians. If this is really the light in which the President looks at the task to be performed, he may as well give it up. The problem is one that cannot possibly be solved. If he makes a Commission to please the civil-service reformers, he must select men who are thoroughly determined to carry out the spirit of the act in good faith, and who also possess the necessary qualifications for doing it, and that will of course dissatisfy the Machine politicians. He cannot please the latter without so constructing the Commission that, while appearing to serve, it will really defeat the purpose of the law; and that would of course be easily detected and appropriately criticised by the civil-service reformers. Skilled equestrians can ride two horses running side by side; but nobody has ever been known to succeed in riding two horses going in absolutely opposite directions.

It has been suggested in various quarters that there might properly be one "practical politician" appointed as a member of the Commission. No arrangement could be more absurd. It is one of the most important objects of the Civil-Service Reform Act to take the public service, as far as this law touches it, entirely out of practical politics. The practical politician is to have absolutely nothing to do with it. The very spirit of the law demands that the practical politician's characteristic methods and tests of fitness shall be carefully excluded from the business of making appointments and removals. That business is to be managed upon principles as far away as possible from the practical politician's point of view. To what end, then, should a practical politician be put on the Civil-Service Commission? It can only be to keep the Civil-Service Commission in contact with the spoils system and the political machine, and to a certain extent under their influence. Nothing could be more absurd on its very face. We might as well put a whiskey distiller on a committee for the promotion of temperance, or a tobacco manufacturer at the head of an organization for the suppression of smoking.

It is said here and there that the whole civil-service reform idea is on trial in this attempt to carry it into practice under the new law. This is a mistake. The civil-service reform idea, just as it is embodied in the so-called Pendleton bill, has already been tried and tested in the New York Custom-house and elsewhere; and wherever it has been tried in good faith and by competent persons it has been found to work successfully. It is no longer a mere experiment of uncertain issue. There is no question at all about its practicability in all the offices designated by the law. Nothing is needed but earnestness of purpose and competent management. There ought, therefore, to be no delusion about one thing: it is not the civil-service reform idea that is on trial, but the good faith of those who have to execute the civil-service reform law.

President Arthur's language in his last message concerning the popular demand for just that kind of reform which the new law provides for, and concerning his willingness to carry out such a law, was so unequivocal and emphatic that it would be unfair to question his intentions beforehand. It may be supposed that the believers in the spoils system and the beneficiaries of Machine politics are bringing all their influence to bear upon him to swerve him from his purpose. It is very much to be hoped that he will not permit his judgment to be persuaded that by some legerdemain he can compromise between the reform and the thing to be reformed. The alternative before him is clear and absolute. Any attempt to evade it would be seen through at once and would fail. If the President manfully recognizes and performs the duty which the law imposes upon him, he will have all the more credit, as it will be generally remembered that the influences he had to overrule were those which had in former times been strongest with him.

THE ORLEANS PRINCES.

THE Orleans Princes, who are still threatened with expulsion on account of Prince Napoleon's manifesto, are in a curiously embarrassing situation. They are sincerely attached to their country, like the military service, are personally popular, have undoubtedly given up all hope of reigning; and yet they are in danger of exile, without trial, under a régime of which the equality of all before the law is the principal feature. Moreover, the family has never at any period given any sign of a desire or intention to take or hold the crown by force. Louis Philippe was put on the throne by the free act of the Chambers, and he ran away in 1848 with a readiness and complacency which no other deposed sovereign has ever surpassed. The temper of the family has, in fact, always been very averse from violence of any sort. Its forte has been in shrewdness, dexterity, and calculated peaceableness. Between 1830 and 1848 France was more than once on the verge of war, partly owing to the King's love of intrigue, as in the case of the Spanish marriages; but he always managed to avoid a collision, even at the expense of his reputation.

Nobody believes that the Duc d'Aumale or the Comte de Paris would enter into a conspiracy against the Republic. Nobody alleges that any of the family believes a restoration of the monarchy possible in France at present. None of them has committed any overt act against the Republic like the posting of the Prince Napoleon's placards. Everybody likes them personally. The Duc d'Aumale, now the head of the house in point of wealth and age, is one of the most distinguished of living Frenchmen. He served in the army in Africa, before 1848, and won as much distinction as a strategist as the wars against the Arabs would permit. He is a member of the French Academy, an honor for which the late Emperor sighed in vain. He is a great art connoisseur and collector, and has a house at Chantilly which is hardly surpassed by any private or even royal residence in the world, both for splendor, taste, and historic interest; and his hospitality in it, unlike that of the Bonapartes, reaches the very best class of Frenchmen in all walks, including the most ardent Republicans. His domestic misfortunes, too, have been great enough to touch the heart even of a Nihilist, for he has lost his wife and all his children in succession—the last son after he had reached manhood. This final blow drew from Victor Hugo a touching expression of sympathy, widely separated as he was in politics from the Orleans family. Why, then, is there this desire to drive them out of France on the part of the more fidgety Republicans?

There are three causes for it. One is that the Princes seriously offended the French public when it was in a very sensitive state, by accepting from the first Assembly after the war the return of the property confiscated by Louis Napoleon after the *Coup d'état*, amounting to about $8,000,000. It is true, the amount confiscated was about $20,000,000, and the Princes refused to accept more than actually remained in the possession of the Government of the property originally taken. It is true, also, that if the confiscation was an act of spoliation pure and simple, there ought to have been nothing discreditable in taking back their own; but although the case was one of simple spoliation as far as Louis Napoleon was concerned, it was not one of simple spoliation as far as the Princes were concerned. The French people had a sort of lien on the property. An old law of the French Monarchy compels each sovereign on mounting the throne to hand his private fortune, originally derived from the state, back to the state. When Louis Philippe found that he was likely to be elected King, in 1830, he, on the 7th of June in that year, made his fortune over to his sons. He was not elected till the 9th, and accordingly at that date, having no such property in his hands, he was able to evade the law, but that he had evaded the law in an unworthy manner was the opinion of a great many. His principal justification was, that taking a revolutionary crown under a very uncertain tenure was not the succession to the crown contemplated by the framers of the law. If his transfer was illegal, however, it was for the courts to set it aside by a regular judicial process after the Orleans family was driven out. But Louis Napoleon, after the *Coup d'état*, set it aside by a simple decree of his own, or, in other words, by brute force, and probably as a piece of private vengeance, so that his act was really simple robbery; but it was an act which left the equities of the case as regarded the French people standing, and they were irritated greatly when, in the midst of the national dis-

tress, the family took back what was left by a vote of the Legislature, also without judicial process. This was a fatal error on the part of the Princes.

The second cause of hostility to them is the success of the Pretender in 1849 in getting the popular vote for the Presidency. The peasantry, it is true, knew nothing about the Orleans Princes, but they knew nothing about Prince Napoleon; they simply took the man with the best-known name, as they would have taken Thiers in 1871, or Gambetta in 1877. Thiers and Gambetta are both gone. The Bonapartes are discredited. The need of a strong man begins to be talked of. The President of the Republic, after M. Grévy, may be either forced on the Legislature by public outcry, or he may be produced by popular election, and, in the absence of all political notables, the voters are not unlikely to take hold of the name which seems most illustrious and which they hear oftenest. They will not take the Prince Napoleon; why not, therefore, the Duc d'Aumale?

The third cause is that the Orleans Princes are soldiers, and actually serving in the Army, and in the Army their popularity is great and naturally grows. Now, all Frenchmen, and especially all French politicians, are afraid of the Army. To a very large number of them the Army is really the people. They speak of it in the terms of mingled reverence and admiration which American writers bestow on the voters. It is, in their mouths, always the Army only, of all the nation, which is pure, simple, patriotic, wise, and devoted. When things begin to go wrong, as at present, the politicians hold the Army over each other's heads, just as they do "the people" here. They ask each other how long the Army will stand this sort of thing, and threaten each other with the irritation of the Army unless there is some improvement. A prince in the Army, therefore, at a crisis like this, readily becomes a shape of dread. The majority in the Assembly, engaged in dickerings, and intrigues, and cabals, and in making and unmaking ministries and reversing policies, is startled by the slightest tumult in the street, inquires eagerly what the soldiery think about it, and suspects every prominent military man of meditating interference of some kind, and especially and naturally suspects military princes of having a military following disgusted with the doings of the "rhéteurs" in the Legislature, and ready to save the state. This last is probably the only cause of suspicion the Orleans family can remove. If they are wise they will quit military life. Soldiering may be a pleasant and appropriate occupation, but the time has apparently gone by when it was the sure road to political eminence in France.

THE PRESS AND AGRICULTURE.

A TENNESSEE farmer's wife wrote a letter to a morning paper, the other day, complaining rather bitterly of that newspaper for always extolling the "superiority of agriculture" to other pursuits. She says that she once held the same opinion, but actual experience has changed her views. The farmer and his family, she maintains, have not a pleasant or easy life at all.

There is no denying that her picture of farm life is true enough in the main. The grain, hay, butter, eggs, fowls, and fruit do not, as a rule, much more than pay for the cost of production, and the only way they can be made to do this is by constant, unremitting, monotonous toil, the necessity for which compels the farmer to use as much of his sons' labor as possible, so that they can rarely get a thorough education. The farmer's wife has meantime to make herself a drudge indoors. The daughters, she thinks, as a rule, marry farmers, and "a very few years change their blooming youth to a haggard old age." Probably it is the daughters who get, before their marriage, most of the luxuries and of the education which the scanty means of the family can procure; but when this is the case the education is hardly of a kind to make a marriage with a man pursuing their father's occupation at all attractive to them. The effect of their education must be to a great extent to discontent them with farm life, and to make them form an ideal of existence in sharp contrast with it; an ideal in which concert, theatre, and opera, unlimited magazine reading, and music, with occasional trips to Europe for the renewal of their wardrobe—in short, the amusements and privileges of the wealthy city dweller—play a most important part. All this no doubt produces a large number of agricultural girls, if we may call them so, who are sensitive, refined, and qualified to appear well in a new sort of life. There are more of such girls in the United States than in any other country in the world. The system, however, is constantly breeding, as it must, dissatisfaction with what they see about them, and a desire for change; a suspicion, too, that "home" is not what it might be. All this does not tend to make farm life one of pure happiness and content.

On the whole, people on farms work harder, sleep less, live plainer, and have fewer luxuries, than people who live in cities and towns. Moreover, they barely make a living, while they see colossal fortunes built up around them by the middleman, the speculator, and the "monopolist," who handle what they produce. The correspondent might have added—and cited Dr. Sargent's recent lectures on the subject to prove it—that life in towns is, on the whole, more healthy than it is in the country. Town people have less malaria, better food, higher spirits, and, on the whole, get more out of life in every way.

No paper, however, stands alone in recommending agriculture, and advising people to adopt it as a pursuit; the advice is given by the press generally. No newspaper ever recommends a correspondent, who applies to it for information and suggestions as to the best means of earning a livelihood, to come to the city to try "clerking" in a dry-goods store, but invariably advises him to try a country life and agricultural pursuits, assuring him that he will secure by this means health, wealth, and a comfortable provision for his old age. The habit of giving this advice is one of the features of modern journalism, and is not altogether confined to this country, as any one will admit who recalls the scheme for getting the Jews out of their troubles by inducing them to go back to Palestine and take up the plough. It is in this country, however, that the advice is most continually given, and yet, strange to say, this is the country which has one of the greatest city populations in the world, in which people are continually crowding into cities, and in which it is almost impossible to keep the second generation "on the farm."

The fact is that the press has inherited the literary tradition on the subject of country life which has come down from classical times, its idea of agricultural pursuits being mainly that derived from thinking about them in town. There is no one to whom life in the country seems more attractive than to a busy city man, who looks to it as a place where he can get rest and relaxation, fresh air, and freedom from responsibility. The literary man and journalist in New York looks upon the country just as Cicero did, and it is the literary view of life in the country of which the Tennessee farmer's wife complains. This view rests on ancient urban tradition, not on farm experience. The farming class, who make up the greater part of the population of the globe, the men who actually till the soil, have never had a close connection with literature, and the notion of the lives they lead, which the poets and essayists and finally the press put forward, is not derived from their experience.

The literary view is, no doubt, perfectly right as far as it goes. A rich lawyer or merchant, who likes to have a place in the country at which he can play at being a farmer, can get all those advantages from the life which, according to the prevailing press theory, it affords the farmer. One of the reasons always urged for adopting agricultural life is its "independence." No farmer who gets his living from the soil would dream of recommending it for this reason, because he knows very well that he is tied down to it from one year's end to another. It is assumed that he has no one over him, though farm mortgages are so common in this country that it is difficult to believe that the dread of his creditor is not constantly before his eyes; but at any rate his profits are so small that nothing short of constant watchfulness enables him to make both ends meet. The city man, on the other hand, does actually get independence in the country; he escapes for the time being his business, his correspondence, the daily wear and tear of an exacting life. He has plenty of time to improve his mind by reading; his children have every opportunity for out-door exercise and sports. His girls play Beethoven and Mozart, and read poetry and study the fashions, with no reason for dreading that it will unfit them for any rural life that they are ever likely to lead in after years. His farm, if he has one, is conducted with the delightful feeling that it makes no difference whether it pays its expenses or not, so long as it gives him milk and vegetables for his table. Moreover, the country air and country "views" are a constant source of delight to him, while the real farmer's ideas of atmosphere are principally confined to a knowledge of the different effects it produces on the crops, and the enjoyment of landscape is to him quite as unintelligible as the pleasure which city people find in the curious occupation of "walking"; the idea of using his legs for purposes of relaxation being

one that never occurs to him. Health is naturally one of the results of a country life which is always held out as a reason for engaging in agricultural pursuits. But no farmer who contrasts the appearance presented by "tourists" with that of his friends and neighbors, would be likely to come to think there was anything in such an argument. He would be more likely to infer that health is one of the things which people get by living in cities. At any rate, he would not be far wrong if he were to insist that all the things which in the literary view of the country recommend it—health, independence, and opportunity for "culture" in all its forms—imply the possession of money, while constant farm life implies a sad want of it. It is for this reason that farmers' sons and daughters and wives probably in nine cases out of ten share the ideas of the Tennessee writer, and show the strong disposition to leave the farm and flock into cities which is one of the features of American life. It is useless to urge them not to do this on the grounds generally brought forward. As long as the world has to be mainly employed in getting its subsistence out of the earth, agriculture will be the commonest of all occupations; but the progress of civilization is in great part measured by the number of people who are released from it, and who are enabled to earn their living in ways in which they have more leisure and less constant and monotonous toil. Notwithstanding the literary city traditions on the subject, we must therefore expect from time to time to hear a plaintive request from farmers, or their wives or daughters, to "let up" a little in our rosy pictures of agricultural happiness.

THE CRUSH HAT.

THE Boston *Advertiser*, while expressing entire agreement with the position we have taken with regard to bouquet reform, suggests that there is an opportunity to join in another movement for social improvement, in which it thinks we would have an immense amount of female support. It quotes an "anxious mother"—a representative of a large and important class, whose good opinion, if it counts for little with girls, is of the utmost moment to young men—as demanding that men shall stop bringing crush hats to balls. The reason she gives is that the dresses of girls are blackened and injured by them. The german dancer places his folded hat, held in his right hand, upon "the back breadth of the delicate waist," and "polishes it about until the destruction is complete." The anxious mother therefore demands that crush hats be "banished." It is a painful illustration of how little of the real leaven of Reform fills the hearts of some of those who take it up, that the *Advertiser* flippantly hints that the crush-hat abuse as practised by men may be a good "plea" by way of "set-off" against the bouquet abuse as practised by women. This is the old idea so commonly met with in politics, that the way to meet an abuse countenanced by one party is to show that quite as bad a one is tolerated by the other. It is not in any such spirit of levity that we can discuss matters which concern the social interests of two great historic sexes, however usual the practice may be between Republicans and Democrats.

But we cannot join in any crusade against the crush hat, because, instead of regarding it as an evil, it is to our minds one of the greatest boons vouchsafed by civilization to man. Whether there is any truth in the idea that the german dancer spoils dresses by "polishing" them with it we do not know; but admitting that such may be the case, the conclusion drawn, that it should not be allowed at parties, is for a variety of reasons unsound. First, some men still go to parties not to dance, but for the purpose of engaging in what they like to think is conversation; and a non-dancing man cannot make such a use of his opera hat as to spoil a lady's dress. Besides this, dancing men themselves can dance without the assistance of an opera hat, and thus, if a movement against the hat was set afoot, they could meet it at once by simply abandoning the practice, without giving up its use for other purposes. The anxious mother's complaint recalls the old story of Sir Astley Cooper's reply to a lady who told him she had a dreadful headache whenever she put her hand to her head. He advised her not to put it there. If crush hats do really blacken ladies' dresses, ladies can easily prevent their being used in dancing; but to ask us on this account to give up using crush hats, shows rather an anxious than a rational state of mind.

We have within the past few years noticed symptoms of a hostility to the crush hat in society, but the explanation generally offered has not been connected in any way with ladies' dress. The movement was started in England, where society is in the hands of a rich and idle class, one of whose amusements is the introduction of fashions for the mere sake of variety. In this society the fashion was suddenly started of bringing to balls and parties, instead of a crush hat, the ordinary tall black hat which is known among gentlemen as a beaver, among others as a "silk hat." The hollow pretence of a reason given for this was that "cads" had got into the habit of carrying crush hats, and that gentlemen ought to break loose from a caddish custom. Everybody knows, however, that whatever gentlemen do, cads copy, and that, in fact, cads are recognized as such by their habit of copying and not copying well. Besides this, if the cad is beginning, as some people think, to produce a dangerously good copy of the original, the stiff hat would be a poor barrier. He can carry a stiff hat, and if gentlemen, in terror of him, were to band together, and come to parties provided not only with a beaver, but with an umbrella, overcoat, and arctics besides, he would be there also in costume as soon as he got wind of the change. For these reasons we say that the practice of carrying a stiff hat was introduced without any cause but love of variety, in a foreign, frivolous, and aristocratic society; and it is a fashion which we are not bound to adopt here unless for reasons which commend themselves to our judgment. Anglomaniacs may maintain that the fact that there is a movement against the crush hat in England, is reason enough for our falling in with it; but for those who look into social questions with a calm, steady, impartial scrutiny, this will not do. In this country we can consider the crush hat as it really is, without the slightest regard for "abroad."

Now, we venture to say that for convenience, economy, and utility, no article of dress has been invented by man for man's use which at all compares with the crush hat. The blessings it has conferred on us can best be appreciated by reflecting what our position would be if the foolish movement against it gathered headway and it were really banished, and we were condemned to the use of the stiff hat instead. In the first place, the expense of hats would be greatly increased, because exposure to a very small number of balls would completely destroy not only the appearance, but the form and identity of a tall hat. If it is not to be used in dancing it must be left about, and the temptation to sit on hats exposed in this way is well-nigh universal. The only other alternative is to leave it in charge of the host's servants, who would, of course, make a compact bundle of it, in conjunction with arctics and overcoat, the effect being probably as serious as in the first case. Besides all this, there is a natural difficulty of distinguishing between the hats of different persons, which, if they were left about a ball-room, would lead to unpleasant charges of misappropriation, such as, in the case of umbrellas, continually create hard feeling, smile and jest about them as we may. At the theatre or opera, the case of the stiff hat is even worse; for there is literally no place provided for it except the floor, where, if not constantly watched over, it is kicked or trampled to pieces in an incredibly short time. There is no more distressing and anxious situation in life than that of a man whose attention is continually distracted from beautiful music or an absorbing drama by the well-known, sickening sound produced by the contact of his neighbor's foot with the hat which he tried to put out of his reach by depositing it beneath his seat, or in a corner of his box; and we can imagine nothing more likely to destroy popular interest among men in the theatre than the thought of the spectacle which their stiff hats would present at the end of the performance. These are things that women and mothers know nothing of.

That a crush hat has its moral uses, in giving confidence to and aiding the conversation of the stupid and embarrassed who constitute so large a proportion of "society men," any candid man will confess. The hands in society are the great obstacle to the expression of thought, and if something is given them to do the difficulty is got over. For this purpose the shape of a folded crush hat is convenience itself. A tall hat would defeat the object, and itself create embarrassment, for, owing to its cumbrous shape, holding it and conversing agreeably is a very difficult feat, which only long practice renders possible. It is reasons like these which, probably, originally led to the introduction of the crush hat. They are reformatory reasons. They show that instead of joining in a movement against the crush hat, we should do all in our power to resist anything of the sort.

GRUCKER'S LITERARY DEVELOPMENT OF GERMANY.—II.

PARIS, January 18, 1883.

I LEFT M. Grucker's book on 'The History of Literary and Æsthetic Doctrines in Germany' at the chapter concerning Leibnitz, which is full of interest. While, thanks to Leibnitz, to Thomasius and their disciples, the German language was increasing every day in strength and substance, German poetry was still very imperfect and artificial. We find a return to nature and simplicity first in Saxony, in the works of Christian Weise (born in Zittau in 1642), rector of the Academical Gymnasium of Zittau, and author of many comedies, dramas, religious poems, and popular songs. Weise wrote also some didactic essays. His literary principles are sound. "I love liberty," he says, "and simplicity. What does not come from the heart does not go to the heart. . . . A painter would be absurd if he painted roses with golden buds; a poet would be mad if he painted shepherds with furs." He criticised the importations of the hôtel Rambouillet, so well attacked in France by Molière, but still triumphant in the Nuremberg school. "A lover will not say, at Nuremberg, 'My dear, I shall have the honor of walking with you'; but: 'You only master of the citadel of my heart, the inflamed globe of the immense sky will be so happy as to throw our two shadows on the green carpet of the flowery country.'" Weise had the courage to say: "The more simply things are expressed, the more they strike us." These principles were expressed in three essays: "Ueberflüssige Gedanken der grünenden Jugend" (1668); "Nothwendige Gedanken der grünenden Jugend" (1684); "Curiose Gedanken von deutschen Versen" (1691). Weise had no imagination; he was essentially an utilitarian, and he had but small esteem for poetry. "He who should call me a poet," he says, "would not much oblige me." He was a pedagogue, and considered poetry as a sort of discipline for the youthful mind. He makes it the slave of rhetoric; a dictionary of rhymes is his poetical instrument. Weise, in short, was useful in so far as he protested against the artificiality of the school of Nuremberg, but he had no ideal; he was trivial, and the poets of his school have justly been called *Wasserpoeten*.

The revocation of the Edict of Nantes brought many distinguished Frenchmen to Dresden and to Berlin, and their influence was soon felt. They were men of the world and men of letters. One of the Germans who were mostly imbued with this French influence was Canitz. He had gone to France very young, and his admiration for this country was intense. He was enchanted with everything—the country, the climate, the manners, the language. He writes to a friend "not to wander longer in the night, but to come at once and live with him in the full light of freedom, and to compose with him songs in the beautiful country where rhyme and reason are found together." Canitz was a disciple of our Boileau; he criticises the German poets of his time. We find the same French influence felt in the works of Benjamin Neukirch, a professor of Berlin, who became an Aulic councillor, and the preceptor of the Princes of the Court of Ansbach in Bavaria. He was a court poet, and soon this court poetry became a sort of official employment. The court poet was an intellectual master of ceremonies or chamberlain. One of them, Ulrich von Koenig, at Dresden, the friend of Canitz, wrote a dissertation on taste ("Untersuchung von dem guten Geschmack in der Dicht- und Redekunst"), which is much superior to his poetry, and in which we see the influence of Addison's *Spectator* and of several French writings.

Hamburg had not suffered excessively during the Thirty Years' War; its material prosperity was very great, and all sorts of plays were the fashion there—the opera especially, with all its extravagances of style and of imagination. The opera writers found, however, an adversary in Wernike, a critic and satirist. Wernike was a Prussian, born of a Saxon father and an English mother. He was a diplomat, lived some time in London, and afterward in Paris; he made a collection of epigrams. He was an aristocrat and a man of taste; he did not believe that any but men of quality could write well; he admired Lord Buckingham, Lord Rochester; he conducted a campaign in favor of pure German, though he was well versed in French and English literature.

Literary criticism had begun its work timidly; it was tentative rather than general and rational. It only became a great power with Gottsched. This writer may well be called the German Boileau. He was intelligent, courageous, armed with science, and he soon became a centre. With Gottsched, imitation of the great writers of the age of Louis XIV. became the object, the rule of German literature. Imitation was confined to the most excellent works of art; whatever was inferior was proscribed. Gottsched rejected the Italian and Spanish models which had so long been copied; he rejected also the popular poems; his ideal was a correct and classical literature. He gave a new power to criticism, and made it more serious and more systematic; he connected its principles with general laws, and supported them not only by the examples of the masters, but also by reason. In short, criticism in Gottsched became essentially philosophical; and it has ever since remained so in Germany, and has felt the influence of all philosophical systems. The system which was dominant in his time was that of Wolf, a disciple of Leibnitz. Wolf was born in Breslau, in 1679, and, thanks to Leibnitz, was appointed Professor of Philosophy and of Mathematics at Halle. His enemies persuaded Frederic William I. that the theories of Wolf helped his grenadiers to desert from the army; Wolf was represented to him as a dangerous Liberal, and he was expelled. He found an asylum in the University of Marburg. The great Frederic recalled him to Halle, where he died in 1754. Wolf was not an original thinker, but he had the great merit of collecting and putting in order all the works of Leibnitz, and of making them accessible to all. He rendered in this way a great service. Though he perhaps did not understand the full depth of Leibnitz, he drew out of the latter whatever he could, and his method of exposition was exceedingly clear.

The philosophy of Wolf is much abused now. It seems a little too trivial, too much founded on utility, is too small, too *bourgeois;* it is really wonderful how he could make such a miniature of a great doctrine. Wolf will tell you that the sun was created in order to help us to set our watches and to reduce the expense of lighting. He carries the theory of final causes to a ridiculous extent: water was made to punish mankind by inundations or to amuse it with cascades; it was made also for fishes, as fishes could not live elsewhere. Such arguments seem to us very childish. Wolf, however, did much service in his time. His philosophy satisfied the need of intellectual liberty which was felt in Germany; it emancipated many minds. He did service even in dragging the doctrines of Leibnitz from too high a level to the common level of the Philistine mind. He became popular; his pedantic ways helped him as well as his superficiality, and the defects of the surface did not deprive the nucleus of his doctrines of their truth and their soundness. Philosophy became a fashion: Wolf made all the Germans feel the sort of satisfaction which *Monsieur Jourdain* feels when his master of grammar explains to him that he is talking in prose. All the finest ladies began to philosophize; Wolf was called the "professor of humankind," the "educator of the German nation." M. Grucker gives this instance of his great influence: The famous Jew philosopher, Mendelssohn, travelling in Germany, was obliged, after an accident to his carriage, to stop on the highroad, not far from a poor village where there was no inn. Knowing the intolerance of the Lutherans with regard to the Jews, he sent his servant to the house of the Lutheran minister. The servant was ordered to say that a Jewish savant asked for his hospitality. The minister soon arrived with a lantern, stepped before the carriage, and said: "Quid est ontologia?"—the question corresponding with the first paragraph of one of the principal treatises of Wolf. Mendelssohn knew his Wolf well, and immediately gave his answer. The minister at once approached, embraced him, and took him home.

All the critical work of Gottsched is, so to speak, condensed in his 'Versuch einer critischen Dichtkunst,' the first edition of which appeared in 1729 and the fourth in 1751. Gottsched places his work under the patronage of Horace, as he begins, by way of preface, with translating the Epistle to the Pisos; but his real master is Boileau, who represents for him the discipline of the mind in the seventeenth century. The French are already classics in his eyes: "What the Greeks," he says, "were for the Romans, the French are for us. They have given us the best models in all kinds of poetry; they have written many discourses and critical essays in which we can find our rules. I do not blush to give the preference on this point to our neighbors, though on other points I prefer my compatriots."

His poetical principle is a philosophical principle; it is the imitation of nature—a principle already laid down by Aristotle. But what does Gottsched understand by imitation? There are three kinds of imitation: first, an inferior kind of imitation—viz., the pure and simple imitation of things by their description; second, the imitation of the sentiments and passions of a fictitious personage—the imitation of the dramatic poet; third, the superior kind of imitation—viz., of events in a fable, since this imitation is not only applied to feelings, but to things, and supposes combinations: it is creative. True genius delights in inventing personages and types, and in making them act. The influence of Wolf is felt in the work of Gottsched, especially in this point; imagination seems to him an inferior quality—the superior quality is logic. Gottsched measures the poets by their qualities of correctness, of rectitude, of discipline; they may invent, but even when they invent they must imitate. Milton seems almost monstrous to him—he loses himself in so much sublimity, in such audacious and gigantic inventions. Gottsched gives recipes for each kind of poem, as a cook-book gives recipes for each kind of dish.

The reform of Gottsched was more especially felt on the stage. His theories of poetry were useful here, as common sense and decency are particularly necessary in dramatic representations. During the Thirty Years' War the German theatre had been extremely corrupted; it had become something like the Alhambra of London, or the new Eden Theatre of Paris—something like a circus or a promenade concert. The opera had not yet felt the ennobling influence of the great masters; it was a coarse spectacle for the eyes. The severity of Gottsched had become necessary: he found no better means of changing the dramatic taste of his

time than by giving translations of the foreign masterpieces. He also published some German plays. His "Deutsche Schaubühne" (1741–1745) were followed by an interesting account of all the dramatic works published in Germany from 1450 to the middle of the eighteenth century.

The second volume of M. Grucker, which is not yet published, will be chiefly devoted to Lessing. There will be a third volume on Goethe, who is a world in himself. The interest of the first volume is such that we can only hope that the author will soon give us the other two.

Correspondence.

MR. H. H. BANCROFT'S LITERARY METHODS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In answer to certain statements in your columns regarding my method of writing history, I would say that my work as finally laid out proved sufficient to occupy one man for two hundred years, and to accomplish it I must employ assistants. It was work that in all civilized and half-civilized societies has been deemed important; and for this western coast, where so much knowledge was fast dropping into oblivion, if fully done it must be done at once. As there was no government or society at hand disposed to undertake it, I could not relinquish my purpose on account of the magnitude of the task. Nor would gathering alone satisfy me. It seemed evident that unless I went on and placed the large, unwieldy mass of information in a form available to the world, it would be long before any one would do so.

My assistants are for the most part occupied in abstracting and preparing material. After long experience some of them are able to furnish me manuscript in a more or less advanced state, and of their highest services I gladly avail myself. The burden of the work, however, falls upon me, where it rightly belongs. For the past fourteen years I have devoted on an average more than eight hours a day to my literary work, and am doing so still. At least one-half of the manuscript thus far completed has been written by my own hand, and much of it from material of my own extracting, and the remainder has been so thoroughly revised and rewritten by me, according to the demands of the case, as to make it my own. I do not rewrite what is perfectly satisfactory to me merely for the sake of rewriting; I can employ my time and strength to better advantage. Of course I should be much better satisfied if I could perform all the labor myself, including even the indexing and note-taking. It is what I do that I take pleasure in, and not what others do for me; but, owing to the magnitude of the work, and having but one short lifetime before me, such a course is not possible.

It is my greatest happiness to recognize the merits of my assistants. I regard them as in a measure my handiwork. Though they have not been my teacher, I have learned from them, and honor them. Some of them have been my almost daily associates during the entire term of my literary efforts. Among them are my most valued and devoted friends; and it is not true that I have ever assumed aught rightfully belonging to them. Often have they attempted to restrain me in my public acknowledgments of their merits. I glory in them, in what they are doing and can do; and it is with thankfulness that I can say that were I to die to-morrow they could and would fairly enough finish my work. There is no attempt at secrecy about my method, as has been implied. My library and its details are and always have been open to the public, and I am not conscious of pretending to be other than I am. Results are more to me than means, but the results are valueless if the means are questionable. Early in these efforts I submitted specimens of my work to Eastern literary men, explained my method fully, and received their approbation. The honor of having done this work is of small moment to me in comparison with its full and faithful accomplishment.

As to the silly charge of having attempted to buy admission into the columns of respectable journals, I will say that I have never paid, or offered to pay, or authorized any one to pay, any editor or proprietor of any newspaper or other journal one dollar for the publication of anything regarding me or my work. Had I possessed the power and inclination thus to influence them, the necessity has never existed. As a rule the press has been very kind to me and just toward my work, rating the execution of it much higher than ever I dared to do myself. Only when a luckless volume for review has fallen into the hands of some one of a school of science-fanatics, pretending to honesty and fair-mindedness, who attempts to defame my work because I cannot adopt what appears to me an absurd theory, have I felt myself unfairly treated.

Hubert H. Bancroft.

San Francisco, February 6, 1883.

COLLECTION OF JUDGMENTS AGAINST STATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your recent comments upon Mr. Moore's plan for making States suable by their bondholders in the United States Supreme Court, you appear to regard the collection of judgments thus obtained as fraught with insuperable difficulties. I want to suggest what seems to me a simple method for this purpose. It consists in applying the device of garnishment to the collecting officers of the State for the benefit of the judgment creditor.

The problem is, not what is practicable under our present jurisprudence, simply modified by the restoration of State suability, but what is feasible under a new amendment, either itself providing for details or supplemented by authorized appropriate legislation.

All I aim to do is to indicate the path to the desired end. My plan would be something like this: After the rendition of the judgment against the State, let it be certified to the Federal Court within the State, and entered there. Then let that court appoint a Commissioner for the collection of the judgment, whose duty it shall be to deliver a certified copy thereof to the State Treasurer and to the collecting officers of the State, and make due return to the court. Let the judgment thenceforth constitute a paramount claim upon all collections of State revenue in the hands of the collecting officers, whose duty it shall be to make reports from time to time, as required, to the Federal Court, of the amounts in their hands, and to pay over to the Commissioner as ordered by the court; the Commissioner's receipts to constitute an acquittance to the officers against the State, and any proceedings by the State against them on account of their obedience to the Federal requirements to be removable to the Federal Court.

Let the compliance of the State officials be enforced, if necessary, by suits by the Commissioner upon their official bonds in the Federal Court. If the Treasurer receives any of the moneys ordered by the Federal Court to be paid to its Commissioner, let him also be liable therefor by suit in the Federal Court upon his official bond. Let the Federal Court have power, additionally, to punish disobedience of its orders by any State official as a contempt—by fine and imprisonment—one or both. Thus, the Federal authority would step in between the State and her collecting officers, and intercept, for the benefit of her creditor, the money collected by her officers, under her laws and by her methods.

If necessary, the garnishment could be applied to the individual taxpayers, the creditor's judgment being made a paramount lien upon their tax indebtedness to the State, payment of which to the Federal Court Commissioner might be enforced by process directed against them individually. This would be perfectly feasible, but the former method would be simpler.

Of course, there would be made a sufficient collection to cover all the expenses of the collection. Ample time might be given to the State to pay after the service of the certified copy of the judgment on the Treasurer—the lien of the judgment being, however, constituted by such service, so that thereafter valid payments could be made only to the Commissioner. The honesty of the Commissioner could be properly secured, and any losses from his dishonesty could be made to fall on the judgment creditor for whose benefit he was appointed. R. McP. Smith.

Nashville, Tenn., February 8, 1883.

[The laws of some of the New England States provide the creditor, in the case of debts owed by towns, with a remedy much more thorough even than garnishment. The creditor is allowed to collect his debt out of the individual property of the citizens. All he has to do is to select some land-owner, attach his real estate, and proceed to recover judgment. Town credit under this system is, we believe, very high. A constitutional amendment applying it to State debts, making the property of citizens liable jointly and severally to the extent of the obligation, would make the creditor as secure as he could be made in any way by law. There would probably be some difficulty in getting such an amendment passed, but probably no more than in making the constitutional changes proposed by our correspondent. The necessity of devising such schemes for enforcing judgments against States strongly illustrates the difficulty of engrafting suits against them by private creditors upon our system.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is a mode of Federal execution which, so far as I know, has not been proposed by those who are endeavoring to constrain the repudiating States to fulfil their engagements. If we could suppose it to be embodied by amendment in the Constitution, it would, I think, be efficacious. It would certainly act as a most serious check on the further perpetration of State rascalities. This mode is disfranchisement.

Let the amendment read that any State disregarding, or resisting the execution of, any judgment of the Supreme Court in a suit between States, or between the State and a citizen, should forfeit its representation in Congress and its electoral vote for the period of its contumacy. This would virtually be suspending the State from the Union, but would merely recognize its voluntary withdrawal from its Federal obligations. Meantime, Federal statutes would still be executed in the usual way through United States marshals with the Army and Navy at

their back. Congress could be left to certify and proclaim the delinquency of the State and apply the penalty, and fix the necessary procedure for its remission.

Whether a like remedy would be found practicable and useful by the States for their own defaulting or bankrupt counties and municipalities, I will not undertake to decide. Nor will I speculate on the effect of such a provision in the Federal Constitution on the Congressional sense of honor, when tested hereafter by such elementary moral questions as the redemption of the greenback, the just weight of the silver dollar, and the equitable distribution of the Geneva Award. A LAYMAN.

NEW YORK, Feb. 8, 1883.

LIBRARY OF JOHN WINTHROP, JR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of the Winthrop Papers you say: "It is mentioned that in 1640" John Winthrop, jr., "was possessed of a library of more than a thousand volumes." It seems that it is not generally known among historical scholars that this library now reposes in one of the upper galleries of the Society Library in New York.

The books of a man like Winthrop throw much light on the intellectual life of the seventeenth century. He who examines these will see that Winthrop, like Evelyn and other cultivated men of the time, had much respect for astrology. You remark upon the liberality with which he distributed medicines. He who examines these old books on *aurum potabile* and other marvellous remedies will not think the objects of his generous medical attentions very fortunate. Without doubt, Winthrop was "one of the most accomplished scholars of the age," as you say—the character of his large library proves so much—but it also serves to keep within due limits our admiration for the age.

EDWARD EGGLESTON.

LAKE GEORGE, N. Y., February 5, 1883.

"*LAY* (AND *LIE*) OF THE LAND."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR:

"The merits of Worcester's Dictionary are universally appreciated; but the circumstance that it was edited exclusively by American scholars shows itself, I think, in the following definition: '*Lay of the land*, the features or the relative position of the parts of any land or place.' This use of the word 'lay' I believe to be purely American, and that it would never be heard in England."

Thus, somewhat incautiously, writes "H. W. H." in No. 915 of the *Nation*. The expression, "irregular *lay* of the ground," occurs in the Rev. Sydney Smith's 'Elementary Sketches of Moral Philosophy,' p. 196 (London ed. of 1850); and I have repeatedly seen "lay," as there used, in books written by Englishmen. Who, further, familiar with the colloquial language of England, has not often heard it? Dr. Worcester, if I may judge from what I knew of him, would never have given his "*lay* of the land"—which Dr. Webster's editors are hardly justified in calling "low"—without notifying that it was peculiar to the United States, had he supposed that such was the case. "*Lay* of the land," no doubt originally a rusticism, and still a very common one, is wholly objectionable, as misstating the verb which it converts into a substantive. "*Lie* of the land," evidently suggested by it, is, however, analogically defensible. For "lie," in similar phrases, "H. W. H." quotes Mr. J. R. Green and Mr. E. A. Freeman. I may add that Cardinal Newman, ordinarily a most excellent authority for words and senses of words, has this "lie" at least five times, followed by "of a field," "of the land," "of a matter," "of the fields," "of a country." See his 'Lectures on Certain Difficulties,' etc., p. 325 (1850); 'The Idea of a University,' etc. (1852), p. 84 (ed. 1873); 'Essay in Aid of a Grammar of Assent,' p. 73 (1870); 'Essays, Critical and Historical,' vol. i., p. 146 (1871); 'Discussions and Arguments,' etc., p. 294 (1872). The "lie" in question belongs to the class of modern substantives which includes the more or less reputable "bathe," "dive," "drive," "find," "fix," "go," "meet," "read," and so forth.—Your obedient servant,

FITZEDWARD HALL.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, Jan. 24, 1883.

HENRY CLAY IN THE 'ENCYCLOPÆDIA BRITANNICA.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should like to call your attention to some curious statements contained in the notice of Henry Clay in the new edition of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' It is said that the Missouri Compromise, "while abolishing slavery in all other States north of lat. 36° 30′, permitted it in Missouri." Among the States "north of lat. 36° 30′" are Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and Kentucky. The same article informs us that Clay's "Omnibus Bill" of 1850 provided that "California should be received into the Union as a slave State, while, on the other hand, slavery should be prohibited in Columbia." The "Omnibus Bill," of course, provided for the admission of California with the constitution adopted by the Monterey Convention and ratified by the practically unanimous vote of the people. The Bill of Rights contained the clause: "Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, unless for the punishment of crimes, shall ever be tolerated in this State." By "Columbia" it is supposed that the District of Columbia is meant. So far from advocating the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, Mr. Clay had repeatedly and solemnly declared that, in his judgment, Congress had no constitutional power to take such action. The compromise measures of 1850, indeed, prohibited the slave trade in the District of Columbia, and doubtless it was a vague recollection of this running through the mind of the author that caused the statement criticised.

Clay's political career is said to have begun "in 1799, by attempting to persuade the State of Virginia to abolish slavery." A reference to Colton's 'Life of Clay' will show that for "Virginia" we should substitute "Kentucky." It was in the latter State, of which he was in 1799 a resident, that he attempted to have introduced into the new Constitution of the State a provision for gradual emancipation.

There are other statements and forms of expression in the article that seem to show that it was written by some one whose knowledge of American history and American constitutional law was of the most superficial character. It is to be regretted that a work of so wide circulation and so great an authority should contain so serious misrepresentations concerning a man whose life and deeds form an important part of the history of American political movement during more than forty years.—Respectfully,

JOHN C. ROSE.

BALTIMORE, Feb. 2, 1883.

ANATOMY AND THE ARTIST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reviewer of the 'Art Life of William Rimmer,' in your issue of December 21, 1882, in speaking of the "modern misconception" as to the relation of scientific anatomy to artistic expression, says: "We do not know that this misconception is anywhere more clearly recognized, or more forcibly criticised, than it is by the late Dr. John Brown, the well-known author of 'Spare Hours'—himself both an anatomist and an intelligent student of art." The passage quoted from the second series of 'Spare Hours,' beginning, "One other heresy I must vent," was first published in 1861, it would seem. It certainly does not lack clearness or force. But Dr. Robert Knox, of Edinburgh, who, if he did not teach anatomy to Dr. Brown, was a much greater heretic and anatomist than he, as well as a more considerable writer upon art, gave utterance in 1849 and in 1852 to quite as vigorous protests "against the doctrine that scientific knowledge is of much avail to the artist" as are found in your reviewer's quotations from Brown and Müller.

It may be of interest, therefore, to such of your readers as agree with your reviewer and the authors quoted to have their attention directed to the fuller and earlier expression of similar views by Dr. Knox. Such are to be found in Farr's 'Anatomy of the External Forms of Man,' edited, with additions, by Robert Knox, M.D., with an Atlas of twenty-eight plates, quarto (London: Baillière, 1849); 'Great Artists and Great Anatomists,' by Robert Knox, M.D. (London: Van Voorst, 1852); and 'A Manual of Artistic Anatomy,' by Robert Knox, M.D. (London: Renshaw, 1852). Of the 313 pages of text in the first-named work, Knox's Appendix embraces 103 pages, divided into six chapters, upon such topics as "The Elgin Marbles," "The Remains of Coptic Sculpture now in the British Museum," "The Antique Statues of Greece Compared with the Living Model," "The History of Artistic Anatomy and its Utility to the Artist," etc. Chapter v., whose caption is the last of the above-mentioned topics, begins thus: "The misdirection of the studies of the artist dates at least from the time of Michael Angelo; it was then that the anatomy of the schools—I mean the medical schools—took the place of the living anatomy—the only instruction of real utility to the artist." After noticing and emphasizing the objections of Dr. Farr and of Camper to such misdirected study, Dr. Knox goes on to say:

"A deep knowledge of the interior cannot then benefit the artist as an artist: studied too nicely, it might even affect his love for external forms, and his ability correctly to portray them. . . . The exterior alone interests the artist and mankind; all beauty of form resides in that exterior. That the interior has a deep relation to the exterior, is true; to explain those relations is a part of the object of this work. The proportions and direction of the skeleton influence, of course, the exterior form; but this relation is deep, unseen by the world, and must never be coarsely exhibited on the surface. It is the same with the muscles, tendons, and aponeuroses. What the anatomist is most desirous to display, the artist, if his ideas be sound, does his best to conceal. . . . It is with me a firm belief that no artist should draw from the dissected muscles and tendons as seen in the dissecting-room and on the table of the anatomical teacher. Such lectures and such materials for design are sure to misdirect his views. Let him dissect the muscles, tendons, and aponeuroses by all means, but draw them, when fully dissected, by himself, and merely for his own information, with a view to the furnishing of his mind with the recollection of *facts*, not of *forms*."

Dr. Knox's most forcible strictures on those who had confounded the relations of art and anatomy are contained in his later works. The following, from his 'Manual of Artistic Anatomy' (pp. 9-11), may suffice as a specimen:

"Were human ingenuity taxed to discover a method of instruction the best adapted to mislead the artistic student, to misdirect his views, to destroy his taste, to prevent him viewing the external world as Nature intended it should be viewed, the result might probably be a recom-

mendation of the present mode or method of instruction. Commence with triangles, squares, and circles; next, copy unmeaning outlines from flat surfaces, whose shadows are represented by a substantial black coloring matter; next, attend a course of lectures on the anatomy of the mangled corse, imperfectly described by a person called an anatomical demonstrator, a person to whom, in all probability, the term art conveys no tangible idea; and finally and lastly, that the mal-education may be complete, send the unhappy artist into a charnel-house, called a dissecting-room, that his mind may become accustomed, by frequent contemplation, to all that is detestable. Thus, by degrees, by continually looking at the interior, he at last forgets that there ever was an exterior—he confounds them together; through the exterior he sees only an interior; that interior which Nature intended should never be presented to human sight—that which under all circumstances she has so carefully concealed.

"This perversion has been of slow growth; it were idle to trace it here. Suffice it to say, that in England, utilitarian England, the coping-stone of folly was placed by Sir Charles Bell and Mr. Haydon. Misunderstanding the object of Da Vinci's dissections (whose matchless sketch-book now in the Queen's private library I have lately examined, and shall hereafter shortly describe), forgetting that Michael Angelo had himself admitted the error of his early studies; affecting ignorance of the fact that Raphael and the great masters of Greece and Italy were wholly ignorant of anatomy, or nearly so, in the sense they viewed it, they persisted in a theory and mode of study of the dead for the living which, had it been followed to the letter, would have destroyed art for a time in Britain."

Dr. Knox's description of Da Vinci's sketch-book is given on pages 159-162 of his 'Great Artists and Great Anatomists.' It scarcely need be said that he finds Da Vinci to have had a perfectly clear comprehension of the relation of anatomy to art. H.

Johns Hopkins University, February 5, 1883.

FURTHER INVESTIGATIONS AT EPIDAURUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The excavations of 1882 by the Archæological Society of Athens have confirmed Mr. Kavvadias's conjecture that the great theatre of Epidauros was provided with means of access at the wings by stairs leading to the διάζωμα at either side, and by doors in the wall enclosing the whole theatre, opening upon the terrace above the κοῖλον. The stage was, without doubt, rebuilt in Roman times; but its ancient plan was not changed, as is shown by the evident Hellenic character of the foundations.

After the conclusion of the exploration of the theatre, a large trench was opened north of the stadium, and soon disclosed the supposed remains of the tholos of Polykleitos—the ruins of a circular building of marble, 32.65 metres in diameter. Pausanias says of it:

"Near [the temple of Asklepios] stands a remarkable circular building of white marble, called the tholos. In it is a painting, by Pausias, of 'Eros,' who has thrown down his bow and arrows, and taken in their place a lyre. Here, too, is painted, also by Pausias, 'Drunkenness Drinking from a Glass Cup'; one can see in the picture that the cup is of glass, and a woman's face is visible through it. . . . Polykleitos was the architect of this circular building. . . ."

The ruins of the tholos are now entirely excavated, after several months of labor. The plan of the building resembles that of a circular temple, such as the Philippeion at Olympia. It is surrounded by two rows of columns—the outer row of Doric order, the inner resembling Ionic columns in all but the capitals, which are of a curious and new archaic Corinthian design. Beneath the pavement is a remarkable labyrinth-like substructure comprising three concentric circles, the spaces between the walls being so narrow as barely to leave room for a man to pass. The use for which this substructure was designed has not, according to Mr. Kavvadias, been clearly made out. So far as it is possible to form an opinion without seeing a plan of the building, it seems probable that these three concentric walls were simply the foundations for the two rows of columns and for the wall of the enclosed space, or cella, within them. Remains of nearly all the architectural elements of the tholos have been recovered, and its whole design is very beautiful, and promises to be of much importance in the history of ancient art.

In the course of this excavation were found a number of inscribed pedestals, still in their original positions east of the tholos, and the following pieces of sculpture: an Athena of colossal size, resembling closely the Athena of Antiochos in the Villa Ludovisi at Rome; a Roman Emperor wearing a cuirass finely sculptured with figures in relief, representing a Gorgon's head, the head of a satyr, griffins, trophies, etc.; a similar statue, the ornaments on the cuirass of which were painted instead of being carved in relief; two male figures of natural size, wearing the toga; a woman clad in the peplos, resembling the celebrated "Roman Maiden" from Herculaneum; a similar statue, resembling the Empress Livia in the Museum of Naples; besides other sculptures of less importance. All these statues are headless, and all date from Roman times. A number of small fragments of Hellenic workmanship were found also.

A short distance to the eastward of the tholos, upon a slight elevation covered with a thicket, were found the ruins of a peripteral Doric temple, 24.70 metres long, and 13.20 metres wide. Near the eastern end of this temple were unearthed a number of inscriptions, a statue of a man above natural size, of fine Roman workmanship, and a large relief representing Asklepios seated upon a highly ornate throne, with Hygieia before him, and a Nike and a female attendant on either side. Mr. Kavvadias is of opinion that the temple is that of Asklepios, and that this figure of the god is a free copy of the chryselephantine statue which once stood in it, and of which Pausanias gives the following account:

"The statue of Asklepios, which is of gold and ivory, is of less than half the size of that of Olympian Zeus at Athens. An inscription informs us that it is the work of the Parian Thrasymedes, son of Arignotos. The figure, which is seated upon a throne, holds in one hand a staff, while the other hand rests upon the head of the serpent; and his dog is represented lying beside him. Upon the throne are sculptured deeds of Argive heroes—Bellerophon destroying the Chimaira, and Perseus beheading Medousa. . . ."

Strabo tells us that this statue of Asklepios was removed to Rome. As Pausanias describes it as if it were still at Epidauros in his time, this would go to support Hirschfeld's theory, set forth in the *Archäologische Zeitung* for 1882, that Pausanias did not in general write from personal experience, but compiled his 'Description' from accounts written long before his day.

Close to the same front of the temple were discovered numerous fragments of sculpture of Hellenic workmanship; among them male and female heads, draped figures of women and undraped figures of men, several of them in violent action. These sculptures probably adorned the eastern pediment of the temple, and may have represented a combat of Centaurs and Lapiths. Near the western end of the temple was found a series of similar sculptures, belonging doubtless to the western pediment, in much better preservation, however, than those first discovered. These last sculptures, which are described as very graceful, represent figures of Amazons, both mounted and on foot; Nereids riding on hippocamps or on dolphins, or floating on the sea-waves; and some male figures. The heads are all broken from the bodies, but several of them have been found. The workmanship is excellent, and is believed by the excavators to be early. It is difficult to see, however, what connection the subjects represented can have with the myth of Asklepios. Pausanias says:

". . . Within the sacred grove are temples [besides that of Asklepios] to Artemis, . . . to Aphrodite, and to Themis; . . . and various shrines, including one to the divinities called the Bountiful, dedicated in my own time by the Senator Antoninus."

The temple of Asklepios may well, therefore, be still undiscovered, as, so far as the excavations have yet been carried, nothing further appears to have been brought forward in favor of the proposed identification, except the neighborhood of the temple to the tholos, and the finding near it of the Asklepios relief.—I am, sir, very respectfully, Thomas W. Ludlow.

Cottage Lawn, Yonkers, N. Y., Jan. 17, 1883.

THE LATE MR. BUNNEY, OF VENICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Of the many readers of the *Nation* who know and care about Venice, most will, I think, have known, or known of, the late Mr. Bunney. He was a familiar figure in the place for some twelve years past, and a great many American and English travellers, especially such as came to see Venice as disciples of Mr. Ruskin, found their way to his house on the Fondamenta San Biagio (a quay midway between the Piazzetta and the Public Garden), whence one looked out on the view all painters love best, the lagoon in front, and, on the right, San Giorgio, the Salute, and the Ducal Palace. During late years he was constantly to be seen on the Piazza, working at a large picture of St. Mark's. His picture is just now being exhibited in London, and it has drawn attention to the career of a man who, little known as he was to the great world, has left behind him work of a value unique in its way. The Church of St. Mark's has been oftener painted, perhaps, than any building in the world, and yet it has never, at least in modern times, been completely and accurately represented on canvas. Some six years ago Mr. Ruskin determined to get it so represented, and the painter whom he commissioned to do the work was Mr. Bunney.

The result is a picture which, as a monumental record of one of the most precious buildings in the world—a building doomed, apparently, to be soon destroyed by the modern restorer—is beyond all price. It shows the whole breadth of the great façade exactly as it has looked to us of the nineteenth century, just as the great picture of Gentile Bellini in the Accademia shows it as it looked to the Venetian of four hundred years ago, when the old mosaics, with their solemn colors, were still untouched under the five arches. For some six years, off and on, Mr. Bunney worked at this picture. Morning after morning he might be seen in his place on the north side of the Piazza, just by the Quadri caffé, sitting in front of his big easel, with an entrenchment of chairs behind him, to keep off the too-pressing crowd of small Venetians. Some six hundred mornings in all he spent thus. The labor, as he told his friends, proved to be much greater than he expected, well as he knew the nature of such work; but he determined to make it an absolutely faithful record of what he saw before him; and such it is—every morsel of carving, every visible bit of veining on the marble columns, truthfully put down. Such a picture is of course, in a sense, hardly so much a picture as an architectural drawing; and in this sense it is spoken slightingly of by some

critics, who complain of its "hardness," its "literalness." That the general effect is "hard" is, I think, undeniable, but its literalness is its great virtue; its value is in the value of what it represents. When the modern Venetian has "restored" away the loveliness, as we see it, of the lovely building, this picture, if well taken care of, will remain to tell those who come after us how that wonderful vision of beauty looked to our eyes.

There is something pathetic in the fact that the painter should have died just at the moment when he was about to bring to his own country, whence he had been absent some twenty years, the fruit of his long labor. It was in September last that a sudden and short illness carried him off, at the age of fifty-four. He had been, twenty-five years before, a pupil of Mr. Ruskin. Mr. Ruskin was one of the founders of the Workingmen's College (Frederick Maurice's legacy to the workmen of London), and for some five years (about 1854–1859) gave up an evening once a week to teaching in the art school which he had there established. Bunney was then a clerk in a London bank; Mr. Ruskin's teaching filled him with enthusiasm for the art as well as for the teacher, and he presently made it the business of his life. Not long after he went to Italy, and it was in Florence, Verona, Ravenna, and, most of all, Venice, that the rest of his years were passed. It was a life of hard, but happy, work, much of it done for his old master. He put his whole soul into his art; he cared for nothing but to do what he did absolutely as well as he could; and he won the regard and affection of the people among whom he lived. Every one in Venice knew him. "He was their painter," says a friend in a little memoir now before me; "they called him 'our painter with the golden hand,' 'il pittore di San Marco'; and a great painter too: 'è grande pittore il signor, è grande come Tintoretto,' said a gondolier, as he rowed a visitor away from Mr. Bunney's house, only a few days before his death."

This true-hearted and worthy man did not make a fortune out of his brush; he thought perhaps too little of his gains; so he has left but a slender provision for the widow and children who are mourning his loss. Allow me to add, in case these lines should be read by any of his American friends, that some of those who valued him—Mr. Ruskin, Mr. Holman Hunt, and a few more—are putting together a sum of money which they will present to Mrs. Bunney, "as a gift prompted by regard for her husband and his work, and by sympathy for her under her great loss." Mr. Ruskin has contributed £50. To any who would wish to have them, I will gladly send further particulars and a copy of the memoir I have mentioned; and should any of those interested desire to join in the intended gift, contributions may be sent either to myself (by order on the London General Post-office), or to Mr. Ellis Yarnall, 105 South Front Street, Philadelphia.

Mr. Ruskin intends, I believe, to place the picture of St. Mark's in the museum he has founded at Sheffield, the "St. George's" Museum. Many will wish it could have found its way to the London National Gallery, but, in any case, it will be accessible to all who care for the wonderful building it represents.

I ought to add that the greater part of the drawings which Mr. Bunney has left behind him are now in London (at 148 New Bond Street), and to be sold for the benefit of his family.

R. B. Litchfield.

10 Whitehall Place, London, S.W.

Notes.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready a new edition of Haydon's 'Dictionary of Dates,' which has been revised by Mr. George Cary Eggleston; and a 'History of Latin Literature, from Ennius to Boethius,' by George Augustus Simcox, in two volumes, with separate indexes and chronological tables.

An 'Autobiography of Thurlow Weed,' edited by his daughter, Miss Harriet A. Weed, and a 'Memoir of Thurlow Weed,' by his grandson, Mr. T. W. Barnes, will make two companion volumes, 8vo, of which Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be the publishers. They can hardly fail to be interesting in a high degree. The same firm have in preparation a 'Lowell Birthday Book.'

Fords, Howard & Hulbert will shortly publish 'Dust,' an English novel by Julian Hawthorne: and 'Books, and How to Use Them,' by John C. Van Dyke.

T. Whittaker has arranged for an American edition of the Rev. Jos. A. Beet's 'Commentaries' on Romans and on Corinthians.

Last May we reviewed at some length the first two volumes of the new edition of the Messrs. Audsley's 'Popular Dictionary of Architecture and the Allied Arts' (London: Sampson Low; New York: Putnams). After a noticeably long interval we have now received the third volume of this excellent work (Bar to Buttery). The article Basilica fills more than sixty of its broad and beautifully clear pages; that on Baths nearly thirty; that on Base as many. These are the leading articles; but Monumental Brasses, Brickwork, and Bronze are somewhat fully treated. The illustrations are good and abundant.

Hoyt, Fogg & Donham, Portland, have become the publishers of the 'Richardson Memorial,' by Mr. John Adams Vinton, published in 1876. The founders of the American family in question settled in Woburn, Mass.

We have received from the Messrs. Harper volumes 64 and 65 of their *Magazine*, volume 26 of the *Weekly*, and volume 15 of the *Bazar*, all for the year just past. In turning over the pages of the *Magazine* one sees the germs of several books since published, and of others yet awaiting completion, leaving still a large amount of matter whose value is permanent even if not expressed in separate publication. The illustrations of course have an endless career before them, and one cannot but be struck by the treasures of portraiture which all these periodicals contain. The French leaders—including Plon-Plon, Jules Ferry, the Comte de Paris, Gambetta, etc.; the English leaders, from Parnell and Chamberlain to C. W. Dilke and the Marquis of Salisbury; the chief London journalists; the Bernadottes; the Mendelssohns; the Philadelphia notables; the old New York ship-builders; the organizing spirits of the Young Men's Christian Association—are some of the suites of likenesses here preserved. They are, however, unequally distributed, for while the *Weekly* gets about 240, the *Bazar* is allowed but 10—perhaps on the theory that subscribers to the latter will surely see the former. Some more occult reason must exist for the disproportion in the facetiæ on the last pages of the two weeklies: or is the gentler sex really the more humorous?

The sixth bound volume of the *Sanitary Engineer* is also before us. A glance at the index shows the very wide scope of this journal, and its permanent utility for reference in every department of domestic convenience and health, not to mention its present function as mouthpiece for the National Board of Health.

For the benefit of such of our readers as preserve their files of the *Nation*, and who can already avail themselves of the Q. P. Index and of the new Poole's Index, we call attention to still another reference aid. In the *Publishers' Weekly* for February 3 Mr. Thorvald Solberg's admirable "Catalogue of Books and Articles relating to Literary Property" reaches and includes the *Nation* (vols. 1-34). The subject Copyright, at least, can now be said to be exhaustively indexed for this journal.

The third and fourth issues of the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science include "Local Government in Illinois," by Albert Shaw, with "Local Government in Pennsylvania," by E. R. L. Gould; and "Saxon Tithing-men in America," by the editor, Mr. Herbert B. Adams.

The January Bulletin of the Archæological Institute of America has news of the operations at Assos, and a highly interesting letter from Mr. Bandelier, reviewing his labors last year in New Mexico among the Pueblos. The editors say: "It seems probable that when the work is completed, the remains at Assos will not only present the most perfect idea of a Greek city that is anywhere to be obtained, but will afford a better insight into the life of an antique city than is to be gained even from the streets and houses of Pompeii." And Mr. J. T. Clarke himself writes: "The fortifications of Assos . . . are not only the finest remains of Greek military architecture, but the only ones known in which the development of the masonry can be traced in examples, side by side, dating from the walls which opposed the Lydian conquest to a late Roman period. . . . Seven distinct styles of wall represent as many centuries."

The fourth number of the *Library* of Cornell University concludes Prof. Fiske's list of the living authors of Iceland, and continues the classified list of works on mathematics.

Forestry Bulletin No. 24 of the U. S. Census contains a table, prepared by Mr. S. P. Sharples, showing the amount of tannin in the bark of some of the trees of the United States. The mangrove of the Gulf Coast is far in advance of the rest; the red and black spruce of the Interior Pacific standing next. But this does not afford a practical test of the value for tanning.

Professor Hall, of Washington, has recently published the first determination of the parallax of a fixed star ever made in this country. With the great telescope of the Naval Observatory he observed α Lyrae on seventy-seven nights, and 61^2 Cygni on sixty-six, the observations extending through nearly all of 1880 and 1881. As the result of his observations and reductions Professor Hall obtains for the annual parallax of the first star 0."1797, and for the second 0."4783. These values are not largely different from the best determinations previously made elsewhere; and, expressed in terms of the velocity of light, they mean that α Lyrae is eighteen years away, and 61^2 Cygni a little less than seven.

We learn from the *Academy* that a judge of the Court of Probate, Sir James Hannen, has arranged with the authorities of the British Museum to have Shakspere's will autotyped and sold at a low figure. This will popularize the discussion over the spelling of the poet's signature.

Mr. Leslie Stephen's tentative list of names in A for his new 'Dictionary of National Biography' fills twelve octavo pages in double columns, with some 800 names, as we roughly estimate. The Andersons take the lead in number, followed close by the Allans and Allens. Mr. Stephen (whose address is care of Messrs. Smith, Elder & Co., 15 Waterloo Place, London, S. W.) asks for corrections and additions. We will accordingly suggest Gen. William Alexander ("Lord Stirling," of Revolutionary fame), and the lamented Dr. F. E. Anstie, founder of the *Practitioner*, and author of numerous important

medical works. We must think, too, that the omission of John Quincy Adams is an oversight, the rule for the admission of any Americans being, we understand, that they should have been born British subjects. This explains, at least, both John Adams and Samuel Adams, and Ethan Allen (Mr. Stephen, following Thomas, adopts 1742 as his birth-year, but 1737 and 1739 are given by other authorities), and Fisher Ames, and Benedict Arnold. It does not explain, however, "Arthur, Thomas S. (*popular author*), b. 1809," if he be no other than our Timothy Shay Arthur, born in that year in New York State.

Mr. Stephen, by the way, has been succeeded in the conduct of the *Cornhill Magazine* by Mr. James Payn.

On Longfellow's birthday, February 27, a general subscription will be taken up throughout the country in behalf of the memorial fund. Contributions may be sent to the treasurers of the auxiliary associations in several cities, or to the Longfellow Memorial Association at Cambridge, Mass.

The sixth annual exhibition of the Society of American Artists will be opened at the gallery in the Kurtz Building, Madison Square, on March 26, closing April 28. Transferred to Boston, the collection will be there exhibited as the annual exhibition of the Museum of Fine Arts. March 17 is the day for receiving paintings and statuary (not heretofore exhibited in New York).

An international art exhibition will be held in the Glass Palace at Munich, from July 1 to October 15, 1883, which will enable American artists to compete for a first or second-class gold medal, and to find a market for their works. America, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, England, France, Germany, Greece, Holland, Italy, Russia, and other countries will be represented, either singly or in groups. In assigning prizes no special reference will be made to nationality, but simply to the artistic qualities of the works submitted for judgment. Many of the works will be disposed of by lottery, and the directors call attention to the fact that during the last Exposition almost half a million marks were received for pictures disposed of to visitors. Pictures must be sent so as to arrive in Munich during the month of May, except by special arrangement with the Committee (in reference to the Paris Salon of 1883). Recipients of a first prize at a previous exhibition cannot again compete. The class of works that will be accepted are paintings, sculpture, and objects pertaining to architecture and the reproductive arts, excepting copies of paintings, photographs, and all works of art shown at previous exhibitions in Munich.

In September the house of H. Böhlau, in Weimar, will begin publishing a critical collective edition of Luther's works in commemoration of the four hundredth anniversary of his birth.

Encouraged probably by the success of MM. Carré and Barbier's fantastic drama "Les Contes d'Hoffmann," both as a play and later as a libretto for Offenbach's music, two hitherto unknown French dramatists have produced a drama, "Les Contes d'Edgar Poë," which has been accepted by the Théâtre de l'Ambigu-Comique, in Paris. M. Sardou, it may be remembered, used the "Purloined Letter" as the basis of his charming comedy, "Les Pattes de Mouche," and it is rumored that Mr. Dion Boucicault has in his desk a play suggested by the "Murder in the Rue Morgue."

Mr. Christern sends us specimen pages of the *Club-Almanach*, newly devised and published in Paris by M. Hinrichsen. It is a square little book, in dainty attire, illustrated with portraits of the Prince of Wales, the Empress of Austria, and the Duc d'Aumale, and pictures of *Shotover*, *Bruce*, and *Rayon d'Or*. Its genealogical portion and its "annuaire diplomatique et consulaire" bring it into partial competition with the *Almanach de Gotha*. In other respects, this publication aims to be the indispensable guide of the clubman and sportsman.

—The *American Law Review* is now published at St. Louis, instead of Boston, and the *Southern Law Review* is merged in it, so far, at least, as to lose its identity of name. In editorial management the consolidated magazine shows no special local influence, there being a good collection of technical articles and a dissertation by Mr. Joel Prentiss Bishop, on the "elements distinguishing the successful from the ordinary legal practitioner," of the kind that most legal periodicals publish from time to time—why, we do not know; certainly not for the novelty of the ideas contained in them. There is one curious feature of legal periodical literature in this country, and that is the infrequency of articles on legal subjects possessing a general political or social interest. As compared with similar publications abroad, our legal periodicals are entirely devoted to the publication of articles which will furnish a lawyer with recent cases for briefs. There is little in them to show that the bar has any aims or standards or interests apart from money-getting. The *American Law Review* did something to correct this tendency by publishing articles on current topics possessing more than purely technical interest; and we trust that, under its new management, it will not altogether abandon the attempt.

—The February number of the *Popular Science Monthly* contains an article, by Prof. E. W. Gilliam, entitled "The African in the United States," which deserves notice as being an excellent illustration of how "figures can be made to lie." The author, who is an alarmist, by a little manipulation of the results of the last two censuses, finds that the colored race is gaining rapidly upon the whites, and that unless something is done, and that quickly, the former will ere long outnumber, and consequently rule the latter, either by force or the ballot. The methods by which the author arrives at his results are unique, and may, perhaps, be examined to advantage. He finds that during the decade in question the whites increased about 29 per cent., the blacks 34 per cent. From the former he subtracts 9 per cent. to allow for his guess at the immigration which we have received during the decade (which, by the way, is a very bad guess); and from the latter, 5 per cent. for his guess at the extent of omissions by the Census of 1870, leaving 30 (*sic*). Then he restores the 5 per cent., making the normal rate of increase of the blacks 35 per cent., "as an obvious consideration points to the conclusion that the blacks will for the future develop in the South under conditions more and more favorable." Then he reasons that, as 20 per cent. of increase in ten years implies a doubling in thirty-five years, and as 35 per cent. implies a doubling in twenty years, therefore, about a century hence, our population will stand as follows:

Northern whites	240,000,000
Southern whites	96,000,000
Total whites	336,000,000
Southern blacks	192,000,000

—The process by which this conclusion is reached resembles that known as "guessing at the half and multiplying it by two." He is a bold man who, knowing anything of the subject, ventures to predict what our population will be, even in the roundest of numbers, half-a-dozen decades hence; and it may be added that the more one knows regarding the laws of population, the less inclined is he to indulge in such guesses. One thing only is certain in regard to our future, which is that the present rate of increase of population, whether white or black, will not be maintained, but will constantly diminish. Again, the writer is not justified in throwing out the increase from immigration, as this can be relied upon as a large element of increase for many decades. On the other hand, if it was just to take off 5 per cent. from the black increase on account of omissions in the Census of 1870, the grounds upon which it was restored are not clear. In any case, the faulty Census of 1870 (for that it was very faulty is now universally acknowledged) totally invalidates all Prof. Gilliam's conclusions. We have no means of knowing with any certainty whether 2 or 20 per cent. of the negroes escaped the enumerators, and his 5 per cent. can be only the merest surmise. Still, it is an interesting question whether the colored element is relatively gaining or losing in this country. The answer cannot be got from a comparison with the Census of 1870, for the reason just given. The Census of 1860, although known to have been to a certain small extent faulty, was much more nearly complete than that of 1870. Whatever its omissions may have been, they would have tended toward *enlarging* the rate of increase of the colored population. The disturbing influences of the War of the Rebellion were unquestionably felt much more by the whites, both North and South, than by the negroes, inasmuch as the former were the principal actors in it. Hence, a comparison between the results of the Eighth and Tenth Censuses is of great value, and whatever error is involved is on the side of increase of the negroes. The rate of increase of the whites from 1860 to 1880 was 61 per cent., that of the blacks 48 per cent. Judging from these figures, it would seem that the Government would scarcely be justified in ordering a general "exodus" of the negroes, in order to insure a white man's government in the future.

—In part 6 of vol. i. of 'Astronomical Papers of the American Ephemeris and Nautical Almanac,' Professor Newcomb collects all observations of transits of Mercury, beginning with those of Halley at St. Helena in 1677, and ending with the transit of 1881, observed in Australia, the Sandwich Islands, and California. In the subsequent discussion there are two results which outweigh all others in importance—one, the possible variation of the sidereal day, and the other, the discordance between the theoretical and observed motions of the perihelion of Mercury's orbit, first indicated by the investigations of Leverrier thirty-five years ago, and which has been the chief argument for the existence of intra-Mercurial planets. Many years ago Professor Newcomb's researches on the motion of the moon pointed toward a variation from absolute uniformity in the earth's rotation on its axis, and, not long after, a preliminary investigation of the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites confirmed the same hypothesis. The transits of Mercury now verify this result in a remarkable degree, notwithstanding which it still seems to him premature to reach any positive conclusion in the matter. As for the second result from the discussion of the transits, the five available methods of determining the mass of Venus are first considered—giving finally for its value 1-405000 that of the sun—and subsequently it is concluded that the discordance in the motion of the perihelion of Mercury really exists, and is indeed larger than Leverrier originally supposed. Speculating on the possible causes of this unexplained discrepancy, Professor Newcomb remarks that, as the question now stands, all hypotheses that the observed phenomenon is produced by the attraction of unknown matter in the neighborhood of the sun or Mercury must

be dismissed as at least highly improbable. He shows that any deviation from or modification of the law of gravitation which would produce the observed effect is inadmissible. Weber's electrodynamic theory is also considered, and found to tally in no wise with the facts. And, lastly, the necessary steps are indicated toward an exact determination of the astronomical character of the phenomena involved. The investigation of the transits of Mercury is the concluding memoir of the first volume of the 'Astronomical Papers,' and the general introduction to the volume accompanies it. In this Professor Newcomb reviews the work of previous investigators who have devoted themselves to the theories and tables of the celestial motions, and indicates the leading features of the plan which he has adopted for constructing a new series of such tables on one consistent and fully-elaborated theory.

—It is not so very long ago that it was wonderful when a French novel was sold into a fifth or tenth edition—the "edition" of a Parisian publisher being a highly variable quantity. But times change, and the Frenchman is beginning to read more. Three of M. Zola's books have between them attained a circulation of more than a quarter of a million copies. M. Daudet's 'Numa Roumestan' passed its sixtieth edition, and M. Droz's 'Monsieur, Madame et Bébé' its hundred and sixteenth. M. Claretie's 'M. le Ministre' sold over 50,000 copies, and his later 'Le Million' has already sold about 45,000. M. About's 'Roman d'un Brave Homme' has sold about 30,000, while Henry Gréville's (Mme. Alice Durand's) 'Sonia' and 'Dosia' have been sold to the extent of 21,000 and 39,000 copies respectively. M. Ludovic Halévy's 'Abbé Constantin'—of which there are at least three rival American translations—has passed its thirty-fifth edition, while his collection of tales about 'Monsieur et Madame Cardinal' has reached its twenty-seventh. All, or nearly all, of these books have been translated in America, although, curiously enough, hardly one has been translated in England. Chief among the novelists less known in America is M. Georges Ohnet, whose 'Serge Panine,' aided by a dramatization, has been sold to the tune of 75,000 copies, while his later 'Maître de Forges' follows fast with 60,000. Even plays, if they are very successful, may have a sale simply astounding to an American. M. Pailleron's "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie" is in its twenty-fifth edition; and the fine and strong "Fourchambault" of M. Émile Augier surpassed this, if we mistake not.

—It is an old sarcasm that "orthodoxy is my doxy, and heterodoxy is some other man's doxy." It might just as well be said that "freedom is letting you do what I approve of, tyranny is preventing me from doing what I want to." Thus, for a recent example, free thought appears to be liberty to think for one's self *within certain bounds*, in the opinion of the Protestant Faculty of Theology of Paris. When the Dean of that Faculty was installed he declared: "The faith which comes from authority has had its day. No one here thinks of resuscitating it. We practise free inquiry in its fullest extent; we apply it in every branch of our instruction." These are brave words, and no doubt the Faculty applauded them. They promised to every professor the largest liberty of investigation and of expression. Perhaps they were in discreet. It is so difficult, when one has arrived at a certain point himself, when he sees clearly that the ground which he has left behind is utterly untenable, and equally clearly that there is no reason whatever for proceeding a step further, because one is now upon an absolutely firm foundation—it is so hard to foresee that others will ever doubt this solidity and want to move further on. But the time is sure to come when the creed—for liberalism always has a creed even if unformulated—proves too narrow for some of its holders, and there is a split in the party, trouble in the church, or a dismissal from the university, as the case may be.

—To the Paris Faculty the evil day has come in a discourse pronounced at the opening of the new term on the 7th of November, before an assembly of pastors and laymen, by M. Maurice Vernes, who has been Professor of Philosophy ever since the Faculty was established. "Thought," said M. Vernes, "is certainly not a secretion of the brain, which would be an absurdity, since such an expression supposes a gross confusion between the physical and the intellectual act; but the writer who said that vice and virtue are 'products like sugar and vitriol,' set forth, though in a paradoxical and elliptical form, a proposition which we can adopt—on one condition, however, that we rigorously distinguish the act viewed in its physical and in its moral aspect. While sugar and vitriol are the product of relatively simple chemical reactions, the internal act or state called virtuous or vicious, considered on its material side, is the product of an action of the human cerebral organism which is infinitely complicated, though strictly subject to the laws of biology." And again: "From the study of the world, inorganic or living, arises the idea of order, of force, and of law. I do not see why we should not embrace these ideas of order, force, and law under the name of God. Can we go further on this plane, and affirm that the world is directed by an intelligent being analogous to ourselves, in a word by a Providence? I doubt, and I will give you the reasons for my hesitation." Such language as this was indeed fitted to try the nerves of a theological faculty, as it certainly astonished the audience. There have no doubt been protests and consultations, and the result of it all is that, when the discourse was published, it was with a note saying that the effect produced by the address had been such that M. Vernes, believing that his presence would hereafter be a cause of weakness to an institution whose success he ardently desired, had manifested his intention of quitting the Faculty, to serve the University in connection with some non-religious body. This is in pitiful contrast to the Dean's inaugural; but it is what will always happen when such bodies are dependent upon public opinion, as long as public opinion does not recognize that in philosophy nothing is to be expected in the way of doctrine but more or less plausible conjecture, and nothing ought to be demanded of teachers but ability and honesty.

—The official "Discours et Rapport" of M. Trasenster, Rector of the University of Liége, of which we made brief mention a few weeks ago, is of general interest. This university has made great progress during recent years, especially under the administration of M. Trasenster, who has just received the unusual honor of a reëlection for a term of three years. During the academic year 1881–1882 there were 1,203 students, of whom 379 were new entries. In law there were 273, in medicine 196 students; the whole university had only 98 foreigners enrolled, of whom more than one-fourth were from Holland and Luxembourg. It now offers, however, many attractions to foreign students, for it occupies a very high, almost the first place, among the universities of French-speaking countries. There are distinguished names in its list of instructors — De Laveleye, Van Beneden, and others. The Government, too, has made liberal appropriations for the construction and equipment of buildings. There are already new *instituts* for "astrophysique," botany, and pharmacy; those for anatomy, zoölogy, physiology, and pathological anatomy will all be completed before long. It is hoped to rebuild the hospital and add other buildings. The spacious edifices already provided for are modelled after the new German university buildings, and will offer fine opportunities for the prosecution of research. A visit to Liége leaves the impression that the city is fast becoming a leading centre of intellectual activity.

—In his Discourse M. Trasenster discusses the higher education of women and their admission to the university. He opens with a careful review of the status of women in different countries as regards their university or college education. In the three universities of Zürich, Bern, and Geneva there were over one hundred women in 1881. In Russia the movement has progressed rapidly, but most fitfully, owing to governmental interference, yet at present hundreds of women devote themselves to advanced study. The establishment of Girton College and of the London Medical School for Women, and the admission of women to various university examinations, show that a similar change is taking place in Great Britain. But it is in the United States that the higher education of women is most extended. In Sweden and in Italy the same revolution is occurring; in Germany alone it has made no progress. In Belgium the question of the admission of women to the universities for the study of medicine was officially presented to the State Universities by Minister Delcour in 1875. The answer favored their admission. Since then the University of Brussels, which does not belong to the state, has admitted a few women. Last year a woman for the first time applied at Liége, and was matriculated in the course of pharmacy. M. Trasenster concludes that the University must prepare to take up the problem of female education, and he favors trying it. He discusses the pros and cons, and while admitting that women are in certain ways restricted, expresses strongly his conviction that it is right to open careers for those who must earn their own support, and wise to cultivate the intelligence of those who are to be wives, companions, and mothers, for such will have enriched their own lives, will elevate the standard of young men, and better the education of children.

—By an odd coincidence, three of the four pieces played at Friday afternoon's rehearsal for the Fourth Philharmonic Concert were marked No. 1: Haydn's E flat symphony, Max Bruch's first violin concerto, and Schumann's first symphony in B flat. Add to this that the performance throughout was "number one," too, and we have left only one exception—a new concert overture by Hugo Reinhold—which can hardly be classed in this category. Only a week ago a Reinhold scherzo was produced as a novelty, which was as original as it was well scored. The new overture is only well scored; the ideas in it are insignificant. The Bruch concerto was played by Mr. John F. Rhodes, who won a success with it rarely accorded a new-comer. For some reason or other, the almost exclusively feminine audiences at afternoon rehearsals are usually very undemonstrative; but Mr. Rhodes made such a favorable impression that he was recalled three times, and as it seemed inadvisable to repeat a part of the concerto, and there was no piano on the stage, he finally played a movement from one of Bach's violin sonatas. What is particularly noticeable about this young violinist is his genuine musical taste and intelligence. There is

nothing of the hot-house juvenile prodigy about him, and there is hope, therefore, that he may develop into a first-class violinist. Already his tone is large, intense, pure, and rich, and his phrasing beyond reproach. His modest and natural bearing and apparent freedom from nervousness are other points in his favor. With the applause of a Philharmonic audience for a testimonial, he may now make his appearance anywhere, and it is only to be hoped that he may remain as free from the tricks of virtuosity and showy sentimentality as he now seems to be. The two symphonies which formed the beginning and end of the programme not only were interesting in themselves, but served as an eloquent lecture on the history of music. If in the Haydn symphony every phrase seems self-evident, as it were, and often trite, it must be remembered that in Haydn's day this was not the case. The minor composers who followed Haydn used his phrases and thoughts over and over again, until many of them became as meaningless as gossip about the weather. As an orchestral composer, Schumann cannot claim credit for so great an innovation as Haydn, who first individualized the different families of instruments, and made the speech of each accord with its natural emotional character; but how much more concise and pregnant are his ideas than Haydn's, and how much deeper he has penetrated into the mysterious depths of the world of harmony. In this respect, indeed, Haydn is much inferior to Bach, who preceded him by half a century. It would be interesting if we could hear at these concerts some of the orchestral works of Bach's son Philip Emanuel, who forms a sort of link between him and Haydn. Some of his quaint turns and phrases would have all the relish of novelty to a modern audience.

REBER'S HISTORY OF ANCIENT ART.

History of Ancient Art. By Dr. Franz von Reber. Revised by the author. Translated and augmented by Joseph Thacher Clarke. Harper & Bros. 1882.

To collect and set in order the characteristics of historical art, to analyze them and trace their origins from a remoter antiquity, to study the reciprocal influences of contemporary arts, to note the gradual changes wrought by nations in the forms and processes which they have inherited, and to indicate how, under the influences of a more advanced civilization, these forms and processes are gradually developed into harmonious systems or styles—is equivalent to pursuing the study of humanity by the observation of its most natural expressions. An orderly and scientific exposition, therefore, of the development of art must necessarily embrace the essential part of the history of races; and the archæologist who uses his erudition with this great function in view makes a contribution to the knowledge of mankind of a sort impossible to be obtained by any other processes of investigation. But the conventional method employed in histories of art, whether of architecture, sculpture, or painting, results either in dry catalogues of characteristics or, if their evolution is attempted, in fruitless speculations, too much warped by theories to be of essential value. The testimony of art has, therefore, been almost inaccessible to the writer of general history. It is a curious fact that the evidence of an architectural form, of a characteristic of decorative sculpture or painting, of a variation in fictile types, has not been recognized in any essay professing to trace and define the progress of any phase of civilization. Dr. Freeman, among English historians, has, it is true, pointed out in an intelligent manner how such testimony may be used in throwing light upon certain points of political history, where its usefulness seems so self-evident that the failure of Gibbon and Hume and Hallam to give it at least equal rank with the evidence of documents and archives can only be accounted for by the absence of convenient archæological authority. As for questions of ethnology, in which the contemporaneous evolution of types of art would seem to render the most direct assistance, we are not aware that the existence of such sources of illumination has ever been suspected in any exposition of the subject.

The application of a cool, scientific method to the history of art has become, therefore, a matter of great importance to general literature. We have had an abundance of speculative, sentimental, antiquarian, and transcendental views of art, and innumerable handbooks, more or less partial in statement and narrow in scope. We have had our Lübke, our Kugler, our Fergusson, who have given us monumental and invaluable personal critiques. There has still been wanting a work concise, judicial, impersonal, presenting the wide-extended field in just perspective—rather a general compend of modern scholarship than an essay of original research however profound, or of opinion however learned. This want was first met eleven years ago by Prof. Reber, of Munich, who may fairly claim to have then first presented to the world, in a popular treatise on the history of ancient art, a trustworthy digest of the best archæological information of his time, compact but lucid in statement, and arranged according to a logical method which commends the work alike to the specialist and to the general reader. The first American edition, now before us, has enjoyed the advantage of a special revision by the author, and a very material enlargement (based upon the vast accumulation of recent discoveries and investigations) by Mr. J. T. Clarke, his former pupil, who has brought to this work the same indomitable spirit and the same trained enthusiasm which, applied to the excavations at Assos, now conducted under his competent leadership, are destined, we trust, to bring a new honor to the American name. It is to be observed that these copious additions, which were necessary to bring the work up to the standard of to-day, have been made with the approval of Dr. Reber, whose prudence has tempered the zeal of his pupil with excellent results.

The scheme of the work is comprehensive and symmetrical. Successive chapters, treating, in due proportion, of the architecture, sculpture, and painting—first, of Egypt; second, of Chaldea, Babylonia, and Assyria; third, of Persia; fourth, of Phœnicia, Palestine, and Asia Minor—conduct the reader by regular steps to the supreme culmination of those arts in Greece. The sixth division treats of Etruria, and the final division describes the arts of Rome, which were the outgrowth of all precedent forms, colored in the process of transition to this final expression by the political, social, and geographical conditions of successive families of the human race. We are finally led to the period of the debasement of Roman arts and to the threshold of the Christian era. To one who is interested in tracing the progress of civilization through the arts, the chapter on Phœnicia—which until lately has been the least-known country of the ancient world—must have a peculiar interest. The investigations of De Vogüé in Syria, the still more recent explorations of the French expedition under Renan in Palestine and its neighborhood, the discoveries in Cyprus by Di Cesnola, and the precious relics of Phœnician art found by Dr. Schliemann in the tombs of Mycenæ, have rendered it possible to place this ancient civilization in its true relation with the historical series; and this volume has used the new evidence thus brought together in our time with prudence and discretion. Previous handbooks have given us theories concerning the blending of the arts of the Euphrates and the Tigris, on the one hand, and of the Nile, on the other, in this mysterious region. We have here the proof of the nature, character, and proportions of this peculiar union, of which the most important direct result was the archaic art of Ionia and its influence on the Hellenic styles.

Although this work is mainly concerned with the processes which led immediately to Greek and Roman art, not less interesting is the glimpse it affords of the eastward as well as the westward development of this ancient Mesopotamian civilization. We have thus two streams diverging from this traditional source—one westward, as we have seen, through Asia Minor, Syria, the islands of the sea, and the Hellenic peninsula; the other eastward, to have its influence on the arts of Persia and India, and thence, through the Arabs, to form the style of the Saracens—but both strangely destined to unite again, through Roman architecture on the one hand, and through Mohammedan architecture on the other, in the arts of mediæval Christendom.

Mr. Clarke, in speaking of the temple reliefs of Assos in his first report, published last year by the Archæological Institute of America, so admirably characterizes the function of his especial investigations in supplying an important link between the carvings of those Oriental civilizations and the sculptures of Greece, that we are tempted to cite from that report a passage which perhaps will best explain the spirit of the volume now before us:

> "It is only by defining the position of such works that the application of the historic method to the study of intellectual and artistic growth can be of value. Archæological investigations can in no wise give a more direct and practical assistance to the sculpture of to-day than by indicating the path followed by the early Greek artists in their progress toward supreme excellence."

Too much ground is covered by the 472 pages of this work to make possible a really exhaustive treatment of any branch of the subject; but the discipline and good judgment brought by both author and editor to the difficult task of epitomizing the abounding results of modern European scholarship and research in the great field of archæology, so as to produce, even within this comparatively narrow scope, what may justly be called a history of ancient art, are sufficiently evident. The very compactness of a book so composed, by bringing closer together the successive steps of progress in the evolution of form, has the advantage of illustrating to the popular mind, more clearly than would otherwise be possible, the important principle that a true history of art is a history of growths rather than of inventions, and must, therefore, include a study of the human mind through a series of its visible expressions, advancing, according to its opportunities, toward a perfect ideal. But this compactness of form does not necessarily imply any meagreness in the record. On the contrary, the book abounds with new facts justified by the latest discoveries. Among these, we may note the ingenious application to the flanks of the doorway of the Treasury of Athens at Mycenæ of the curious form of reversed shaft, tapering downward instead of upward, which occurs as a decoration between the famous ramping lions over the gateway of the fortress of the Atridæ—the most ancient known piece of sculpture in Europe. Thus, in Mr. Clarke's restoration, the well-known fragment of these shafts, hitherto set down in all the books as a base, here appears reversed at the top of the shaft as a capital, thus possibly presenting the Pelasgic step in the evolution of the

Doric echinus. Another argument in favor of the reversed shaft might be found in the fact that this adjustment brings the side of the shaft parallel with the battering jambs of the doorway, which may thus have suggested an experiment not recognized by the severer taste of the later Greeks as worthy of development, but reappearing, perhaps, in the termini of the Romans.

In view of the careful studies which the editor has made of the Greek Doric order, and of the somewhat polemic tone of his previous discussions of the subject, one naturally turns to the extended passages on this all-important theme with the expectation of finding some trace of dogmatism there. But if we except the hypæthral question, the treatment is in the main as temperate as it is clear and decisive. In fact, these passages constitute the most valuable, as they are the most interesting, feature of the volume; they are admirably detailed from both a technical and historical point of view, and the evidence in favor of the wooden prototype of construction is summed up with sufficient illustration and clearness of statement. The polychromy of the orders, however, is dismissed in a paragraph, which, although it justly epitomizes the soundest knowledge which we possess, and wisely refrains from entertaining the reader with any such speculations upon the subject as Viollet-le-Duc and others have indulged in, is all too brief for the importance of the theme. Nor does it recognize the fact that the Greeks, in staining their marbles and painting the stucco priming of some of their temples, simply followed the example of all the prototypes in Egypt and the East; it was a traditional custom, and probably no Greek could conceive of a work of architecture without its proper and usual completion by color. This omission is all the more remarkable, as the distinguishing characteristic of Dr. Reber's work is the insistance that growth, and not invention, is the principle of progress in the history of ancient art. We may note, for instance, the felicity with which the genesis and evolution of the distinguishing features of what we call classic architecture have been followed in due sequence, parallel with the development of successive civilizations, gaining new expressions of grace and fitness according to the varying conditions of environment, until Greece established the perfect type in her styles, and Rome formulated it in her orders. In like manner, in the chapters on Assyria, Persia, and Asia Minor the development of the helix is traced in the decorations of columns, furniture, vases, and metal-work, so that we are prepared for its fuller expression in the capitals of Lycia; and even the excessive magnificence of the Ionic capitals of the Erechtheum comes to us, not as a phenomenal creation, but as the natural fulfilment of a promise under exceptionally favorable conditions of growth.

The paragraph covering the important point of the method of lighting the Greek peripteral temple would have been abundantly sufficient if the proofs of the use of artificial illumination had been so cumulative in late years as to outlaw all previous theories of illumination by hypæthral openings in the roof. But the fact is, that, notwithstanding Mr. Clarke's spirited and ingenious brochure, lately published, in advocacy of the ever-burning lamps before the shrine or statue of the god as the only source of light in the temple interior, and notwithstanding Dr. Reber's reported acceptance of this attractive hypothesis, this question is still an open one among scholars; and it is not in harmony with the judicial spirit which elsewhere pervades this work not to recognize in the text the existence of opposing theories on this point among the most advanced scholars of the day. The dogmatic dismissal of these theories in the obscurity of a note is not in accord with the true spirit of history. On the other hand, in speaking of the uncertainty of the date of the temple at Assos (p. 217), the editor pursues quite a different course, and modestly refrains from giving, in a work of this sort, the weight of his own well-grounded but personal opinion on this subject, as set forth in his first report.

The capacity for condensed but lucid statement, which is the prevailing feature of this history, finds its most successful illustration in the fifty-eight pages devoted to Rome. In these the character and proportion of the influences from Greece and Etruria are clearly defined, and the growth of Roman characteristics in architecture, sculpture, and painting is analyzed and traced with singular perspicuity. The temples, the baths, the theatres, the amphitheatres, the aqueducts, the triumphal arches, the mausoleums and tombs, the basilicas, the palaces, and the smaller domestic establishments, though confined in the statement within the narrowest limits, are defined with sufficient fulness, always with excellent judgment, and often with an originality of deduction and a force of logic which throw new light even upon themes so familiar as these. The history of Roman sculpture and painting, in especial, is full of interest and novelty, and here, as always, the relation of these arts to the advancing and to the declining civilizations of the epoch is kept in view. We would call especial attention to the ingenious theory of the architectural derivation of the early Christian churches from the private basilicas of the Empire, and to that referring to the influence exercised upon the development of the vast palaces of the later Roman emperors by those of the luxurious successors of Alexander the Great in the East—always referred to in these pages, by the by, as *the Diadochi*, a convenient term, but one unfamiliar to our textbooks.

The book is abundantly illustrated, and, though some of the prints are poor in quality, many of them present fresh examples, and all have their proper relation to the text. The insistance upon the Greek spelling of proper names, and upon the use of Greek instead of the more familiar Vitruvian nomenclature of technical terms in architecture—though the editor offers a formal apology for this practice in his preface, and appends a convenient glossary for the information of the unlearned—will not meet with universal approval. In this glossary, by the by, we do not find either Parotides or Parastades or Baphe—words which occur in the text. The translation is admirably done, and the English is as straightforward and lucid as the ideas. The book, as we have said, is primarily a compend of information from various sources; but, save in a few scattered instances, the authorities are not given, so that we find it difficult at times to distinguish the original from the borrowed thought, and the reader is thus constrained to accept many facts of importance and interest purely on the authority of the author—a practice surely not conformable to scientific method.

RECENT NOVELS.

The House of a Merchant Prince. A Novel of New York. By William Henry Bishop. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Magnhild. By Björnstjerne Björnson. Translated from the Norse by Rasmus B. Anderson. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A Whimsical Wooing. By Anton Giulio Barrili. From the Italian, by Clara Bell. New York: William S. Gottsberger.

Mr. Isaacs. A Tale of Modern India. By F. Marion Crawford. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

Heart of Steel. By Christian Reid. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Barrington's Fate. [No Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros.

The Colonel's Daughter; or, Winning his Spurs. By Capt. Charles King, U. S. A. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Gabrielle de Bourdaine. By Mrs. John Kent Spender. [Franklin Square Library.]

A Cruise Under Six Flags. By O. A. E. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

L'Évangéliste, Roman Parisien. Par Alphonse Daudet. Paris: E. Dentu; New York: F. W. Christern.

Mr. Bishop is a writer of great cleverness. His powers of description and narration are unusually good, and what he has seen he is capable of making others see. His picture of New York life is open to the criticism that while externally it is accurate enough, morally and intellectually it will not strike a New Yorker as showing a thorough knowledge of the city. Mr. Bishop's people display a great deal of human nature, but his types are not, to our feeling, particularly "New Yorky." They are not Bostonian; they are not Philadelphian; they are not Western. They belong to a community in which culture is at a discount, and humor at a premium; but then these are not distinctive features of New York. To this Mr. Bishop may perhaps reply that New York has no distinctive features except such as are purely external, and that the novelist who faithfully depicts these, does as much as can be expected of him; and we confess that there is, with the continually changing structure of society here, a good deal in this view. The Knickerbocker of yesterday is supplanted by the mining millionaire of to-day: a passion for mimicking French society by Anglomania; a taste for buhl and ormulu by æstheticism; the political cynic and pyrrhonist by the "gentleman in politics." Nothing remains unchanged in our institutions but Delmonico's and the Stock Exchange; and possibly, on a very searching analysis, these are the two props of our civilization. It is curious how little impression New York life, compared with that of the other great capitals of the world, has made on the literature of fiction. With regard to the life developed since the war, contemporary fiction seems to have avoided it. We can recall no novelist of reputation who has made the attempt seriously except Mr. Bishop, and we have said his types present rather broadly American than distinctly New York characteristics.

As an American novel, 'The House of a Merchant Prince' has one feature which we can commend to the attention of the English critic who has recently been looking up the subject of American fiction, with the assurance that the manner in which Mr. Bishop represents it is the correct one, no matter what any one else may tell him—we mean the fact that the love of money as displayed in America is not exactly the love of money as displayed in the Old World. Among American men the love of money is not usually associated with that closeness which in English novels it generally presupposes; while among unmarried women the cold-blooded and calculating habit of balancing pecuniary pros and cons with regard to marriage that we see so much of in English novels is not a national trait with us, but is confined to a small class. Whatever may be in store for us in the future, the American girl hitherto has married, as a rule, from inclination; a custom which, it should be observed, is encouraged by the docile character of the American parent.

'Magnhild' is the last volume of the edition of Björnson's collected works which Professor Anderson undertook to translate. The figures in the book are so strongly, so vividly presented to the eye that their motions, their actions are eagerly anticipated. But the story is only half told, or less than that: it is only fragments of a story. One may imagine that Björnson meant to portray the power of purity, however unconsciously exercised, to elevate and ennoble all with which it comes into relation. But the outlines are too broken, the lights too scattered. The reader can never give full sympathy, because never sure of his ground. The book leaves the impression that the author had an idea to express, but that he has failed to find such embodiment of it as should carry it fully and forcibly to the reader. The *ébauche* of a master, however hasty and rough, has the *idea* in it. The rest is only a matter of shading.

If 'The Eleventh Commandment,' the previous work of Barili, was a good three-act play, 'A Whimsical Wooing' is a sparkling comedietta. It is one situation, a single catastrophe, yet, like a bit of impressionist painting of the finer sort, it reveals in a flash all the possibilities of the scene. The hero, Roberto Fenoglio, a man of wealth, position, and accomplishments, finds himself at the end of his resources for entertainment or interest. Hopelessly bored, he abandons himself to the drift of chance, and finds himself, in no longer space of time than from midnight to daylight—where and how, the reader will thank us for not forestalling his pleasure in finding out for himself.

There is a kind of obvious cleverness about 'Mr. Isaacs' sufficient to excite remark, but upon a second look it disappears, and performance is found to lag sadly behind intention. A series of large phrases and many-syllabled words makes no more substantial statement of philosophy than the mists and incantations of the Eastern *yogi* who supplies the supernatural of the story. Mr. Isaacs, "Abdul Hafiz-ben-Isâk," is, it must be admitted, a very good figure for a romance of chivalry, a worthy contemporary of Saladin. He is found in a room where "the walls and the ceiling were lined with gold and precious stones, . . . in a land peopled with all the effulgent phantasies and the priceless realities of the magic East." Of two pages of personal description it is enough to quote the close: "His eyes blaze with the splendor of a godlike nature, needing neither meat nor strong drink to feed its power." To unwind the twisted thread of diplomatic cunning, to fathom Afghan plots, to rescue Shere Ali, are at best hardly adequate work for such a superlative creature; but in plain daylight he is only a dealer in precious stones, and at once the story breaks down from the absolute impossibility of reconciling pure romance with the realism of to-day. One can imagine that daring prowess in a tiger-hunt may replace the heroism of a crusader, be he Paladin or Paynim; but once within the circle of modern conventional society, ordinary views of the relations of men and women must be reckoned with in order to give probability to a plot. Mr. Crawford does not exactly shock his readers by dissent from or a protest against these views. He simply traverses them so completely as to make his book one long absurdity, and his rather hazy visions of the power of woman, or "womanhood," as the *yogi* puts it, ludicrous. The narrator, a not agreeable newspaper editor, who never travels without a volume of Kant in his portmanteau, says of Mr. Isaacs: "His religion was a very beautiful and real thing to him, ever present in his life, and I mused on the future of the man, with his great endowments, his exquisite sensitiveness, and his high view of his obligations to his fellows." Yet the first dialogue between the two has revealed the fact that Isaacs has three wives, who have been quarrelling. "I wonder whether a fourth would act as a fly-wheel." In two hours' time he meets a beautiful English girl, and before the men separate at midnight, he says, "I am in love." The picture of Miss Westonhaugh, as a specimen of one type of English beauty, is the best thing in the book:

"She was of the type of brilliant, healthy Northern girls who depend more on their animal spirits and enjoyment of living for their happiness than upon any natural or acquired mental powers. . . . She was a beautiful creature, certainly; one of those striking-looking women of whom something is always expected, until they drop quietly out of youth into middle age, and the world finds out that they are after all not heroines of romance, but merely plain, honest, good women; good wives and good mothers, who love their homes and husbands well, though it has pleased Nature in some strange freak to give them the form and feature of a Semiramis, a Cleopatra, or a Jeanne d'Arc."

Mr. Isaacs says, two days later:

"I do seriously think of proposing to marry, and of marrying Miss Westonhaugh. . . . Will you help me?"

And the editor, of American education and a Roman Catholic to boot, replies: "Yes, I will help you. I will be a friend to you." Such slight demur as he thought fit to make is answered by the assurance: "It is allowed me by my religion to marry a fourth. . . . She would henceforth be my only wife"; the speaker probably forgetting that he has already said—

"There are means provided us by the foresight of the apostle, by which we may ease ourselves of domestic burdens when they are too heavy for us to bear. It would be quite within the bounds of possibility for me to divorce them all three without making any special scandal."

It is needless to follow the incidents of the story to the end. Plainly, since the lady also falls in love, she and her friends must regard the earlier marriages as only so many *liaisons*, if she is to marry Isaacs. Why this should be more dreadful than to divorce the three is not clear, but Mr. Crawford seems afraid to try it, and cuts the knot by the sudden death of Miss Westonhaugh. The whole story is only not an outrage because it is so palpably absurd. To build upon it an argument for the perfection of character through the pursuit of philosophy, or for the attainment of the highest spiritual good through ever-ascending human affections, if it is not profanation, is all sheer nonsense; and no poetic flights, however fanciful, can make us forget the three poor souls abandoned to poverty when Mr. Isaacs wills all his fortune to Miss Westonhaugh's brother, and withdraws for mystic contemplation "into the ethereal range of the outer firmament." We notice some apparant lacunæ in the writer's mind of a curious sort. He must be a late comer into the circle of certain things who can write, "Edwin Arnold has set our American Transcendentalists and Unitarians and Free-thinkers speculating about it all, and wondering whether the East may not have had men as great as Emerson and Channing among its teachers."

The 'Heart of Steel' belongs to Irene Lescar, a maiden yet in her teens, of peerless beauty and divine voice. She has vowed never to forgive the man who has selfishly divorced himself from her mother. Neither he nor his should ever have aught but hate in word or look from her. Of course the inevitable sequence is, that the man's nephew, a most picturesque and commendable Count, falls in love with her, and, after many pages of incident which the author's mild manner prevents from being really thrilling, the "Heart of Steel" softens at last. There is in the book much agreeable life among pleasant-mannered people in Paris and Rome, though they are never quite interesting, in spite of a good deal of guide-book information that is parcelled out between them. It is fair to say that the information is of much the choicer kind, and it will please a good many people who have not already seen it in Mr. Hare's various books. Two scenes the author has chosen which have been rarely, if ever, described, and of both she has made a vivid and impressive picture. The first is the Chapelle Expiatoire, at Paris, on the anniversary of the death of Marie Antoinette; the other, St. John Lateran during the grand ceremonial upon Palm Sunday.

If 'Barrington's Fate' is a happy one, it is not because of his deserts. Shuffling, mean, and selfish he is from first to last. He might be left to oblivion, but it implies perversion of the moral sense quite as dangerous in the end as that found in confessedly bad books, that his conduct is really blamed by nobody in the book who is represented as either sensible or lovable. The heroine's father says some very plain things, but the author wishes us to believe him but a poor creature. "All for love" is the way of the world, but not of everybody in it, and it is quite a different type of woman from the pure, shy, conscientious English maiden whom the author makes out the heroine to be, that will go to meet an almost unknown man in an inn-parlor at midnight, after he has stooped to the vulgar disguise of a common waiter. The story is rather incongruously made up from London society, artistic and commercial, and from life in a remote country house, with an intermezzo of cooking-school and lady-helps.

We have had no better pictures of life at the military stations on the Pacific slopes than are given in 'The Colonel's Daughter.' This remark, however, we intend to apply only to the minor incidents, the setting of the story. It is possible that the writer has actual facts to justify his plot, but one would be sorry to believe that such a world of petty schemings and trivial jealousies is often to be found. Again, it is difficult to believe that a woman so repulsively coarse and mean as the Colonel's wife could be the mother of such a daughter. As between hero and heroine, we have another proof that, in novels at least, the idea of *wooing* a lady is going out of fashion. Over and over again we have a noble pair in fact madly in love, but giving no sign to the world or to each other. He turns deadly pale, or his lips quiver under his moustache, and next time she turns deep crimson or rushes off to bathe her pillow in tears. Suddenly he is wounded or she falls ill, and then it all comes out. One story that we have recently seen goes further than this, for the hero is quite drowned without any dénouement. Another fashion in plots that we notice is that the heroine may have several lovers, may even be affianced more than once, but in the end is won by some one who, to borrow a familiar phrase, has not been in the running at all. It may be the *ami d'enfance* or the kind paternal friend who is successful at last. But such books are likely to fail of a second reading, unless they have very decided merit apart from the plot, for the reader feels defrauded of his sympathy.

'Gabrielle de Bourdaine' has just such a plot, but it is a prettily-told story of life on one of the Channel Islands. A side episode of secret passages and mysterious chambers adds nothing to the real interest of it, which centres in Gabrielle and her father, a Frenchman of strangely fallen fortunes.

'A Cruise Under Six Flags' is a collection of chatty stories told by men of six different countries. They are not all quite new, but may give a brief hour of entertainment to readers not too exacting.

A change is coming over the spirit of French fiction. A reaction seems to have set in, under the lead of some of the foremost writers of France. While the ordinary *roman parisien* is

getting dirtier day by day, and sinking deeper and deeper in the mire, other stories are getting into print far purer in tone. Even Zola, quick to see a change in the temper of the times, announced that his new novel, 'Au Bonheur des Dames,' now appearing, oddly enough, in the very disreputable *Gil Blas*, was to be pure as a lily, and warranted to contain nothing which would bring the blush of shame to the cheek of innocence. M. Alphonse Daudet, too, joins the reformers, and in the new story which he has just reprinted from the worldly *Figaro* he has chosen an austere subject, as unlike those generally in favor with the readers of that light and lively sheet as can well be imagined. As this subject is fresher than any other yet treated by M. Daudet, and stronger also, we are inclined to call 'L'Évangéliste' his finest work, and the one which most nearly approaches artistic perfection. The influence of Dickens, which disfigured much of M. Daudet's earlier writing, is scarcely to be detected at all, even in the minor figures which lend a comedy relief. No story of Dickens's, not even the 'Tale of Two Cities,' marches forward so irresistibly to its inevitable end, with no waste of strength or time on episodes. 'L'Évangéliste' is a story of direct and pitiless power. It is like a Greek tragedy in its simplicity, and in the suggestion of an overriding and irrevocable fate against which all strife is vain. The Evangelist is a cold, proud, imperious, bigoted woman, controlling enormous wealth in the propagandism of a hard and narrow form of religion; going straight before her, though her own husband kills himself because of her frigidity, and though a mother may go mad because her daughter is taken from her by a pseudo-religious "camp-meeting-revival" ecstasy. This figure of Jeanne is drawn with extraordinary vigor and sobriety, and is worthy to stand side by side with the 'Religeuse' of Diderot; indeed, as excess of one kind is as bad as excess of another, 'L'Évangéliste' is in fact nearly as horrible as 'La Religeuse.' Like Diderot's tale, too, M. Daudet's novel is rather science than literature. In his dedication to the eloquent and learned Dr. Charcot, the physician of La Salpétrière, M. Daudet recognizes this fact, and calls his work an "observation"—as if he should say, "notes taken at a clinic." As such it deserves to be studied. Its subject is of especial interest here in America, where the same bigotry is much more frequent, although perhaps less pernicious than in France, as all readers of Edward Eggleston's excellent stories will remember.

MEMORY AND ITS DISEASES.

Diseases of Memory: An Essay in the Positive Psychology. By Th. Ribot. Translated by Wm. Huntington Smith. D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

During the metaphysical or speculative period of philosophy, which has now fortunately passed into history, it was customary, in building a house, to "begin with the roof." Schelling, for instance, at the age of nineteen, wrote "On the Possibility of any Form of Philosophy"; Hegel began his wild and reckless speculative career with an essay on "Common-Sense Judgment respecting Objectivity and Subjectivity"; and Fichte's maiden effort was modestly concerned with a "Criticism of all Revelation." Thanks to the influence of biological science, this philosophical spring poetry has shared the fate of other absurdities and gone out of fashion. At the present day an ambitious student of philosophy recognizes the necessity of beginning with the base of the edifice instead of the roof. He first of all studies the psycho-physiology of the senses, imagination, memory; and endeavors, by a special investigation of some definite problem, aided by experiment, to mould a few of the bricks which will have to be accumulated before there is any need of calling upon the roof-makers. M. Ribot, the editor of the *Revue Philosophique*, is one of those who have set a good example in this respect. His monograph on 'Heredity' and the present treatise on 'Memory' are good specimens of the kind of work which psychologists are now expected to do; and Mr. Grant Allen's little book on the 'Color-Sense' is another. M. Ribot, it is true, is not a writer of great originality. His treatise on 'Heredity' is little more than an amplification of the theories and *aperçus* of Darwin, Galton, and others; and the same must be said of his latest volume, which is not so original as he and some of his reviewers seem to consider it. It is, however, a rich repository of suggestive facts, culled from various sources; and the explanations given are in accord with the latest discoveries in physiological science. What is most noticeable about it is its subject, which indicates that psychologists are at last becoming fully alive to the importance of studying the morbid phenomena of mind as well as those that are normal. Dr. von Krafft-Ebing, in his admirable 'Lehrbuch der Psychiatrie,' compares the advantages which empiric psychology might gain from a study of mental pathology to the gain which has accrued to physiology from a study of the pathology of the body; and his assertion is sustained by his own book, which, to a student of psychology, is as much more instructive and suggestive than an ordinary text-book of psychology as laboratory work is of superior value, for a student of physics or chemistry, to book-reading. From a lack of such pathological knowledge even Schopenhauer, who is in many respects the most modern and advanced of all thinkers, could broach the ridiculous theory that insanity is simply the severing of the thread of memory—a process which, he thinks, nature resorts to when the burden of affliction becomes too great to bear otherwise.

As the first sixty-eight pages of the 'Diseases of Memory' are devoted to a psycho-physiological consideration of the general phenomena of memory, and only the other two-thirds of the treatise to the abnormal features, it would have been more appropriate to give the book the title of 'Memory and its Diseases,' which, we believe, it bears in the German edition. At the outset M. Ribot differs widely from the older psychologists, who mistook the species for the genus by considering conscious memory as the whole of that "faculty," whereas it is in the sphere of the *unconscious* that memory can best be studied, if we understand that word as synonymous with material nervous action, and not in the mystic, metaphysical sense, with a capital U. Memory consists of three elements: "the conservation of certain conditions, their reproduction, and their localization in the past." They are of unequal value, the first two being necessary, indispensable; suppress them, and memory is annihilated. The third, conscious recollection, is not necessary, but comes and goes, and is merely superadded to the others, which constitute organic or biological memory. The true type of organic memory is to be sought in the so-called secondary automatic actions—the endless acts of complicated muscular adjustment and coördination which take place when we walk, talk, eat, write, play on an instrument, etc. All these movements were at first attended by a feeling of conscious effort; but with repetition they become mechanical or automatic, and no longer enter the sphere of consciousness. This change can be easily explained when it is remembered that every psychic act requires an appreciable lapse of time which can be, and has been in many cases, accurately measured. An act, therefore, which at first is executed slowly and consciously, becomes with repetition easier and more rapid, until it gradually falls below the minimum time required for consciousness. Therefore, all "conscious memory tends, little by little, to become automatic."

"The brain is like a laboratory full of movement, where thousands of occupations are going on at once. Unconscious cerebration, not being subject to restrictions of time—operating, so to speak, only in space—may act in several directions at the same moment. Consciousness is the narrow gate through which a very small part of all this work is able to reach us."

M. Ribot does not devote much space to a consideration of conscious memory, which, as conditioned and improved by repetition, concentration of attention, emotional interest, etc., is fully described in text-books on psychology. In considering memory as a general function of organized matter, he follows the precedent of Dr. Hering, who, in his suggestive little pamphlet, 'Das Gedächtniss als eine allgemeine Function der organisirten Materie,' goes so far as to claim the first germs of individual life as instances of biologic memory, the most marvellous of all, on account of their inheritance of all the ancestral qualities of body and mind. This pamphlet, indeed, seems to have been the "first cause" and *raison d'être* of Ribot's book, as he follows its vein of thought throughout. Thus, in seeking for an analogy to organic memory, he rejects those derived from inorganic phenomena, as in the following experiment: "Lay a key upon a sheet of white paper exposed to the sunlight; place the paper in a dark drawer; and the spectral image of the key will still be visible after the lapse of years." The objection is, that here we have only conservation, the first condition of recollection, while reproduction is too passive and too much dependent on the intervention of a foreign agent to allow this to pass as a true analogy to the process of memory. He prefers Dr. Hering's analogy, who compares the mechanism of reproduction and the gradual formation of memory to a muscular fibre, which, responding feebly at first to the stimulus transmitted by the motor nerve, does so with more vigor the more frequently it is stimulated, allowing natural periods of repose. The "primal meaning of memory as a biological fact" is "an impregnation." An impression made on the cells of the brain is fixed and retained; the parts of the cell that are destroyed by nutritive changes are replaced by others exactly like them; and thus memory is seen to be merely a phase of heredity, the new cell having all the qualities of the old. The number of cerebral cells available for new impressions is about 600,000,000, according to Prof. Meynert's estimate, and is therefore not easily exhausted. But M. Ribot justly insists that, besides the impression produced on the individual cells, we must consider the establishment of stable associations between different groups of nerve elements as the result of experience, and which he styles dynamic, to distinguish them from natural or anatomical, associations. M. Ribot thinks that this point has not been sufficiently insisted upon by psychologists; but it is almost a commonplace of German and English neurological literature.

With the general principles thus set forth, M. Ribot proceeds to explain certain morbid phenomena of memory. An expert will close this part of his treatise with a sense of disappointment, as he will find but little that is new to him. For the student, however, and the omnivorous general reader, it possesses almost the interest of a novel; for, if truth is anywhere stranger than fiction, it is in the region of men

tal pathology, as there is no distinct dividing line between sanity and insanity, and all of us have idiosyncrasies which belong to this uncertain border region. M. Ribot classifies disorders of memory under the heads of General Amnesia, which affects the entire memory in all its forms, and Partial Amnesia, which is limited to a single class of recollections. General Amnesia, again, is subdivided into Temporary, Periodical, and Progressive Amnesia. The first is illustrated by the case of a shoemaker who, on his wedding-day, stabbed his father-in-law. Several days later he came to himself, but had not the slightest consciousness of what he had done. Periodical amnesia is typified by the case of a well-informed young woman who fell into a profound sleep, and on awaking had lost every trace of her knowledge, and was compelled to learn everything anew, including reading, spelling, and writing. After a few months, she again fell into a deep sleep, which restored her to her normal condition, leaving her no recollection of her abnormal state. The periodic transitions between these two states continued for four years. Under this head also comes the story of the Irish porter who "lost a package while drunk, got drunk again, and remembered where he had left it." Progressive amnesia finally, as a rule, results in gradual but complete destruction of memory, the cause being a progressive lesion of the brain.

"Lunatic asylums are full of patients of this class, who on the day after entry insist that they have been there for a year, five years, ten years. . . . But recollection of what was done and acquired prior to the disease is retained with great tenacity. . . . When the premonitory period just spoken of is passed, there is a gradual and extended decay of all the faculties, until the subject is reduced to a vegetative condition."

Under the head of partial amnesia, we have first to consider the fact that "memory may be resolved into memories, just as the life of an organism may be resolved into the lives of the organs, the tissues, the anatomical elements which compose it." One kind of memory may be weak while the other is very strong. Horace Vernet and Gustave Doré could paint a portrait from memory; Mozart wrote down the Miserere in the Sistine Chapel after hearing it twice; Lewes speaks of a man who walked half a mile through a crowded street, and then was able to name all the shops he had passed in proper order. "It is even probable that inequality of memories in the same person is the rule rather than the exception." The pathological side is illustrated by the man who received a blow on his head and lost all knowledge of Greek, although his memory was otherwise unimpaired; and by others who lost the memory of numbers, forms, proper names—including their own—the existence of their nearest relatives, etc. A special section is devoted to amnesia of signs, or language, which the author considers a disease of the motor memory. The general conclusions derived from all these cases, although not entirely new and simple corollaries of the law of evolution, are of importance. "In cases of general dissolution of the memory, loss of recollection follows an invariable path: recent events, ideas in general, feelings, and acts. In the best-known cases of partial dissolution (forgetfulness of signs), loss of recollection follows an invariable path: proper names, common nouns, adjectives and verbs, interjections and gestures." In both cases the regression is from the new to the old, from the complex to the simple, from the voluntary to the automatic, from the least organized to the best organized. "Degeneration first affects what has been most recently formed, and upon this psychological principle: the complex disappears before the simple, because it has not been repeated so often in experience."

A final chapter, devoted to Exaltations of Memory, or Hypermnesia, deals with facts with which most people are familiar. The causes of hypermnesia, which may be either a general or partial excitation of memory beyond its normal state, are opium and similar narcotics, alcohol, ecstasy, hypnotism, and especially acute fevers. The most remarkable case given is that of an Italian who, in the beginning of a fatal attack of yellow fever, spoke English only; in the middle of the disease, French only was used; and on the day of his death he spoke only in his native language. Another case given is very instructive. A physician who in early life had abandoned the Roman Catholic religion had an attack of delirium preceding his death, during which he prayed only in the forms of the Church of Rome, all recollection of the prescribed formulas of the Protestant faith having been obliterated. This perhaps throws light on the "conversion" of great infidels on their death-beds. All the experiences of later years gradually fade from their mind until only the early days of their youth, associated with religious teachings, are left to occupy their consciousness. Such a confession, therefore, is nothing more than a sign of weakening of brain-power—a form of mental pathology, analogous to a dream in which recollections of childhood occupy the field, because more powerful currents of thought or vivid images of later life do not for the moment crowd them out.

Emerson at Home and Abroad. By Moncure Daniel Conway. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

Mr. Conway has hardly done himself or Mr. Emerson justice in this volume. He contributes very little that is new to our knowledge either of the character or mind of Emerson, and his book is written in an entirely uncritical vein. He does not sufficiently discriminate (as Hawthorne says somewhere) between mysticism and mistiness, and his attempt at analyzing the sources of Emerson's peculiar influence over his contemporaries is not very successful. He does, however, bring out one or two points with considerable distinctness, which, as time goes on, will perhaps be recognized as helping to explain the secret of Emerson. No one can read his account without seeing that Emerson did not derive his authority from any contribution which he made to human opinion. Had he done so, Mr. Conway, as his disciple, would be able to tell us what it was, or at any rate would endeavor to do so. But, although he constantly dwells upon the beauty of Emerson's mind, he does not even himself appear to think that the sum of human knowledge was in any way increased by his speculations. His keenness of insight, his great range of sympathy, his delicacy of thought and expression, his eloquence, are all dwelt upon; but we are not shown how our way of looking at life, or man and his destiny, is to be in the future different from what it has always been because of his exercise of these faculties. Yet he was a professed "thinker," and was at the head of what seemed for the time being a distinct school of philosophy.

The work which Emerson really accomplished was not philosophical, but practical; it was nothing more nor less than the throwing open the doors of New England to what it is now the fashion to call "culture," or, in other words, to the best intellectual influences of his time. The New England mind down to his day had been almost entirely devoted to theology, and to the explanation of life to be found within the covers of the Bible. It was narrow, provincial, prejudiced, and intensely logical. Had Emerson appeared in such a society with a real system of any kind, theological or anti-theological, his premises would have been assailed and denied, and his conclusions disproved to the satisfaction of his assailants by minds much keener at controversial argument than his own. But appearing without any system of any kind, he had a great advantage. He could teach without entering the lists with other teachers, could think and talk about the problems of life and duty — the most interesting of subjects to the community in which he lived—with an irresponsibility which was the despair of his critics and opponents. Once established as a Transcendentalist, he was enabled to draw upon any system of philosophy or thought he pleased, for the benefit of his large and increasing congregation; and this is exactly what he did. He opened the doors of intellectual life to New England, and pointed out to them the treasures of thought and experience that were within their reach. He was a moralist, he was a Platonist, he was an evolutionist, a Darwinian, a Pantheist, an Eastern seer, and a poet. He was a mystic with a gentle humor which enabled him to enjoy probably more than any of his critics the mystification which Transcendentalism, as a supposed school of thought, produced.

In saying this, we do not mean that with Emerson himself the Transcendental movement was consciously planned beforehand for the purpose of destroying the deep roots which dogma had struck into the New England soil. He had merely a desire to preach the Word as he understood it, just as his ancestors had preached it according to their understanding. The Word with them began and ended with dogma. With him it embraced whatever valuable or beautiful things in thought or fancy were suggested by his study of life and literature.

Such a career implied a community accustomed to sacerdotal leadership; and in this aspect Emerson derived assistance from the very system he did so much to break up. He had inherited an aptitude for the priestly office, and the habits of New England predisposed those who sympathized with him not simply to combine with him, but to form a congregation about him—the nucleus of a church, but a church without a creed. Disciples came to him, and undertook to help him in sowing the seed. But Transcendentalism was merely a protest against fixed belief of any kind, and, the protest once made, the attempt to formulate the protest in the guise of a new set of beliefs and formal propositions could only end, in the hands of Emerson's parodists, in a burlesque; and so it did end. If we are right in what we have said, Transcendentalism would be an insecure basis on which to rest Emerson's fame; for great as was the change effected by it in New England, the phenomenon was rather of local interest, and chiefly shows in what an extraordinarily provincial condition the New England mind must have been before his time. It is undoubtedly as a literary man—a class of which Emerson had not himself a very high opinion—that he is likely to possess a permanent interest for the world. Poetry was the soul of his philosophy.

Mr. Conway's book is a biographical eulogy rather than a criticism. To him Emerson was from the first not merely a great man, but the revealer of a new life. He declares that when a young man, fresh from college, he found every career in life bounded by "some indefinable impediment," and was so disheartened that "nature had no meaning, life no promise and no aim." In this condition—not an uncommon one in bright young men just out of college—he accidentally found a sentence of Emerson's quoted in a magazine, and this sentence "changed my world and

me." He does not tell us what it was, for he says "it might not bear to others what it bore to me; its searching, subtle revelation defies any analysis I can make of its words. All I know is that it was the touch of flame I needed." We have no desire to make light of the profound impression thus produced. Fifty years ago Emerson's writings affected young men in this way—a way in which it is no longer possible to imagine them affecting anybody; and for this very reason vague eulogy will not any longer tend to strengthen Emerson's hold upon fame, but rather to raise doubts and put the reader in a sceptical attitude.

The Hindî Manual: comprising a Grammar of the Hindî Language, both Literary and Provincial; a complete Syntax; Exercises in various Styles of Hindî Composition; Dialogues on several Subjects; and a complete Vocabulary. By Frederic Pincott, M.R.A.S. London: W. H. Allen & Co. 1882. Pp. 360.

To impress on the minds of Englishmen the importance of the Hindî language—the mother-tongue of a vast majority of the inhabitants of northern and central India—has been a tedious process. With an eye solely to their own interests, Indian Muhammadans early exerted themselves to make it appear that an acquaintance with Urdû, or Hindûstânî, their own vernacular, was an adequate linguistic equipment for the foreign officials who carried out the details of the local government; and during several generations, and till only the other day, their exertions continued to operate agreeably to their wishes. Down to last year, whereas the study of Urdû was made imperative on English civilians destined for the Northwestern Provinces, a knowledge on their part of Hindî was left optional. Under the new order of things, while it is a matter of election with those civilians to give their attention to Urdû, it is exacted of them to pass, in London, a series of examinations, extending over two years, in Hindî. In India, also, Hindî is now at last recognized where it ought to be recognized. As stands to reason, we shall consequently no more hear of a special and grievous kind of malpractice, once deplorably familiar in Indian courts of justice, sufficiently exemplified by the incident about to be related. The present writer, it should be mentioned, here speaks from his own personal observation. A simple rustic, withal wholly illiterate, dictated his evidence, as the leading witness in a case of violence, to a Muhammadan clerk; the two squatting on the floor of the court, within ten feet of the presiding magistrate. The rustic, a Hindu, told his tale in Hindî, which the clerk understood quite as well as he did himself. The wily scribe, however, who took down his deposition in Urdû—the appointed language of legal proceedings—purposely selected words and phrases of Arabic derivation, and those the most difficult that he could call to memory. The record, when finished, was read to the deponent, who, though he took in nothing material of its import, artlessly subscribed to its correctness. It expressed, to all intents and purposes, the reverse of what he had explicitly stated; and the ruffian against whom he had borne testimony was, naturally to his amazement, acquitted. In this transaction the speech of the great bulk of the people had been legally ignored, a virtual premium on bribery, active and passive, being thus offered; and, as the result, justice had scandalously miscarried. As a Hindu may now insist that his deposition be taken down in his own terms, things of this stamp have happily become impossible.

Owing to the discouragement which Hindî has encountered, no dictionary of it has to this day been compiled that deserves to be called respectable. With regard to a grammar, it has been more fortunate—that of Dr. Kellogg being a performance of merit, though, from its author's manifestly narrow range of reading, it falls considerably short of what is to be desired. A grammar of Hindî fully up to the mark ought to reckon distinctly with the various dialects of the language—if, indeed, one is authorized to speak of a language where there is hardly other than a collection of dialects, and as yet no acknowledged classical standard. Little, however, as the fact is known, Hindî, in spite of its present unfixed character, possesses signal capabilities, and time will, without doubt, develop from it an admirable organ of mental expression. Such, in its maturity, it must needs become, considering its enormous vocabulary, its ready adaptiveness, and its endless expedients for distinguishing delicate shades of meaning. The one thing, above all others, which it lacks is uniformity; and this will, it is presumable, be brought about, in the course of time, by the agency of books and newspapers, and by the facilities for intercommunication afforded by railways.

Looking to the fact that the fortunes of Hindî have suddenly come to be in the ascendant, the appearance of the 'Hindî Manual' is altogether opportune. And anything more helpful for the end which it is intended to serve, comprehended within the limited space to which it is confined, could not easily be devised. Almost every page of it makes good its author's claim to originality; and it is patent both that he has entertained a right conception of the sort of materials that he ought to amass, and that he has known very well where to go for them. Any one capable of judging will perceive that he has laid under contribution books and periodicals alike abundant in number and widely various in style, and, what is especially noticeable, faithfully representative of living Hindî. On the subject of idiomatic phraseology he is markedly strong. In comparison with the information which he gives about it, all that is to be found elsewhere is, in fact, miserably meagre. If, to the advanced student of Hindî, his excellent edition of the 'Çakuntalâ' has proved warmly welcome, no less so will prove his 'Hindî Manual'; while, from the skill and judgment with which it gradually leads its peruser from things of the simplest elementary character on to the most knotty and complex, it is precisely what is wanted to place in the hands of the beginner. The English Civil-Service Commissioners have already included it in their list of prescribed text-books.

Lessing's Nathan der Weise. Edited, with English Notes, etc., by C. A. Buchheim, Ph.D., etc., etc. Oxford. 1882.

THE appearance of another annotated German classic from the hand of Prof. Buchheim will be welcomed by all who have made the acquaintance of the excellent series prepared by the same writer. Prof. Buchheim's services in England, like Prof. Hart's in this country, have been displayed in the careful and thorough editing of standard German authors. In the edition of 'Nathan der Weise' which he now offers we find the same patience and precision which mark his earlier works, and which we are accustomed to see applied chiefly to Greek and Latin classics. Although intended for the use of advanced students, every one interested in German literature will find Prof. Buchheim's commentary a valuable guide to the better appreciation of Lessing's masterpiece. To an extensive general introduction dealing with the history, tendency, and language of the drama, and containing a discussion of its dramatic character, an outline of the Ring parable, and an analysis of the characters of the play, are added copious exegetical notes, which avoid none of the many difficulties with which the poem abounds.

In the midst of work generally so accurate an occasional slip may be noted. On p. xvi., "May, 1778," should be "May, 1779"; p. xxii., Dunlop is hardly quoted fairly when he is made to assert that most of the Ring stories "seem to contain a sneer against the Christian religion." P. 236, the middle high-German form of *gattern* is *gateren* or *gatern;* the relationship of *gattern* and "gather" is well established—compare *Gitter, Gatte, gut,* "together" and "good." P. 249, *stellt und verstellt* may be rendered, "simulate and dissimulate." P. 266, l. 2061, *affirmative* should rather be *negative;* the construction is that of a question of doubt in elliptical, indirect discourse. In the translation from Boccaccio, on p. 267, "three religions" would be a better rendering of *tre Leggi* than "three creeds." P. 274, *operate* seems to be the corresponding medical term for *nachwirken.* For the explanation of the technical chess terms occurring in the second act, which have often been erroneously interpreted, the editor is indebted to the well-known champion player, Dr. Zukertort.

The text of the drama, at the request of the delegates of the Clarendon Press, has been printed with Roman type—a reform which perhaps will be less welcome in verse than in prose.

Tasso. By E. J. Hasell. [Foreign Classics for English Readers.] Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1 vol., 8vo.

THIS is a neat little book giving a life of Tasso, and notices of his poetical works, with extracts. The life is the most interesting part, as showing the difficult career of a true poet in that period of Italian Renaissance of Art, but decadence of letters, which was followed by 200 years of Arcadianism. And truly, how could Dantesque poetry thrive under the religious and political servitude of Italy in the sixteenth century? The poets of that period were only courtiers, bound to please, flatter, and deify their masters; and poor Tasso was no exception, only Nature made him a true poet, and one of a very high order. But, hampered by his surroundings, it is no wonder that his finely-strung, sensitive nature was so affected that he became almost, if not for a time quite, insane. Alfonso of Este and the ladies of his court, especially his two sisters, patronized the poet, whose renown pampered their princely vanity, but their kindness was that of superiors to an inferior. As to the tender sentiment supposed to have been inspired by Leonora, it may have been true as regards Tasso, but it was totally unreciprocated on the part of the Princess, who, though flattered by the praises of the poet, experienced no feeling but condescension for the man.

The translations from Tasso's poems are very poor, and inevitably so. To mention only his two greatest works, the "Aminta" and the "Jerusalem Delivered," the one a pastoral drama, the other an epic poem, both lose much of their charm in a translation. As works of art they are two of the most perfect poems extant; but for this very reason they can be fully appreciated only in the original, as art is all in all in them. This is mostly lost in a translation, even when exceptionally good, which cannot be said of the extracts in this book. These versions, including the "renowned version of Fairfax," are exceedingly weak, and suggest a bouquet of wax flowers as compared with a freshly gathered one, all vivid color and sweet perfume entirely gone. The reader will derive as inadequate a conception of the charms of the poet so imperfectly rendered, as in seeing a pastoral idyl represented

on the stage with actors clothed in our every-day garments, or heroic characters armed with tin cuirasses and wooden swords.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Advanced Lessons in Kitchen-Garden, with Songs and Occupations. J. W. Schermerhorn. 35 cents.
Allen, G. The Colors of Flowers. With illustrations. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Aroni, J. Futures. New Orleans: J. E. Gresham.
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Fine Arts.

THE WATER-COLOR EXHIBITION.

As compared with what was done in water color in this country ten years ago, the works which make up this, the sixteenth annual exhibition, show a marked advance as regards command of the means of expression. They do not, however, always show a wise and true use of those means; nor do they, in many cases, show a fine or sufficient artistic motive. As we have before intimated, our American artists have not yet, as a general rule, evinced even a fair degree of that primal artistic gift which impels a man to lay hold of the element of beauty, and to regard the expression of it as the chief end of his art. There are still very few beautiful, or well-chosen, subjects among the six hundred and odd pictures in the present display. But it is fair to say that there are, perhaps, more examples of quiet portrayal of familiar nature, and fewer of those which give expression to decidedly ungraceful or offensive themes, than has sometimes been the case in the immediate past. There is one tendency which, more or less distinctly, we have noticed of late with apprehension, and which is very marked in some portions of this exhibition, and that is a tendency to mannerism—to an artificial way of doing things—which is always characteristic of an unprogressive state. We feel, also, that there is in some degree lacking a just sense of the peculiar capabilities and limitations of the processes of water-color painting, whence it results that the essential beauties to which the medium naturally lends itself are in corresponding measure lost. Yet we would not push our remarks on this head too far; for it is certain that recent improved methods of preparing the materials, and the use of what is known as body-color—a perfectly legitimate use—have vastly extended the range and power of this medium, and have, perhaps, well-nigh revolutionized it.

Foremost among the exceptionally vital works in this exhibition are, we think, those of Mr. Winslow Homer. His most important picture is No. 157, "A Voice from the Cliff." It represents three figures of rough fisherwomen in a group, which comes grandly dark against a distant chalk-cliff in broad, though quiet, light. Although the group tells dark against the background, yet the local colors are nowhere extinguished in shade, but bear out everywhere, in subdued fulness, though in complete subordination, as in the works of Tintoret. Modern art rarely accomplishes this so well, and it is a great accomplishment. There is a slightly unpleasant tendency to purplish hues all through the group, and something of hardness and want of mystery in the execution—everything, flesh, drapery, chalk-cliff, sky, and water, being done in the same way. The same, substantially, may be said of the other contributions of Mr. Homer, namely, Nos. 32, 272, and 425. But there is a largeness and veracity of feeling in them all which goes far to redeem their defects. These works evince a power of design, too, which is very admirable, and, in modern art, uncommon. In No. 157 the sympathy of action in the three figures, and the way in which they are encompassed by the line of the chalk cliff, are noticeable in this regard. In No. 32, "Tynemouth," the largeness and vigor of conception and expression render the work powerful, in spite of the want of fulness and mystery just alluded to. Mr. Homer's habit of simplifying verges on a fault, and gives a finiteness to his work that detracts from its excellence. The boat outline in this example is too sharp everywhere. It does not lose itself enough in the weltering sea or in light catching on its wetted gunwale. The smoke of the distant steamer is heavy and ill-drawn; and the steamer itself and the distant city are not aerial enough in hue. Moreover, there is an inharmonious red, without sufficient light in it, in the upper sky to the right. Also, there is a want of local sea color in the near unreflecting faces of the waves. More detailed veracity without any more elaboration would have greatly enhanced the beauty and value of the work. In No. 272, purity is lost in the low tones by too great prevalence of brown and black. And in No. 425 we feel the artist's mannerism (and a tendency to mannerism shows itself strongly in Mr. Homer's work) perhaps more than in the preceding examples. The lack of the unity and variety of nature is here painful. The three horizontal bands into which the sky, water, and sands resolve themselves are unpleasantly and untruly marked off the one from the other; they are not enough interfused by harmonizing color. The foreground sand would naturally reflect something of the color of the sky, and the cloud reflections in the water instead of being lighter, as they are, would be at least as dark as the clouds themselves, since there is no veil of mist interposing to pale them. But, after all deductions, we regard Mr. Homer as perhaps our very strongest painter. He has a true painter's powers and true designer's instincts. He is not an imitator of any prevailing style; but he appears to have studied the best art understandingly and to good purpose, while he has retained an independent feeling for nature from which he mainly draws his inspiration. Even the mannerism which we have noticed is his own rather than an adopted one.

Mr. George H. Smillie exhibits five subjects, which show his fine artistic sense and feeling for graceful pastoral subjects. There is no crudeness in Mr. Smillie's work; but we fear he is confirming himself in conventional habits of composition and execution such as will, if continued, be incompatible with further progress. Mr. Smillie is gaining a mannerism not his own. It is one apparently adopted, consciously or unconsciously, from such artists of the English school as Harding and Birket Foster, though he is stronger and truer in the important quality of tone than either Harding or Foster. His "On the Egypt Road, East Hampton," No. 39, shows this unprogressive mannerism in a very marked degree. Very different is the work of Mr. James D. Smillie, as we see it in No. 532, "Causeway from Marblehead Neck to Mainland." While we have here a touch of the same mannerism, we have also a far fresher and stronger sentiment of nature. The wide, level reach of sunny distance is full of crowded suggestion, and the graceful perspective of curved beach, with the successive waves of a nearly calm sea advancing upon it, and the gently rising broken foreground, make up a picture of unusual beauty, in which we detect few, if any, false notes. In the work of Mr. E. H. Blashfield, "The Duo," No. 52, we observe the same faults upon which we commented in detail in our notice of his work in the last Black and White Exhibition. The design here again is too much cut up by sharp lights and emphatic touches. The drawing, too, is somewhat careless, and in the arms of the central figure it is very noticeably so. But Mr. Blashfield shows a right apprehension of the color-patch principle, which is the basis of all good painting; and we think he may in future produce much finer things than he has as yet done.

Mr. Henry P. Smith has a number of open sea views which convey a profound sense of nature.

Mr. Smith draws the rolling sea with great subtlety, while at the same time he has passages which are very feeble in drawing—as in the nearer breaking waves of No. 57, and, more especially, in the perspectives of the curves of the beach to the right. His strong points are chiaroscuro and tone, by means of which, together with his fine sea drawing, he produces effects of light and space which are remarkable. But he is singularly limited in range of subject. Indeed, it may almost be said that he has but one subject In all these examples we have the same rolling sea under lowering sky, with pale saffron light along the horizon, reflecting on the hither sides of the waves. We should like to see Mr. Smith try his powers on a passage of sea under bright sky, with white foaming breakers and clear green depths of water.

Mr. J. Wells Champney exhibits eleven pieces. His work is best when he is least ambitious. Some of his quiet portraits show much good painting; but in such examples as No. 65 he is crude and feeble, and shows little good taste. The principal features of the subject, which is "A Mountain Picnic," are not worth painting at all. A gentleman and lady and several children, in fine fashionable clothes, engaged in nothing more interesting than satisfying their hunger on a mountain excursion, constitute about as ungraceful and uninviting a group of objects for an artist as could easily be found. But Mr. Champney has taken the pains to portray them with the most detailed elaboration of all their commonplaceness. Nevertheless, the choice of subject might be pardoned if the artist had treated it with entire veracity and feeling. But he has failed to grasp the broad qualities of the general impression, while he has emphasized all that is most trivial in costume, viands, and accessory.

Mr. Harry Chase and Mr. Arthur Quartley exhibit works of their usual interest, in which much of the good derived from French teaching is shown; but we do not perceive anything in their works this time that calls for special comment. Mr. Alfred Kappes has three pictures, of which No. 76, "The Closing Hymn," is noticeable for its strong and true realism. The subject is commonplace enough, but it is not vulgar or trivial; and the work, though somewhat cold and slaty in color, contains some remarkably good painting, though this is shown more especially in accessory parts. No. 84, "Day Dreams," by Percy Moran, is mannered and untrue in tone and color, though it contains much cleverness. The same may be said of the two other contributions by this artist.

Mr. F. D. Millet has two small classical subjects which contain some exquisitely finished painting. These are No. 25, "A Roman Girl," and No. 171, "Lacing the Sandal." As we have before remarked concerning Mr. Millet's work, there is in these a deficiency as regards the rendering of color values. Could we look at the actual figures represented, with their backgrounds and surroundings, we feel that the relations of part to part in force of shade would not appear just as Mr. Millet has them. In No. 171, for instance, the white-robed figure does not appear to us to tell as a white enough mass in relation to its background. Both of these designs are artificial, having a made-up, studio look, and work of this kind always lacks vitality; but in their kind they possess a good deal of grace and beauty. We wish Mr. Millet would put the good technical qualities which these designs reveal into subjects of a more living character.

Mr. Edward Moran exhibits five works, of which No. 96, "The Devonshire Coast," has some fine though somewhat forced color. The execution is, however, rather too vague and equal, the nearest things being worked in precisely the same way as those most distant. No. 169, by the same artist, has some finely-moving dark sea under gray sky, with effective figures. Mr. J. Alden Weir's "Light Roses," No. 103, is a little piece of true painting. We have seen nothing so beautiful before by this painter. It gives perfect expression of the visual effect of roses, seen at a little distance, by the most facile and unaffected means. No. 550, "Dutch Sky," by the same, is also pleasant and true, so far as it goes. No. 110, "On the Trave, Lubeck, Germany," by R. Swain Gifford, is an effective though somewhat conventional and unprogressive piece of work.

Mr. Frederick Dielman, in No. 134, "Old Time Favorites," though showing his feeling for grace and considerable technical skill, shows also that need of downright study which we have before spoken of. The chiaroscuro in this picture is so confused that one cannot make out whether the artist meant to represent the figure in sunlight or under a cloudy sky. The shadow thrown upon the face by the broad-brimmed hat is too strong for the diffused light of a cloudy day; but it is too much softened off to express sunlight. Indeed, the chiaroscuro of the figure is more like that of a model under studio effect than of a figure standing out of doors. The painting of the accessory parts—the distant landscape, the fence, and the hollyhocks — is utterly feeble. In the same artist's "Head," No. 163, there is some beautiful color and good painting.

There are two works by Mrs. Marie Spartali Stillman which merit careful attention. They show the influence of English Pre-Raphaelitism in form and in sentiment, and also, and perhaps more strongly, that of early Florentine art. The first, "Among the Willows of Tuscany," No. 135, though beautiful in color and refined in technical treatment, is somewhat unintelligible in meaning and weak in drawing. The second, "Meeting of Dante and Beatrice on All Saints' Day," No. 482, possesses a great deal of beauty in design and expression in the principal group of figures, while the composition as a whole is harmonious in color and in tone. There is a very lovely passage of subordinate painting in the architectural background, where the gateway, with its fresco overhead, frames in a glimpse of far-reaching distance pervaded by soft warm light.

Mr. C. Y. Turner has a very large picture entitled "Sunny Days" (No. 258). It represents a summer bathing beach, with a lady seated on the sand under an umbrella, accompanied by a child attended by a colored nursery-maid. To the left is a line of bathing tents stretching away in perspective, and there are scattered groups of ladies and gentlemen in the middle ground and distance. The subject is commonplace enough, but Mr. Turner has treated it with a good deal of artistic feeling. It is well composed and pleasant in color and tone. It is faultful in chiaroscuro, however, in much the same way that we have found the work of Mr. Dielman to be. We should infer the sun to be shining, from the general brightness and the depth of the shadows, and yet all these shadows are so softened as to prevent any clear expression of sunlight. The shadow cast by the umbrella upon the lady's figure is indeterminate in its boundaries, and so also are very noticeably those cast by the tents upon the sands.

No. 393, "St. Ives, Cornwall," by W. T. Richards, is a fine, picturesque subject, composed with feeling, and realized with Mr. Richards's customary thoroughness. But it is somewhat hard, and wanting in fulness of suggestion. It is not so pure in color, either, as Mr. Richards's work usually is; and the group of boats on the left are comparatively without life in the drawing. Taken at his best—and he rarely falls far below his mark—Mr. Richards is, in our opinion, one of our most accomplished painters for combined truth and depth of poetic feeling, technical power, and thoroughness of workmanship.

No. 239, "At Purchase, N. Y.," by Alfred Parsons, is a thoroughly beautiful piece of strong, pure, and effective painting. It represents a very simple bit of familiar nature—some apple trees in autumn, with heaps of ripe fruit on the ground, a stone-wall, and an outlook into blue distance beyond. The design is good, though entirely unconventional, and the execution is at once tender and masterly. No. 326, "Along the Shoare of Silver Streaming Themmes," by the same artist, with figures introduced by Mr. E. A. Abbey, is also a beautiful picture, though to us it seems less fine than the preceding example.

There is an effective, quiet landscape by Mr. Walter Paris, "South Downs, Sussex, England," No. 178. This picture is especially fine in the middle distance, where cloud shadows are moving up the hillsides. It is a little forced in the darks, and mannered in the treatment of the foreground. Messrs. Henry Muhrman and J. Frank Currier contribute each a considerable number of works which we know not how to characterize rightly. They are plainly not the works of men of no capacity, as they at first might seem. They show powers of design and color of no mean kind, and yet, as regards what is actually accomplished, we cannot feel that they possess much value. If work done in this excessively loose and sloppy way is ever pardonable, it is, we think, only when the artist is working for himself, not for the public. And even then, unless he secures color and chiaroscuro, the sooner he destroys the thing the better; for whatever intention may have prompted to such performances, there is certainly little of true worth actually attained.

No. 372, by Mr. A. B. Frost, has some good realistic qualities. But the color is painfully wanting in the variety and purity of nature. No. 419, "Harvest Time," by R. M. Shurtleff, represents a quiet autumn landscape, the total effect of which, in spite of some ungrammatical passages, is, in a measure, fine. No. 420, "The Cliffs of Green River, Wyoming," by Thomas Moran, is forced in color, faultful (we think) in chiaroscuro, and artificial in treatment; but it is nevertheless a work of considerable artistic merit, especially as regards the general arrangement and relation of the masses. Mr. J. M. Falconer's "Old Farm House," No. 465, is an excellent little piece of true and quiet color. No. 478, "Twilight," by W. Hamilton Gibson, is noticeable, also, for true sentiment and clever execution. And there is a drawing of "Cherokee Roses," by Elizabeth T. King, which appears to us unusually excellent for truth and felicity of drawing and color. Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith has some good and effective work; especially so is No. 510, "A Summer Morning in Venice." This is a sketch only; but it is a good sketch.

We need hardly say more on this occasion. Our remarks have referred mainly to technical points, as they usually must, since our art, as yet, possesses little other than technical qualities—save, perhaps, in some cases, a certain sentiment for simple nature. It is not strange that this should be so. The conditions of life and surroundings are such at present that higher sentiment and imagination get little to feed upon. But there is need of art that shall express the beauty of the familiar aspects of things, and by tasteful selection and affectionate treatment such art may become very helpful and cheering.

We must defer till another number our remarks on the etchings exhibited in connection with the water colors by the New York Etching Club.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 22, 1883.

The Week.

It is evidently the purpose of the high protectionists in Congress to leave the tariff just as it is, unless they can secure the passage of a tariff bill which does not effectually reduce protective duties. At the same time they wish to reduce taxation in some other way, and thus get the credit for lightening the burdens of the people. One of their schemes to this end was to abolish a large portion of the internal revenue by a separate bill. If such a bill were passed, the tariff would, for this session of Congress at least, remain as it is, of course. This was tried in the House of Representatives on Monday, but the necessary two-thirds for a suspension of the rules could not be secured, and the scheme failed. There are Republicans in Congress who comfort themselves with the idea that if they could pass such a bill, leaving the tariff as it stands, the party would not suffer much in public opinion. They are mistaken. They themselves recognized the fact that a revision of the tariff in the sense of a reduction of duties was necessary. They attempted that revision, and if they give up the work in despair, they will have to admit that they were unable to do that which they themselves had recognized as necessary. They will have to admit at the same time that they failed because the special interests favored by the protective tariff at the expense of the rest of the community would not let them serve the public interest. It is difficult to imagine how a party can be in a more unenviable position. It has fostered and coddled certain interests until they grew strong—strong enough, it seems, to assume an attitude of command. In fact, these protected interests have jumped on the back of the party and will ride it to death.

At last the President has made his selection for the Civil-Service Commission, and he deserves commendation for it. The appointment of Mr. Dorman B. Eaton is a peculiarly proper—we might almost say an inevitable — one, and, we think, has been generally expected. Dr. Gregory is a man of uncommon attainments, and his experience as an educator, as well as his profound belief in civil-service reform, seems to fit him eminently for this work. Mr. Thoman is less known, but, by those who do know him, is described as a young man of more than ordinary ability, of high aspirations, and a firm friend to the cause he is called upon to serve. It is reported that with regard to the Democratic member of the Commission Mr. Pendleton's advice was heard, and it may be assumed that in favoring Mr. Thoman Mr. Pendleton kept well in view the practical success of the law with which his name is so honorably connected. Many friends of civil-service reform may regret not to find the name of Mr. E. O. Graves, of the Treasury Department, among the members of the Commission; but it is not impossible that the eminent abilities of that gentleman may be called in requisition for the office of Chief Examiner. One of our morning contemporaries reports that many persons "expect" to see Mr. Burt, the Naval Officer, put in that place. About the fitness of Mr. Burt for it there can be no question. But there can be still less question about the eminent desirability of keeping the man who, foremost of all, promoted the success of practical civil-service reform in the Custom-house of New York, in a place where he can do more good than anywhere else, and probably more than anybody else could do. There seem to be some persons who are fiercely determined that "Burt must go." They want to get him out of the Naval Office for the purpose of putting some working politician in, at any cost; and on every possible occasion their "hopes" and "expectations" are coming to the surface.

The report of a conference committee on the Japanese Indemnity Fund, providing for the return to Japan, without interest, of the sum of $785,000, which had been wrongfully exacted from and paid by that Government, was adopted on Thursday in the House of Representatives by a vote of 132 to 27. If there ever was a case in which a sense of justice to a weaker nation should have induced Congress to provide for every farthing, not only of the principal, but also of interest, that might with any fairness be claimed by that weaker power, it was this case. We are sorry to say that the Japanese Government, by abstaining from any urgency in behalf of its rightful demands, appears to far greater advantage in this affair than does the American Congress, which refuses to pay interest on a sum admitted to have been wrongfully withheld for many years. By its very silence on the subject the Japanese Government seems to have appealed to a sentiment which, in a deplorable degree, is found wanting.

Further failures in the iron trade in the past week—notably that of John V. Ayer's Sons at Chicago—have again helped to unsettle confidence to some extent. One of the first effects of the failure above mentioned was to cause a decided reaction in the prices of grain at the West, which had been advancing in consequence of the continued reports of damage to the winter-wheat crop by bad weather. The damage and loss of property by the floods at the West have also excited fears of important failures in other branches of industry besides the iron trade, and in mercantile circles generally. The depressing effect of these features of the situation has also been felt in the stock market. Prices declined last week from 2 to 4 per cent. on the most active speculative stocks, and the decline was continued on Monday of the present week, making the total from 3 to 5 per cent. in the ten days up to that time. On Tuesday, however, there was a partial restoration of confidence in all the markets, and the decline in prices of both grain and stocks was checked. There has been a large movement of money, notably currency, to the West within the last few days, and as at least $1,500,000 of currency was sent to Chicago, it is believed that the banks there were fortifying themselves against any contingencies that might arise in connection with the iron failures. There has been a firmer feeling in the money market in the past week, and while rates of interest have not quotably advanced, there is good reason for believing that many large financial institutions are preferring to let their money lie idle for a little while, to letting it out at low rates on time loans. Foreign exchange is a fraction lower than a week ago, but it does not decline in proportion to what might be expected as the result of the steadily increasing trade balance in our favor. It is estimated that this balance for January will be from $14,000,000 to $15,000,000, thus making a total of, say, $85,000,000 since the 1st of October, and there is no clear explanation of what has become of it, or at least why exchange has not declined more in consequence.

The production of Rerdell as a witness in the Star-route trial last week shows that the Government has not suffered through the singular verdict rendered in the first trial. When Rerdell was found guilty, and Brady and Dorsey allowed to escape, the result was generally felt to be farcical, for if Rerdell was guilty at all, it could only have been as an employee and agent of Dorsey in the conspiracy. The best use the Government could make of the verdict seemed to be as a means of inducing Rerdell to come forward as State's evidence, and yet this chance appeared to have been lost through the fact that the verdict was hopelessly bad. The Government wisely determined to throw it up, and they have now secured the full benefit of Rerdell's testimony. His voluntary appearance as a witness is evidently a severe blow to the defendants, notwithstanding the fact that in another way his story has already gone into the case, and notwithstanding also that, as a witness, he has a badly smirched reputation. Rerdell confessed long ago to Mr. MacVeagh and Mr. James, and then withdrew his confession, and now has reconsidered this withdrawal, and made a clean breast of it once more.

The value of his testimony consists very much in its minuteness and detail. He gives a complete history of the conspiracy from beginning to end—tells how he became acquainted with Dorsey; how he was employed by him as secretary; how Dorsey taught him the manner of committing the Star-route frauds, how to "fix up proposals" with Miner, and "fill in bids"; how he was sent West by Dorsey, and furnished with money by him; how he got up petitions and had them signed—all these transactions covering a long period of time, and involving correspondence, checks, drafts, interviews, etc., etc. Such testimony, of course, might be manufactured; but if it were, it would be almost sure to break down, and

help rather than hurt the defendants. It involves so many people and so many circumstances and so many documents, that if Rerdell were perjuring himself, the lawyers for the defence would have little difficulty in tripping him up and putting the case of the Government in a very bad light. Rerdell has therefore given Dorsey the very opportunity he has long wanted to vindicate himself. If he cannot break down Rerdell, he is guilty, for there never was a witness who managed before going on the stand to make any testimony he might give more assailable. What a grand opportunity for an innocent man to tear down the elaborate fabric of perjury reared by his enemies! And yet it is said that Dorsey and Brady are very gloomy.

There were two bits of news from the South on Friday which will illustrate the difficulty to which we have of late been calling attention, that any one settling in the South must have, under the prevailing homicidal customs, in forecasting the manner in which any controversy with his neighbors will end. In Young County, Texas, on Wednesday last, there was a meeting of a School Board, or at all events of persons interested in the management of a school. There were differences of opinion about this management, as there almost always are on such occasions, and in due course revolvers were drawn, and there was a general mêlée, in the course of which the wretched teacher was killed and three other persons wounded. The meeting was probably in the schoolhouse, and we can imagine the lesson taught the children, when they came the next morning, by finding the floor smeared with the blood of their teacher and of the school trustees. Of course, Young County is very "gloomy" this week over this sad occurrence, but we fear it is the impotent gloom people feel about floods, and earthquakes, and tornadoes, and not the wrathful gloom of the civilized man who is on the track of a murderer.

The other little affair occurred at a wedding in Tracy City, Tenn. The bride's father objected to the match—not an uncommon thing anywhere; but the bride determined to marry the man of her choice in spite of him—also not uncommon elsewhere. Under the circumstances the wedding had to take place at the bridegroom's house, which was not pleasant, but was doubtless the best place available. In other countries, the angry father would have marked his disapproval by staying away from the ceremony, which is considered in these parts a sufficiently cruel and painful proceeding. But Mr. William Elder, the Tennesseean angry father, did go to the wedding, not, however, to give his daughter away, but to open fire on the groom with his revolver. The groom was all ready for him, a pistol being apparently a part of his wedding suit, and the ceremony was suspended while he and the enraged parent exchanged four shots. This over, and nobody being hurt, the service was resumed and completed. The father "fled," we are told, immediately afterward, but what he fled from it is difficult to see. The jury, if he is tried, will doubtless feel that the spectacle of a daughter's marrying without his consent was more than the old man could be expected to stand.

In Texas, at least, the revolt against unpunished homicide is beginning to take shape. A brutal murder was committed in De Witt County, in that State, six years ago. Dr. Bruzell, a Georgian physician, and a highly respectable man, was taken from his home one night by a party of young men, with his two sons, and he and one son brutally murdered. The other son, a boy, escaped, hid himself, and watched the slaughter of his father and brother from a tree near by. The affair was, in some of its aspects, more atrocious than the Joyce murder in Ireland. The boy recognized some of the party. They were arrested and indicted; but, on one pretence or another, their trial was actually postponed six years. It is only very recently that they were convicted of murder in the first degree. When the trial was over it was discovered that a mistake of a word had been made in copying the indictment. The conviction was quashed and a new trial ordered. In the meantime, the accused are out on bail. The *Texas Siftings* comments indignantly on this failure of justice in the case of "assassins of influence and social status," but declares that if the

> "press cannot break down this infamous travesty on justice, it can, at least, demonstrate that, instead of the Goddess of Justice wearing the white robes of purity, she should be clothed in the scarlet garments of the shameless harlot that she is, fit protectress of the thieves and assassins who have the means to purchase her smiles and favors."

This is not all, however. At Austin, not long ago, "Ben." Thompson, the Marshal of Austin, murdered a man in cold blood. He was arrested, indicted, and tried, and acquitted in the teeth of the evidence, one of the local papers justifying the acquittal, on the ground that he had suffered enough, having been six months in jail, and having lost his marshalship. The German citizens of San Antonio have accordingly held an indignation meeting, at which the conduct of the jury was strongly denounced, and the approving article in the *Evening Light* reprobated as "an unheard-of travesty, unworthy of civilized society."

Jay Hubbell confessed to a newspaper interviewer, a day or two ago, that he had bribed a Michigan newspaper editor with $2,000 or thereabouts, to "work" in his paper against Senator Ferry. There is a legislative investigation going on in that State into other corruptions, in the course of which one Beal, the Chairman of Ferry's campaign committee, confessed that Ferry had promised to execute any promises he might make on his (Ferry's) behalf, and, among others, a promise to get one member of the Legislature appointed Secretary of one of the Western Territories if he would vote for him, and to give another a post-office and to get his son a $1,200 clerkship in Washington. It is easy to see from all these things, both why politicians have believed so firmly in assessments, and why they are so much afraid of the "schoolmarm test" and "an officeholding aristocracy," and why the Civil-Service Reform Act has been such a bitter pill to them. It is alleged, too, that corrupt as this Senatorial contest in Michigan has been, it is not a whit more corrupt than several that have gone before it. But the corruption will obviously be greatly diminished when the candidates are no longer able to bribe with places in the public service.

The failure of J. B. Ayer's Sons, a large iron firm in Chicago, and the consequent troubles of the rolling mills at Youngstown, Ohio, in which Ayer's Sons are the largest stockholders, and the failures of two more iron establishments in other parts of the country at the same time, have started once more the protectionist cry that the prospect of unfavorable legislation in the way of lower duties on iron and steel is ruining that industry, and that therefore the duties ought to be rather increased than diminished. Assuming it to be true that the mere prospect of a reduction of protective tariff duties has so disastrous an effect upon those industries, what condition of things would this circumstance reveal? A great branch of industrial enterprise, an important factor in the business of the country, upon which the prosperity of many investors and the bread and butter of thousands of working people are to depend, resting on the mere accident of political action, and possessing so little solidity that a mere threat of unfavorable legislation can ruin it and reduce those dependent on it to misery. It is just like a tall tower in a crowded town, so shaky that it would not require a real hurricane, but only Wiggins's prediction of a gale, to topple it over. That would be considered a dangerous neighborhood to live in, and the authorities would feel called upon to abate the nuisance. The protectionists themselves are thus putting their case in the worst possible light. The fact is that the iron and steel industry is breaking down from the effects of over-stimulation at a time when not merely the existing duties, but the reduced duties as proposed in Congress, are almost, and as to steel rails quite, prohibitory.

The Queen's speech at the opening of Parliament contains nothing of importance except the announcement that Irish affairs are not to be allowed to occupy as much time as they did last session, and that a Court of Criminal Appeal for election cases will be established. It is pretty well known, however, that the first Ministerial measure will be a bill consolidating the whole of what is now popularly known as "London," but is in reality in the main simply a number of thickly-settled suburban parishes, lying around London, and governed partly by parish vestries, partly by the Metropolitan Board of Works, and partly by the Commissioners of Metropolitan Police. The real London, as all travellers know, is a little district filled with offices lying around the Exchange, in which very few people sleep at night. This is the London known in history as the "City of London." It is now proposed to bring the vast district known popularly as London under one elected municipal corporation, voted for by the ratepayers as the School Board is. There is work enough here to occupy a good deal of the session, and we venture to predict that keeping the Irish from occupying the rest will occupy it.

The excitement in London over Carey's testimony still continues, and promises to be nearly as great as in Dublin, the revelations being likely to be made somewhat embarrassing to the Ministry as well as to the Parnellites. Carey's assertion that the assassination organization was started in 1881 by P. J. Sheridan, who first met him disguised as a priest, is particularly awkward for both parties, because Sheridan was the go-between who brought about the understanding between Parnell and the Government which led to the liberation of the former from Kilmainham Jail, and obtained a sort of half promise that the Land League would do something to put a stop to crime and outrage. If Carey's story be true, this raises the suspicion that some leading men of the League at least knew something of the assassination conspiracy, or were aware that some of the funds were being used for unlawful purposes, or, at all events, knew Sheridan's real character. The truth is, we presume, that the League, like most other organizations of the kind, had a revolutionary or criminal tail. The peaceable O'Connell had the bloodthirsty Young Irelanders. Italian patriots in their best days had hangers-on who were ready to use, and did use, the knife. The Republican party had its John Browns, who were for prompter measures than excluding slavery from the Territories. This does not excuse the Leaguers, but it makes the evidence of Carey less surprising. The parliamentary Leaguers never have taken sufficient care to repudiate the criminals among their supporters, and have themselves to thank in a large measure if they are seriously damaged by the Dublin conspirators. There is indeed some reason to fear that they were not sorry to have English nerves shaken by any means however terrible, knowing how much more Ireland has owed to crime than to remonstrance in procuring a redress of grievances.

The news from England as to the name of "Number One" increases in variety. At first it was Oliver; then it was Milne; then "McAdaras"; and now Macdonald. What makes this all the more surprising is, that we are told he was well known in the lobby of the House of Commons last winter, and is now in London, and his mother was a Frenchwoman and his father an Irishman in the service of the East India Company. There is still no evidence that his name is O'Donovan Rossa. But there are several reasons for thinking that it is Robinson—Mr. W. E. Robinson, of Brooklyn—if it be not O'Donovan Rossa. As an Irish enemy of the British Empire, Mr. Robinson is not simply "Number One," but "A 1." What his views are about "removing" British officers we do not know, but we do know that if necessary to ruin that hated Power, he would burn cities and wade in blood. As regards England, he is a regular Irish Cromwell, and his motto is "Thorough."

The principles upon which the Pope regulates the relations between the Church and secular powers are by no means always the same. While in Prussia he reluctantly recognizes the authority of the State over the servants of the Church in respect to the requirement that the Government be notified of new ecclesiastical appointments, he is reported to go very much further than that in his concessions to the Government in Russia. The latest rumors are that, according to an arrangement concluded between the Pope and the Russian Government, the vacant bishoprics in Russia are soon to be filled with persons agreed upon by the Church and the State authorities; that the Church is to control the management of the ecclesiastical seminaries, subject to the "rights of the State"; that the banished bishops are not to return to their former dioceses, and that the intercourse between the Roman bishops and the Vatican is to be through the organs of the State, namely, the Russian Ministry of Worship, and the diplomatic agent of Russia in Rome. It seems incredible that the Pope should have gone so far in complying with the demands of the State in one country, while refusing in another to concede a practice which in most cases would be little more than a mere formality. It is a notorious fact, however, that the same practice from which the Pope withholds his approval in Prussia has long prevailed, and does now prevail, with his assent in Würtemberg. The opinion is rapidly gaining ground that the peace between Church and State in Prussia, which the Emperor desires, and which the Pope, too, is said personally to desire, is prevented only by the intrigues of the clerical party, whose political heads would lose their political capital and importance by a cessation of hostilities.

The Freycinet Cabinet scheme has vanished from the scene, and the news comes that there is a Jules Ferry Cabinet. Any elaborate discussion of the Ferry Cabinet would be, in the strict sense of the term, premature. There is no reason for supposing that it will have any more weight with the Assembly than the Duclerc Cabinet. But Jules Ferry is better known to the public than Duclerc, and, therefore, if he fails, the President will be in a better position to ask for a dissolution, to which, according to an interview published in the London *Times*, he feels that he undoubtedly must come before long.

The efficiency of the new rules of procedure in the House of Commons is likely to be put to an immediate test in Bradlaugh's case, on the passage of a bill to enable members of Parliament to affirm instead of swearing on being admitted. Bradlaugh, it will be remembered, first demanded permission to affirm, on the ground that an oath would not be binding on his conscience. The House refused to give it, partly because the majority held that, not being a Quaker, he had no right to affirm, but mainly because they disliked him as a Radical and publisher of an indecent book. Bradlaugh was then sued in the courts for voting in the House without having the right to do so, which is a statutable offence, and the courts decided also that he was not entitled to affirm. Thereupon he offered to take the oath, and went to the House for that purpose, but the House refused to permit him, on the ground that in offering to take an oath which he acknowledged would not be binding on his conscience, he proved himself a wicked man, unfit to sit in the House with so many good men. To which he made answer that, in so far as the oath contained a promise or assertion, it would be binding on his conscience, but in so far as it called God to witness to the truth of what he said, it was to him an idle but harmless form, which he was willing to go through in order to please the majority and get admitted to the seat which his constituents had sent him to occupy. The majority were, however, not satisfied with this, and directed him to withdraw, which he refused to do, and was finally dragged out by main force, his clothes being torn in the process.

His troubles, however, were now by no means over, for in professing his willingness to take the oath he offended the more serious wing of the Radicals, to whom refusing to take an oath is just as solemn and sacred a business as taking it is to the Christians. To them the duty of protesting is the first of duties, and Bradlaugh's readiness to shirk it was disgusting. His constituents, however, stood by him, on the broad ground that he was being persecuted and defrauded by prigs, "swells," and hypocrites, and sent him back triumphantly at the head of the poll. The Ministry from the first determined not to make the case a party question, and the members of the Cabinet followed each his own fancy in voting on it; but Mr. Gladstone made no secret of his belief that the House ought to have provided Bradlaugh with a pledge or affirmation that he could take, the object of these tests not being to ascertain what religious tenets a man holds, but what his state of mind is toward the Hanoverian dynasty and the British Constitution. The Attorney-General is now introducing an affirmation bill, which is simply extending to sceptics the privilege, which is already extended to Quakers, of binding their conscience in their own way; but the extreme wing of the Tories are so besotted that they are apparently going to oppose this by every means in their power, not because they object to affirmation as a substitute for the oath, but because it would let in a man whom they dislike. This, of course, is likely to prove very exasperating to the voters in the boroughs, who naturally hold that they elect members to please themselves, and not to please the young sporting men who fight under Lord Randolph Churchill and Sir Henry Wolff. What is most curious in the affair is that the Irish are apparently going to act with the Tories, either because they think the best thing they can do is to work confusion and embarrass the Ministry, or because they abhor Bradlaugh's infidelity. One of the oddest features in the position of the Irish Nationalists is that while politically the Radicals of the rest of Europe seem to be their natural allies, the infidelity of the English Radicals is a barrier to any real union or coöperation between them. There is probably no Fenian assassin who does not secretly abhor a sceptic, and Bradlaugh's scepticism makes him more or less odious to the Home Rulers in Parliament. The prospect of a confused session is therefore very good.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 14, to TUESDAY, February 20, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON Tuesday the President sent to the Senate the names of Dorman B. Eaton, of New York, John M. Gregory, of Illinois, and Leroy D. Thoman, of Ohio, to be the Civil-Service Commissioners under the Civil-Service Reform Bill.

On Monday the Senate voted by 32 to 31 to take books from the free list and impose a duty upon them. The paragraph in the Tariff Bill as now amended reads as follows: "Books, pamphlets, bound or unbound, and all printed matter wholly or partly in the English language, not specially enumerated or provided for in this act, engravings, bound or unbound, etchings, illustrated books, maps, and charts, 15 per cent. *ad valorem*."

On Thursday the Senate continued the consideration of the Tariff Bill, and several amendments were adopted. On Friday Senator Brown was defeated on a proposition to abolish the internal-revenue system by a vote of 50 to 3. On Saturday the time was consumed in talk, none of the amendments being voted on. On Monday the Sherman amendment to the metal schedule was amended and adopted. On Tuesday the Senate passed the bill, with the accompanying provision for a reduction of internal-revenue taxes, by a vote of 42 to 19.

A remonstrance against any reduction of the tariff on books below twenty-five per cent., signed by Oliver Wendell Holmes, T. B. Aldrich, and John G. Whittier, was presented in the Senate on Thursday.

In the House on Wednesday an attempt to put lumber on the free list was defeated by a large majority. On Thursday the sugar schedule was discussed, and the conference report on the Japanese Indemnity Bill was presented. The bill as agreed upon returns to Japan $785,000, the original sum received from that Government, without interest; cancels all the bonds comprising the Japanese Indemnity Fund, and pays to the officers and crews of the *Wyoming* and *Ta Kiang* $140,000. On Friday the House passed the Legislative Appropriation Bill, with the amendments increasing the hours of clerical labor in the departments, by a vote of 170 to 59. On Monday the Republicans were defeated in an attempt to suspend the rules and pass the bill providing for a reduction of the internal revenue. A two-thirds vote was needed in order to suspend the rules, and the motion only received 167 votes to 97 against it.

In the executive session of the Senate on Thursday, Mr. Edmunds called attention to the alleged abuse of the privileges of the floor by lobbyists and others, who, through the indulgence of Senators, have been in the habit of obtaining cards of admission, ostensibly as secretaries. With a view to correcting this evil, Mr. Edmunds introduced the following: "Ordered, that no person shall be admitted to the floor as private secretary by a Senator until the Senator appointing him shall certify in writing to the Sergeant-at-Arms that he is actually employed for the performance of the duties of such secretary, and is engaged in the performance of the same." The resolution was referred to the Committee on Rules.

General Hazen wrote a letter to Secretary Lincoln requesting that an investigation of his administration of the Signal Office be made by a committee of the Senate, such committee to be empowered to send for persons and papers, and to make the investigation comprehensive and complete in every particular. Mr. Lincoln refused the request, on the ground that there was no precedent for granting it; that it would involve a violation of a general rule of parliamentary practice; and that the investigation should be undertaken by one of the administrative departments of the Government, or else, since General Hazen is an officer of the Army, by a tribunal provided in the Articles of War.

Secretary Frelinghuysen has sent copies of the memorial of the New York Chamber of Commerce, in regard to the prohibition of American pork in Germany, to the United States Minister at Berlin, with instructions to bring the matter to the attention of the Imperial Government, and ask that it shall take such measures to investigate the subject as shall remove all doubts touching the proposed prohibitory action.

The report of the Department of Agriculture on the cotton crop states that the returns of product in bales make an aggregate of over 6,000,000. The returns are nearly unanimous in declaring the staple to be larger and whiter than usual, and comparatively free from trash. It is probable that about 17 per cent. of the crop still remains in farmers' hands.

An important event in the Star-route trials took place on Thursday. Montfort C. Rerdell withdrew his first plea, pleaded guilty, threw himself on the mercy of the Court, and offered to testify to all facts within his knowledge touching the conspiracy. He was a clerk of Dorsey's, and was regarded by the Government as the least guilty of all the conspirators, notwithstanding which he was the only one found guilty in the first trial. The defendants have been much afraid of him, and while he was in jail last September stole some of his papers. His testimony on Thursday went to prove Dorsey's connection with the manufacture of bogus petitions, and Brady's understanding with Dorsey. On Friday he began to tell the whole story of the conspiracy, and fortified his testimony by documents which he had in his possession as Dorsey's secretary. His testimony on Monday was very important, being a minute account of his interview with Dorsey in Washington, when he told the latter that he would do anything to help him but commit perjury, to which Dorsey replied, "What does that amount to when a friend's fate is at stake? Rerdell, for God's sake, don't ruin me and my family; particularly just now, to be torn down from the height I occupy would be death to my wife." Rerdell said he allowed himself to be overcome, and, under Dorsey's directions, drew up an affidavit denying everything he had said to Messrs. James and MacVeagh, which he signed and swore to, and which was afterward carried to President Garfield by Dorsey and Ingersoll. Rerdell was greatly affected while recounting his interview with Dorsey. Shortly before the court adjourned Rerdell identified a number of papers, consisting of petitions, affidavits, sub-contracts, etc., which he pronounced to be forgeries by the two Dorseys and Miner.

The Court of Inquiry appointed to investigate the circumstances of the loss of the arctic exploring steamer *Jeannette* has made a report which says that the loss of the vessel was inevitable under the circumstances, and commends the subsequent course of the officers in command of the boats. Touching the general conduct and merits of all of the officers and men, the report says that it finds no reason to impute censure to any member of the party, and that, considering the circumstances, "the general conduct of the personnel of the expedition seems to have been a marvel of cheerfulness, good-fellowship, and mutual forbearance; while the constancy and endurance with which they met the hardships and dangers that beset them entitle them to great praise." In regard to the vessel herself, the report says that while it is admitted that she was not especially adapted for this service, her condition was "good and satisfactory to her officers and crew."

After an exciting debate the Minnesota House, on Wednesday, by a vote of 38 to 49, decided to postpone indefinitely the bill providing for the submission to a vote of the people of an amendment to the Constitution prohibiting the manufacture or sale in the State of spirituous or malt liquors.

The State Democratic Committee of Virginia, after a long session on Wednesday, adopted a resolution that a general convention be held in Lynchburg on the 25th of July next, to take such action as may be deemed conducive to the future harmony of the party, and that all conservative Democrats opposed to radicalism and bossism are equally entitled to participate in the election of delegates to the said convention.

While depositions were being taken in Richmond, Va., on Monday, in the contested Congressional election case of John E. Massey against John S. Wise, a quarrel between the two resulted in Wise slapping Massey's face. The men were both arrested.

The Ohio River continued to rise on Wednesday, and at 9 o'clock in the evening it had reached, at Cincinnati, sixty-six feet and three-quarter inches. Four lives were lost in the disaster at the Southern Railway station. The distress and damage were widespread, and the police and relief boats entirely inadequate to supply the demands upon them. Thousands of people were homeless, and many suffering from want of food. Railroad communication with the outside world was almost entirely cut off. At Louisville the situation was almost as bad, and from other towns in Ohio, Kentucky, and Indiana came stories of heavy losses and suffering caused by the flood. On Thursday the water began to recede at Cincinnati, and the worst was over, and relief measures were vigorously carried out. It was estimated on Thursday that at least 50,000 people in the Ohio Valley were either homeless or imprisoned by the water. At Louisville the waterworks were closed, and the river continued to rise. At Lawrenceburg, Ind., 200 buildings were swept away on Friday, and 3,000 people driven from their homes, while at New Albany, Ind., 1,200 houses were washed away and 5,000 people homeless. In Lawrenceburg on Saturday the water was seven feet deep in the highest streets of the town. By Sunday the river had fallen considerably, and the authorities in Cincinnati began to clean the streets. On Monday the Executive Committee of the Relief Committee of Cincinnati announced that they had sufficient funds on hand to afford all necessary relief. In New York, as well as in other cities, large sums of money have been raised for the relief of the sufferers. The United States Express Company has offered to transport, free of expense, to any point on its lines, contributions of goods or money. No estimate can be made of the damage done in the Ohio Valley.

Ex-Governor Edwin D. Morgan died in New York on Wednesday. He was born in Washington, Berkshire County, Mass., in 1811; was elected Governor of New York in 1858, and reëlected in 1860; was U. S. Senator from New York from 1863 to 1869; and Chairman of the National Republican Committee during the campaign of 1872, which resulted in the second election of General Grant to the Presidency. He was the Republican candidate for Governor of New York in 1876, but was defeated by Lucius Robinson. President Arthur nominated him for Secretary of the Treasury, and the nomination was confirmed by a unanimous vote of the Senate, but he declined the office.

FOREIGN.

On Thursday the examination of the prisoners charged with conspiracy to murder Government officers was resumed in Dublin. A number of witnesses were examined, who corroborated the details of Kavanagh's testimony. On Saturday a great sensation was caused in the court by James Carey, the accused town councillor, stepping into the witness-box as witness for the Crown. He was hissed by the other prisoners. His testimony was continued on Monday, and was of the greatest importance, as it corroborated Kavanagh's story of the Phœnix Park tragedy, and proved Brady to have been the man who did the actual killing of Mr. Burke and Lord Frederick Cavendish. After giving an ac

count of the Fenian Brotherhood, of which he was Treasurer, he told of the formation of an organization of "picked Fenians," in Dublin, called the Invincibles, whose object was to "remove all tyrants," and of which Walsh, McCaffrey, and James Mullett were to form the Board of Directors A number of men were selected to do the work of the organization, Mullett's principal selection being Brady. Mr. Forster and Earl Cowper were among those to be "removed." The witness gave an account of a number of attempts which were made to murder Mr. Forster. He then gave a detailed account of the murder of Mr. Burke and Lord Cavendish, which was listened to amidst intense excitement. He described minutely the movements of the conspirators on the morning of the murder. He himself went to the Park in a cab accompanied by his two little children, together with Joseph Hanlon and Smith. He described how he saw seven men meet the two victims. The men were, first, Curley, Joseph Hanlon, and Fagan, Brady and Kelly next, and then McCaffrey and Patrick Delaney. Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke were allowed to pass through by the first three, and the last four then faced right about. When Carey again looked the two men had closed in on the two gentlemen. The witness continued: "I saw Joseph Brady raising his left hand and striking a man dressed in a gray suit. That was all I saw." Carey then repeated a conversation he had after the murder with Brady, who said he stabbed Mr. Burke in the left shoulder. The other gentleman came up and called him a ruffian. He ran after him into the road and stabbed him. He then looked around and saw Kelly coming away from Burke's body, and he and Brady went and cut Burke's throat. Lord Cavendish, when he spoke, struck Brady with an umbrella. Brady continued: "I then made at him. He held up his arm and I struck it. He ran into the road." The witness detailed his conversation with Curley in the evening, in which the latter said he had at first feared there was going to be another failure when he saw the men face about. Three of them were armed. Brady had two knives. After the murder Curley saw Brady wiping a bloody knife on the grass. Curley waited until the murderers were on the car, and then got into a cab and came to Dublin. He put a card into the box of the Dublin *Express* office stating what had been done. The next day he gave similar notices to the *Times* and the *Freeman's Journal*. The cards read: "Executed by order of the Irish Invincibles."

On Monday Carey concluded his evidence. He said he had no idea that Lord Frederick Cavendish was to be murdered when Mr. Burke was attacked, and that he was stupefied when he heard of the murder of the former. He said the head man of the conspiracy was a man whose name he did not know, but who was known to the rest of the conspirators as "Number One," and who always had an unlimited supply of money. The authorities are endeavoring to identify "Number One." At the conclusion of Carey's testimony all the prisoners under examination, except Whelan, were remanded for trial. They will be returned for trial before a special commission of three judges, and the trial will probably take place in March.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* says it is stated that the Government will open at Dublin Castle on Friday an inquiry into a conspiracy of much wider range and more destructive aims than the Murder Society.

At the preliminary meeting of the Irish Parliamentary party in London on Wednesday to consider the action of the Irish members of the House of Commons during the session, more than twenty persons were present. Mr. Parnell was reëlected Chairman. It was decided that an amendment should be made to the address in reply to the speech from the throne dealing with the operation of the Crimes Act. Regret was expressed at Mr. Healy's arrest. A further amendment to the address was resolved upon, dealing with the failure of the Government to propose adequate remedial legislation for Ireland. It was decided to hold weekly meetings of the party, and not to reëlect the Parliamentary Committee.

Parliament reassembled on Thursday. The Queen's speech said that the policy of the Government in Egypt would be to "insure the stability of the Khedive's Government, the prosperity and happiness of the Egyptians, the security of the canals and the peace of Eastern Europe"; that the improvement in the social condition of Ireland continued, and that agrarian crime had sensibly diminished and law been everywhere upheld; that measures would be submitted to Parliament for the establishment of a Court of Criminal Appeal, for preventing corrupt practices, and for perpetuating and amending the Ballot Act, and a bill would also be introduced to secure more effectually to tenants in England and Scotland compensation for agricultural improvements. In conclusion, the speech says that Parliament has provided for the most urgent needs of Ireland, and that the claims of general legislation and other parts of the kingdom now demand its attention. The Speaker read a letter from Mr. Bradlaugh, in which he said that the House having refused to hear him or his constituents, he should present himself and do all that the law required in an endeavor to sit and vote. The Marquis of Hartington said that the Government would introduce at once a bill authorizing members to make affirmation. After some debate a motion by Mr. Parnell for the appointment of a committee of inquiry into Mr. Healy's arrest was rejected by a vote of 353 to 47. In the debate on the address in reply to the Queen's speech, Sir Stafford Northcote said the Government should have made some announcement in regard to the Affirmation Bill in the speech from the throne, and that Englishmen had as much right to know the Government's intentions in regard to Egypt as in regard to other countries. The Marquis of Hartington replied. On Friday two amendments to the address, attacking the Government policy toward Egypt, were defeated, and the House went into committee to allow the introduction of the Affirmation Bill. Mr. Newdegate, Conservative, opposed the introduction of the bill, and charged that the Government brought it forward in terror of Mr. Bradlaugh's mob. A number of motions to obstruct the bill were introduced, but were all defeated by considerable majorities. It is stated that the Tories and Parnellites will obstruct the passage of the bill, but that Sir Stafford Northcote and other leading Conservatives discountenance such tactics. On Monday Mr. Parnell announced that he would offer an amendment, in reply to the speech from the throne, and gave notice that he would severely criticise the administration of the Crimes Act, jury packing, iniquitous sentences, etc.

The London *Times* on Thursday published an authoritative statement regarding the interview on Tuesday, the 13th instant, at Farnborough, between ex-Empress Eugénie and Prince Jerome Napoleon, which, it says, has cleared up some private misunderstandings existing between the ex-Empress and the Prince, and has led to the formal resignation of the latter as the head of the Bonaparte family. The ex-Empress was not called upon to express any opinion of her kinsman's general policy, and could not, consistently with the line of policy adopted by her while sojourning in Great Britain, do more than assure her cousin of her best wishes for any constitutional action he may take toward bringing about a plébiscite.

The Committee of the French Chamber of Deputies met on Wednesday to consider the different bills relating to pretenders. M. Floquet's motion prohibiting the presence in France or Algeria of any members of former French dynasties, was adopted. The bill was reported on Thursday, and it was amended so as to render the Princes liable to expulsion by the decree of the President of the Republic, and placing them under half pay instead of depriving them of their military rank. In this form it was passed by a vote of 342 to 182. On Friday the bill was sent to the Senate and referred to a committee, which reported that the concessions offered by the Chamber of Deputies were more apparent than real, and recommended the rejection of the bill. On Saturday, MM. Say and Waddington opposed the bill, and the first two clauses were rejected.

On Sunday President Grévy accepted the resignation of the Ministers, and intrusted M. Ferry with the formation of a new Cabinet. M. Ferry will assume the post of Minister of Foreign Affairs, with the following associates: M. Martin-Feuillée, Minister of the Interior; M. Waldeck-Rousseau, Minister of Justice; M. Tirard, Minister of Finance; General Thibaudin, Minister of War; M. Raynal, Minister of Public Works; M. Cochery, Minister of Posts and Telegraphs; M. Pierre Legrand, Minister of Commerce; M. de Mahy, Minister of Agriculture.

The Pope, in his letter replying to Emperor William, announces that he has permitted the bishops, without waiting for a complete revision of the May laws, to inform the Government of the selection of new curates. The Pope asks that, in addition to the revision, measures be taken to mitigate the impediments to the exercise of clerical duties and the training of the clergy. This, he says, is indispensable to the very life of the Church. If an agreement be established thereon, a real, durable peace will be easy. Herr von Schloezer has been instructed to report the Emperor's dissatisfaction with the proposed *modus vivendi*.

The President of the Reichstag gave an account on Friday of the fund for the relief of sufferers by the inundations in Germany, mentioning the amount received from America and elsewhere. Herr Bernuth asked that the House express its thanks for these large donations, amid loud applause, which the President said he regarded as an expression of the thanks of the House. The sum received from the United States was 588,100 marks.

In the Reichstag on Friday the Budget and Loan bills were approved. The receipts and payments balance, the total of each being 590,556,634 marks. The session was prorogued until May 3.

The election of members of the Committee of the Spanish Chamber on the Oath Bill has resulted entirely in favor of the Government.

The death of Wagner called forth universal expressions of regret in Europe, and his family have received telegrams of condolence from all parts of the world. A permanent committee has been formed in Vienna to carry out a proposal of the municipality, to place a tablet on the façade of the Vendremini Palace, to mark the house in which he died. On Sunday the funeral took place at Bayreuth. The town was draped in mourning, and wreaths were sent from most of the theatres and musical societies of Germany and Austria. The coffin was laid in the tomb, at the request of the widow, with only a simple religious blessing. Passages from Wagner's operas were sung at the grave by musical societies. The King of Bavaria has undertaken the education of the dead composer's son.

The municipality of Rome has placed a memorial tablet in the house which Samuel F. B. Morse inhabited there in 1830. The Syndic has informed the American Minister that the unveiling of the tablet will be deferred until the wishes of the American colony in regard to the ceremony are made known.

CONGRESSIONAL PARALYSIS.

THE news from Washington of the virtual abandonment of the tariff by the House, and of the consequent likelihood that no revision of it whatever will be made by either house, has really an importance which the popular interest in the tariff does not give it. If it meant simply that Congress had come to the conclusion, after deliberation, that it was not advisable to reduce the tariff this year, and if the debates which had led to this conclusion had been made public, or if there had been manifest public opposition to its reduction on the part of great bodies of the taxpayers, nothing would be more natural and comprehensible than that Congress should, even after having expended so much labor on it, let it alone. What is startling and serious in the action of Congress is, that no doubt whatever has been thrown on the genuineness of the popular demand, as expressed in the elections last fall, for a reduction of taxation. It is not alleged in any quarter that the voters did not call for a reduction of taxes; or that the Commission appointed some months ago to examine the field of taxation was not intended to provide a plan for reducing them with justice and safety; or that the country has changed its mind since the election; or that there is any danger to the national credit or to the public service in reducing them; or, in short, that anything has happened since November last to make the reduction of them any less the duty of Congress now than it was then, or to throw doubt on the wisdom of the President's suggestions with regard to the taxes as expressed in his message.

There is, moreover, every reason to believe that both parties in Congress would like to reduce the tariff, and that both of them are afraid to go before the people again without having reduced it. Each of them at this moment is resorting to all sorts of devices to produce the impression that it would have reduced the tariff if the other had not hindered it. So that we are really driven back on the conclusion that the reason why Congress has not reduced the tariff and does not propose to do so is that it has not the power; or, in other words, that the revenue of the nation is no longer under its control. A more serious state of things in a great commercial nation could hardly occur in a season of profound peace. Nothing is more serious than a paralysis of any branch of the Government, and especially of the legislative branch, because it is very difficult to provide a remedy for it. The Legislature is the fountain of governmental vigor. From it the Executive derives its force, activity, and efficiency. If the Legislature cannot command, the readiness of the Administration to obey, so valuable under ordinary circumstances, is of no value at all.

Mr. James Bryce, who visited this country last year, wrote an article in the *Fortnightly Review* on his return, in which he explained a great deal of the corruption of our politics, and what may be called the second-rateness of our politicians, and the feebleness of the popular interest in their doings and sayings, by the unimportance of the Government and the smallness of the part it played in the national activity. Politics is, in other words, according to him, a comparatively insignificant feature of American life, and therefore the best talent of the country does not go into it. This is, no doubt, in part the explanation of a good deal that is defective and clumsy in the working of our governmental machinery, but it by no means accounts for such a state of things as we now witness in Washington. It was supposed by unfriendly critics during the war that the Legislature was so feeble that it dared not impose taxes on the people to carry on the war, and this was certainly an easy deduction from Mr. Bryce's theory. It was, however, speedily refuted. There is nothing now more certain than that in the matter of imposing taxes for plainly needful purposes Congress is one of the most powerful legislative bodies in the world. What is novel and startling in the present situation is that Congress cannot take taxes off and cannot explain why. It is, apparently, somewhat in the position of Louis XVI. when Turgot came into power. Turgot framed admirable plans of financial reform, for restoring the public credit, and at the same time lightening the popular burdens. So did Necker, who came after him. The King approved of what they proposed, but found he could not carry out their plans. The reason was that the persons who were interested in the perpetuation of the abuses, and who stood silent and invisible behind the throne, would not let him. They were too powerful, both for him and for the Ministers. Consequently, nothing was done, and the Revolution came.

Our Congress is apparently in somewhat the same helpless condition as the French King. Congressmen are controlled by persons who are more powerful than the public, whom the public does not see, or only gets momentary glimpses of as they flit to and fro in the lobbies of the Capitol, and who desire that taxes may be kept high so that their private incomes may not be reduced. This is the long and short of the whole matter, and is the inevitable result of the protective system. A protective tariff under a Government like ours is almost certain not to be framed on a general principle of any kind, because no principle is strong enough in the popular mind to be paramount. Our tariff is, therefore, framed to meet the demands of a great number of individuals, who are most skilful in making themselves heard above the general din; and once framed, they make it their business to see that the right men are returned to Congress to look after it, or, in other words, that the Congressmen become the agents of particular persons or firms, and not of the voters. When this arrangement is once thoroughly made, the taxation of the country has really passed out of the taxpayer's control. He may write as many pamphlets and articles as he pleases, and thunder as much as he pleases in platforms. It will not produce the smallest effect, as long as he allows Congress to make tariffs for any purpose but revenue.

CONGRESS AND BOOKS.

ONE of the most interesting of the tariff debates occurred on the 14th inst., on an amendment, made in the Committee of the Whole in the Senate, putting books on the free list. This amendment was adopted in the Committee of the Whole under the influence, doubtless, of the idea under which the revision of the tariff generally was first called for—viz., that the tariff was too high, and that it was much too high on books. Books are supposed to be among the chief agents of civilization. As a general rule, the more books a country consumes, and the more booksellers it has, the more civilized it is. That a country cannot have too many books or too many readers has long been one of the axioms of progress, and is recognized in the collection of libraries, and in the immense stimulus given to reading by endowed schools and colleges. There is no article manufactured by man in which the real value is so much out of proportion to the commercial value as a book. Newton's 'Principia,' for instance, has a real value to civilization which cannot be estimated in money. Its commercial value may be only a dollar. Books, too, record the experience of mankind in every art, and thus save countless millions of money, and countless hours of valuable time, in enabling each generation to start at the point where the previous generation had left off, instead of beginning at the beginning.

One would think, therefore, that in our time and country there would be an overwhelming desire to get books anywhere and by any honest means, and that a man who proposed to throw obstacles in the way of getting them would be laughed at as much as if he insisted that there was too much sunlight or water. In Congress, however, there are actually men who maintain that the printing and binding of books are of more importance than their contents, and that if 100,000 men want to read a book, it is best to withhold it from them altogether if it cannot be printed by 100 men in a certain place. Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, opposed putting books on the free list, because, he said, if books were allowed to come in duty free, our "printers would have nothing to do except print newspapers and job work." So that, apparently, in his mind the chief use of books is to give work to printers and binders, while the supply of knowledge and entertainment to a whole nation is only a secondary one. But printers and binders can be employed on any kind of work. The two classes combined, according to the Tenth Census, amounted to but 70,000, and it would not cost many millions a year, besides the proceeds of sales, to maintain them in great comfort, while printing and binding such works as Congressmen might select. Congress might, at the commencement of each session, decide how many printers and binders it would keep going during the current fiscal year, and what kind of literature they should be employed upon. The printers and binders being thus provided for, the 50,000,000 of American readers might be left free to ransack the world for their supplies of mental food.

At first sight it seems an enormous exaggeration to set down every American man, woman, and child as a reader, whose demand for books can be affected by the tariff. But in reality it is no exaggeration at all. A very large proportion of the reading of every country is done vicariously. Every man and

woman who read, read not for themselves only, but for all who are in any way dependent on them or under their influence—for children, for servants, for neighbors, for friends, for the whole country. There are but very few indeed who can keep to themselves the benefit of a book. It passes out to the rest of the community through knowledge, through character, through new hopes, new fears, new aims and ambitions. It has been well said that the rude fisherman of the northern seas labors for the highest interests of his race, because he helps to feed the scholar's lamp. It may also be said that the scholar over his lamp labors to lift the rude fisherman's children to a higher plane of comfort and culture, by preparing the day when they will not need to follow their father's hard life, and when they, as well as the scholar, will sit by better lights than whale oil can supply. In fact, it is not possible in our world to-day to give any man a book for himself alone. The reader reads for the race, as the discoverer discovers and the inventor invents; and the smart Congressman who is so careful of the printers and binders that he will not give the people cheap books, strikes as hard a blow as he can at the very agencies which have brought printers and binders into existence.

The petition signed by Dr. Holmes and the poet Whittier for a duty on books would have been more surprising if they had not given their reasons. These reasons were two in number. One was that if books were not taxed, this country would be flooded with cheap books. This, we need hardly say, is very odd, because the great argument used by American publishers hitherto against admitting foreign publishers to our market has been that it would make books dear. The other was that if we opened our book market to foreigners, they would pervert the minds of Americans, and especially American children, with foreign ideas. This has been for years a favorite notion with the eminent firm of publishers who lay Dr. Holmes's and Mr. Whittier's books before the world, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that it is on their urging that these two men of letters have been led to adopt it. It is perhaps, all things considered, the queerest idea yet produced on the American continent, outside the field of religious fanaticism, and so extreme a product of protection that we almost think it would make John Roach laugh.

We shall not, therefore, attempt to refute it, but must point out that if the American mind is to be protected at all by the Government, we ought not to stop with the protection afforded by the tariff. We are bound to see also that native authors do not publish unsound books, likely to be injurious to our politics, morals, or philosophy. In other words, we ought to have a censorship of all books, including children's books. The same rule ought, as we said some time ago, to be applied to pictures. If, as some artists maintain, we ought to keep out bad foreign pictures by the tariff, we ought also to see to it that native painters do not sell bad pictures to their fellow-citizens. The truth is, that whenever the protective system is in full working order in the shape in which some of its friends would like to see it, the American man will be a very singular phenomenon. He will be so much looked after that it will be but decent to put him into petticoats, and have a discreet publisher or a wise and good ironmaster take him by the hand whenever he goes out, and see that he does not waste his money on naughty books or bad tools.

WAGNER'S WORK AND INFLUENCE.

MUSICIANS claim that their art, although but three centuries old, in its modern sense, has already outstripped all other arts, and become the greatest æsthetic force of the time. However this may be, it cannot be denied that no other art could have furnished a representative capable of successfully organizing anything analogous to the "Nibelung" and "Parsifal" festivals at Bayreuth, at which the greatest living dramatic vocalists assembled to sing to the most select and cosmopolitan audiences probably ever brought together under one roof. Some of the finest architectural works in existence have been erected in Vienna during the last ten years; but few are the tourists who go there expressly to see them. A modern Shakspere, recognized as such, would hardly be able to accomplish what Wagner has done; nor would an art exhibition arranged in such a small and remote town as Bayreuth meet with much favor, even if it included the best works of more than one popular artist of the past or present. This shows that music in general, and Wagner's in particular, must possess a power to inspire enthusiasm unequalled by any other art, at least in this age. This enthusiasm is not one of those phenomena which, like a comet, appear one day and disappear the next; in Wagner's case it has grown in force steadily during the last thirty years, until it has now carried away almost the last strongholds of the enemy. His best friends, from the beginning, were contemporary men of genius on the one side, and the people on the other. The opposition came from the middle men, the Philistines, professional musicians, and critics. These had a code of traditional laws which no one was allowed to transgress. An opera, they reasoned, consists of a potpourri-overture, several arias, duets, choruses, and a simple orchestral accompaniment. In Wagner's operas we do not find these things; therefore, he is an iconoclast, an enemy of music, a vandal.

It never occurred to them that it might be possible to compose good music in these new forms, too, and that the best things in the works of Gluck, Mozart, and Weber pointed in the direction of Wagner's reforms. The people, however, in spite of these misrepresentations and tirades, gradually and successively made the acquaintance of his operas, and, to their great surprise, found them palatable. Wagner himself tells of cases that came to his knowledge, where a single hearing of "Lohengrin" effected a complete revolution in a person's musical taste. These cases were by no means isolated, and they would have been more frequent still had not the vicious "lyric" habits prevalent at most opera-houses twenty years ago prevented the singers from doing justice to these new dramatic operas. At that time "Lohengrin" was almost as badly given in German cities as it is to-day in New York, and it seemed therefore quite unintelligible and dreary to most hearers. But it is only when imperfectly reproduced that Wagner's operas are difficult to understand; otherwise, his music, in its harmonious union with poetry, action, and scenery, possesses a peculiar fascination for people to whom a classical symphony is "Hebrew"; and this fascination does not lie in the theatric accessories, but in the music itself. In proof of this statement we may cite a few lines from Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's interesting article on "Parsifal" in a recent number of the *Atlantic*:

"This music," he says, "had a supernatural note—an unworldly, not to say a spiritual, suggestion. It rose and fell, more importunate than strident, in pleading, in warning, in entreaty. Whether it was good music or utterly impossible music I cannot say, owing to a constitutional and cultivated ignorance of musical composition; but it affected me now and again like the wind in a vast forest of pines on a summer day. It appealed to the imagination, it excited expectation, it begat an indefinable longing; and now and then a minor strain, full of sadness or of passion, suggested a theme like the opening of a window into another world—a theme which was to be renewed again and again in the drama, when it came to us like a reminiscence of some former life."

Mr. Warner reminds the reader repeatedly that he has no knowledge of music as an art or science, and his testimony is therefore of the greatest interest as proof of the assertion that Wagner's music appeals even to a semi-musical mind in a direct and forcible way. Such a mind, of course, only feels this influence without being able to analyze or explain it. It is, however, easy to explain it, and we purpose to do so in a few lines.

The first point to be considered is, that Wagner was the first to abandon consistently in his operas the simple rhythmic structure which forms the skeleton of all dance music, as well as of our sonatas and symphonies. In these, roughly speaking, the melody is divided, as it were, into lines or verses of eight bars each, and at the end of every four, eight, or sixteen bars there is a cadence analogous to an end rhyme. These systematic cadences appear very tiresome and superfluous to a modern listener; they remind him sometimes of a grasshopper which flies eight feet, alights, flies again, and so on. Now, Wagner scorns this eight-bar arrangement, and seldom uses a cadence (*i. e.*, touches ground) except at the end of an act. His music, therefore, has a grander sweep—it is like the lofty flight of an eagle, and in its most sublime moments affects the imagination like the irresistible movement of a planet. It is this elementary force that imposes on the unmusical alike with the musical. But in introducing such an innovation Wagner seemed indeed a bold, bad man. The babies cried for their toys; he gave them no eight-bar tunes which they might whistle in the street and have the barrel-organs grind out for them. If all dramatic poetry had up to the present date been written in the form of rhymed verse, and a powerful author suddenly appeared who used only prose, the case would be analogous to Wagner's. It is needless to add that this does not affect the poetic *character* of Wagner's music; much of our best poetic literature has the form of prose. The two principal reasons why Wagner abandoned the tune-form were that it had been worn threadbare, and that it did not permit a thorough union of drama and music to be effected without constantly sacrificing the musician's means of expressing emotion to the rigid rhythmic form. For the same reason he abandoned all the old operatic forms—the aria, duo, ensemble, chorus—except in cases where they were demanded by a lyric situation.

Of still greater importance in explaining the elemental power of Wagner's music is the fact that he has so greatly enlarged the means of expressing definite emotions by means of new and varied orchestral combinations and harmonic progressions. Music can express an emotion as a phase of happiness or sadness very definitely, but not the pictorial object or cause of the emotion. Wagner refers somewhere to the curious circumstance that he has been frequently classed with the composers of programme music. Nothing could be more erroneous. If he had believed that music should embody or suggest pic-

torial objects, he would not have written music-dramas, but symphonic poems. The very essence of his theory is that music should be combined with poetry and scenery, because it cannot suggest images; whereas, in connection with them, on the stage, it intensifies and specializes the emotions in a most potent manner. All the orchestral innovations introduced by Wagner tend to make emotional expression more intense and definite. His principal means of accomplishing this end were four in number. (1) He introduced an infinite variety of new tone-colors; and such colors are not only sensuous but emotional factors, as everybody can see when he compares the cold, serene beauty of a flute with a majestic trombone, or a warm, passionate, melancholy 'cello with a humorous bassoon or impertinent oboe. Where the existing means of coloring did not suffice for his purposes, he enlarged the spectrum by adding new or obsolete instruments. (2) He made a more impressive use of discords than any composer before him. Discord is passion; it begets that "excited expectation" and "indefinable longing" of which Mr. Warner speaks. (3) His modulations ("that great engine of emotion," to use Dr. Grove's words) have finally emancipated music from the fetters of tonality and slavish sequence of keys. The incessant modulations in his music have been one of the chief causes of professional animosity toward him, because they are epoch-making. Wagner's preference for the minor mode is partly due to the tragic character of his dramas, partly to the fact that the minor mode is more favorable for modulation than the major. (4) He gave music a *secondary* definiteness by means of the leading motives, which, having once been heard in connection with a certain character or important idea of the drama, are subsequently always associated with this person or idea, thus adding the power of *remembered* emotion to that of the present moment. On account of the leading motives, Wagner's music to each drama constitutes a drama in itself. When once the events and persons they are associated with are known, the listener can close his eyes, and, while listening to the music alone, see the whole play unroll itself before his mind's eye.

The poetic gifts of Wagner are not yet so generally recognized as his musical genius; and yet, if perfect adaptation of means to end is the highest criterion of judgment, his dramatic verse deserves no less praise than his music. Wagner's own brother, Albert, did not think much of his music, but considered him a great poet—an opinion which is held by many in Germany. It is useless to look for figures of speech and other poetic ornaments in his dramas. These elements are supplied by the music. It is the astonishing ingenuity of dramatic construction and the powerful directness of the language that strike the attention of the unprejudiced reader. Oddities of expression and archaisms are not nearly so frequent as people have been led to believe by hostile critics, who picked out a dozen eccentric lines in each drama and published them as "specimens" of the whole. His principle of alliteration does not seem to be generally understood. It is simply this, that some consonants are by nature harsh and dissonant, others soft and gentle. In harsh passages, therefore, Wagner uses the former, in quiet scenes the latter, just as he uses discords or concords: it adds color and emotional intensity to the scene. In writing his vocal parts, Wagner took especial pains to assign to each vowel in a word a note in that part of the scale in which it can most easily be sung. This enables the singers to articulate the words with unprecedented distinctness. To his influence also is due the fact that singers at the present day are obliged to conform in their actions and gestures to the dramatic sense of the phrase they sing, and to pay attention to the scenic background. The stage machinists and scene painters, for their part, have learned much from Wagner, who gave them habitually very hard nuts to crack. Before his day, the notion prevailed that classical works could take care of themselves and needed no luxurious scenic outfit. This notion has been abandoned since he first by his music dramas, and after him the Meiningen Company in Germany and Mr. Irving in England, showed how much the classical drama gains in impressiveness and popular attractiveness by being presented in a proper framework. There is no reason why the trashy melodramas should have the exclusive benefit of the stage-carpenter's and scene-painter's art.

In considering the personal character of Wagner, we meet with the negative traits of self-assertion, stubbornness, and occasional rash violence, which are apt to belong to a reformer who has to conquer every inch of ground "by main force." Among his friends, however, he was most amiable, jolly, and often childlike. He has been often harshly treated for having criticised Mendelssohn, Schumann, Berlioz, and Meyerbeer in severe terms. But on examination it will be found that in most of these cases it was not Wagner who struck the first blow. In regard to Meyerbeer, whom he treated most severely of all, there were especial reasons for personal gratitude, as Meyerbeer lent him a helping hand early in his career. But Wagner felt, as he says, that in such a case personal feelings must be sacrificed to truth and the interests of art. His libellous comedy on the French, "A Capitulation," was *malàpropos*, as coming directly after their defeat by the German Army; but if ever a man had cause to exult over an enemy's defeat, that man was Richard Wagner. His attack on the Jews in music was partly due to his aversion to certain "commercial" (or what we should call "political") features in the music of the day, and to the fact that he saw himself and his admired classical masters unduly neglected in favor of Meyerbeer and Mendelssohn. Many of his criticisms on these and other composers have been verified by the verdict of contemporary critics and audiences. Not the least of his merits, moreover, is the fact that he frankly exposed the faults even of those composers whom he otherwise so greatly admired—Haydn, Mozart, Weber, Beethoven, etc. He thus abolished the old superstition that a great composer must be above all criticism; but it was these isolated criticisms which his enemies quoted in proof of their assertion that he was "down on" all the classical composers. In general, it must be said of his critical and other prose writings that they are characterized by a complicated and turgid style. There are, however, numerous exceptions—pages in which he becomes clear, concise, and forcible. His historical sketch of Italian and German opera ranks with the best critical literature in style as well as in thought. His most eccentric performances are two pamphlets *à la* Schopenhauer, one against vivisection, the other in favor of vegetarianism. During the last Bayreuth festival, a vegetarian club was established at one of the local restaurants; but Wagner, who was always known as a great gastronome, did not frequent it.

Wagner's influence will not be affected seriously by his death. His art has taken such deep root in his own and foreign countries that it can be safely left to take care of itself. If the Bayreuth theatre should never be used again, it would not have been built in vain; for it afforded an opportunity to show just how he wished his art to be interpreted, and the lessons there given to his singers will be handed down to future generations as valuable traditions. It is well known that all the younger German composers, as well as Gounod and Saint-Saëns in France, Boïto and Verdi in Italy, etc., have been strongly influenced by his music, and Dr. Hanslick himself admits that "he is lost who does not at the present day compose in Wagner's style." The original features of this style we have endeavored to indicate in the preceding paragraphs. In summing up, we have no hesitation in saying that for absolute originality—formal and material—Bach is Wagner's only compeer in the history of music. Beethoven, Schubert, Mozart, and Schumann have perhaps left us each a greater number of individual musical ideas than Wagner; but as originators of new rhythmic, harmonic, and instrumental combinations they must yield the palm to the Bayreuth master. Bach's tremendous genius not only enabled him to master the difficult polyphonic forms of his time, but in many cases he boldly advanced beyond even the later "classical" forms in a way which distinctly suggests the "music of the future." The last chorus in the St. Matthew's Passion would hardly seem out of place in "Die Meistersinger." Only in regard to one of Wagner's innovations may just doubts be entertained as to whether it will be fully adopted by all operatic composers—the system of leading motives. This can only be successfully employed by one who can originate motives as pregnant and protean as Wagner's. That all operatic work should be Wagnerian is not to be desired. By the side of his music-dramas the operas of Mozart, Weber, Gluck, and Rubinstein, Verdi and Gounod afford a grateful change and variety; nor is there any reason why a Wagnerite should refuse to admire the operettas of Strauss, Sullivan, and Audran. "It is only," as Dr. Riemann observes, "the false pathos of the modern Italian and French grand opera, against which the point of Wagner's attack was avowedly directed, that has received a deadly blow."

THE RESETTLEMENT OF EGYPT.

LONDON, January 30, 1883.

SINCE the successful close of the campaign in Egypt last autumn, the plans of the English Government for the future of that country and the defining of our relations toward it have been gradually, though very slowly, maturing, and are now not only settled, but in substance made known to the world. The diplomatic documents, or abstracts of them, in which these plans have been announced, have doubtless been already published in America, so that all that it is necessary to do in this letter is to indicate how the English public feels on the matter, and what, so far as yet ascertained and declared, are the criticisms likely to be made on the scheme in which Mr. Gladstone's Ministers place their faith.

England has taken the whole matter very quietly. When the first jubilation over the victory of Tel-el-Kebir was ended—a jubilation which, though made much of in the newspapers, was really confined to the military class and those who are connected with it—the question seemed to recede into the background. This was partly because the bulk of the nation never much liked the war in Egypt, accepting it as a disagreeable necessity, and partly because they not only knew very little about Egypt and the measures required there, but (a much rarer phenomenon) felt that they did know very little, and that they must leave the thing in the hands of the Ministry, who might be supposed to know more. There has, therefore, been less discussion of the Egyptian problem, either in the speeches

of public men or in the newspapers, than one might have expected from its real importance, and from the amount of attention it has received on the Continent of Europe.

Among those who have spoken out, three types of view may be distinguished. The first is that of the party which, for want of a better name, may be called the Imperialist—the party which desires to extend English influence and the limits of English dominion all over the world. It embraces most Conservatives and a fair proportion of Liberals. It welcomed the expedition, and saw in its success the means of making Egypt practically a British province—not directly, by open annexation, but practically, by the establishment of an authority which would keep the nominal sovereign of the country in a complete dependence upon us, and enable us to do what we liked there. He would thus come, if not into the position which the Bey now holds under the French in Tunis, yet at least into that of the protected native princes in India, who administer their territories under the inspection and with the advice of a British Resident, and who are not permitted to have more than a certain military force. The recommendations of this scheme are not only the gratification it supplies to our own national pride, but also its comparative simplicity and ease. If we are to retain any control over Egypt, we shall become, in the eyes of the world, in the eyes of the Egyptians—even, perhaps, in our own eyes—responsible for its good government; and how can we insure that except by either ourselves grasping the reins, or making those who hold them understand that they have got to obey our directions? We should in this way be able to make the most of the country by developing its natural resources, creating security for life and property by impartial tribunals and an effective police, and encouraging European capital to flow in; and we should escape the risks of future revolts, to be followed by fresh expeditions and reconquests, by keeping a garrison which would overawe the natives, and by organizing a native army officered by our own people. Nor would such a scheme be merely selfish. It would be, in a certain sense, the best for the natives themselves, for it would secure them a just and firm administration, and it would involve the speedy abolition of the slave trade from inner Africa—a result which it seems hopeless to expect as long as the control of the Nile Valley remains in Mohammedan hands. Arguments of the latter class are constantly used in our discussions: it is characteristic of the annexationist policy that it always has philanthropy as well as ambition to appeal to. Sir Bartle Frere, who began the war against the Zulus, and who had a good deal to do with bringing about the Afghan War of 1878, typifies happily the union in one person of the Christian philanthropic tendency and the military imperialist tendency, which are more commonly found in different persons, even when they move toward the same goal.

The objections to this scheme are as obvious as its advantages. It would greatly increase that weight of empire which already presses heavily on a people so small as that of the United Kingdom. It might lead to further annexation along the Upper Nile; it would provoke the enmity of France, the jealousy of Italy and Russia; it would furnish a precedent or an excuse for the advance of Austria to the Ægean, and of Russia across the Armenian highlands to the confines of Syria. Above all—and this is the real difficulty in the way—it would be substantially inconsistent with the professions of disinterestedness which we have repeatedly made as regards Egypt, and to the express declarations of Mr. Gladstone when the expedition of last July was despatched. On the whole, therefore, although many people insist that this is the safest course, and the one into which we shall ultimately drift, whether we like it or not, there is a pretty general sense that England cannot take over Egypt—cannot treat it as a conquered country, to be disposed of at our pleasure, but must look for some other solution.

Even more simple and easy would be the exactly opposite course of leaving Egypt forthwith and washing our hands of it altogether. Two strong sets of argument are advanced in favor of this policy of abstention or renunciation. One is, that we have nothing to gain by remaining in or undertaking any responsibility for Egypt; the other, that we have much to lose, or at least serious risks to face. What is there to gain by administering Egypt, either directly by British officials, or indirectly through natives? Not money, for it is sure to cost at least as much as can be made out of it—our experience in India proves that: and even if we did make a profit, we should not feel at liberty to bring that profit home to England, but should expend it all upon Egypt. Not power or influence, for we have already the command of the Mediterranean by our fleet, and should not be substantially stronger there if Alexandria and Port Saïd were in our hands. Some will say that we should secure the control of the Suez Canal—valuable in peace for our great Eastern trade, and in war-time for the passage of ships and troops to Indian ports. This argument has had much currency in England—has perhaps done more than anything else to convince the commercial world that we cannot disclaim a concern for the future of Egypt. But it is answered that the Suez Canal does not really signify to England, either as regards war or as regards trade. So long as our naval superiority remains unquestioned, we can prevent any other Power from sending its vessels through the Canal, since we could not only catch and destroy them in the Mediterranean, where we hold Malta, but could threaten them in the Red Sea and Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, where we possess another stronghold at Aden. With the sea at both ends of the Canal in our power, the possession of the Canal itself has little value. As for commerce, it is true that the Canal is at present chiefly used by British steamers, just because the carrying-trade of the ocean, and particularly of the East, is chiefly in British hands. But if the Canal were to be stopped, so that trade had again, as in former days, to go round the Cape of Good Hope, goods would still be carried in British bottoms, and British shipowners would really earn more in the way of freight than they can now. The Canal is, moreover, so much more important to the Mediterranean countries—France, Italy, Austria, even Russia—than it is to England, that the duty of seeing it kept open for trade may, it is said, be safely left to these states. A thing so valuable to the world, which it is nobody's interest to destroy, will take care of itself.

Thus it is concluded that our supposed interests in Egypt really do not exist; that we have been mistaken in troubling ourselves about its condition; that under no circumstances have we any substantial gain to expect, other than the gratification of the passion for power and influence. Besides, the future may bring dangers. Mohammedan fanaticism may raise insurrections. The Sultan may—indeed, almost certainly will—intrigue against us; for he is irritated at the supersession of his own influence by ours. France will never forgive us for having turned her out of a country which she claims, on however inadequate grounds, to have rights over as well as interests in. A time may come when to have to defend Egypt might be a serious addition to the other responsibilities which our scattered possessions all over the world impose upon us. And, of course, the more we govern the Egyptians, the less likely are they to become able at some future day to govern themselves and develop a truly national civilization. These are some of the reasonings which the anti-imperialists have advanced against any further interference in Egypt, holding as they do that interference will almost certainly involve a protectorate, and a protectorate lead to annexation. Such reasonings can hardly be followed by the mass of the people; but among the people, and particularly among the working and middle classes, there is a strong and growing disinclination to the extension of the empire, and particularly to the acquisition of power over non-Christian races. This instinct—for such one may call it—strengthens the philosophical Radicals, and gives their doctrine (in itself somewhat theoretical) a large measure of popular support.

Between these two opposite views lies that of the moderate men, who profess to take their stand on accomplished facts, and urge that as we are in Egypt we cannot leave it. They admit that direct annexation is impossible after the language held by the Government when the expedition was despatched; but they think that we should stultify ourselves if, having undertaken that expedition, spent a good deal of money on it, and succeeded so completely, we were now to depart and let the country relapse into its former disorders. Why ever go, if you were not to stay? If England had interest enough to make it worth her while to suppress Arabi, she has surely interest enough to prevent another Arabi from springing up, or some European Power like France or Italy from stepping in to acquire the influence which England would have renounced. There is an air of common sense about this way of putting the matter which tells upon our people, and which has so much affected even the anti-imperialists that they protest not so much with the hope of success as for the sake of liberating their own souls. And in this way it has come about that most politicians acquiesce in the line which the Government are taking—a line which endeavors to preserve the results of the war and retain a certain influence for England, while avoiding as far as possible the appearance even of a protectorate, much more of annexation. The Government scheme has three main features. It gets rid of the joint Financial Control of England and France, substituting a single Financial Adviser. Secondly, it calls this person an adviser only, and does not, so far as we are yet informed, give him any complete legal right to veto any measures taken by the Khedive. And, thirdly, it attempts to create a species of constitutional self-government, or at least an approach to constitutional government in Egypt, by constituting, in addition to the council of twelve Ministers who are to surround and advise the Khedive, a council of twenty-four persons, one-half of whom are to be elected, and who are to have the right of discussing and making representations—who are to serve, in fact, as organs of popular opinion. Thus, while a concession is made to Egyptian national feeling, the interference of England is minimized, for it appears only in the presence of the Financial Adviser. It is true that the Army and the gendarmerie are both for the present to be commanded by Englishmen, but this arrangement may be temporary only; and though some English regiments are to stay in Egypt for the present, it is announced that they will withdraw when a native force sufficient to maintain order has been constituted.

As I have already said, this scheme will in all

probability excite little hostility in England, because the Ministry is strong, because people don't understand the subject, and because it respects both the belief that we cannot leave Egypt to herself and throw away all that our swords have won, and also the belief that the less Christian interference there is the better chance will there be of the development of some kind of national life. But, like most middle courses, it is open to objections from each side. The imperialist view, which will doubtless be pressed by the Tory party, will find the securities taken for our control of affairs far too slender. They will urge that we shall be exposed to constant intrigues from the Sultan, from the French, perhaps from the Italians and Russians; that if the Khedive should be induced by these intrigues to dismiss or disregard our Financial Adviser, we should be in a very disagreeable position; that it would be simpler and safer to declare at once that we mean to be supreme. The Radicals—or rather the anti-imperialist section of the Radicals—will see in the presence of the Financial Adviser the germ of a protectorate—a germ which is sure to spring up and bear fruit. Egypt, they will point out, cannot reform itself. Either we must reform it—in which case we shall practically supersede the native Government and become the rulers of the country—or else, if we leave the natives to their own devices, we shall appear responsible for the very evils which we have hoped to remove, since they will go on under our Adviser's eyes. The hope on which the present scheme of Mr. Gladstone's Government rests—the hope that English moral influence and advice will, without the exercise of force, bring about a steady amelioration, and be able to vanquish the intrigues of Turks and Frenchmen, and the interested hostility of those Egyptians who thrive on the present misgovernment—is a slender hope; too slender to be made the basis of a policy. But though these and similar objections may be raised, the Government scheme will probably pass unchallenged when Parliament meets. Y.

Correspondence.

PROHIBITION IN IOWA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: We in Iowa read with great interest the articles in the *Nation* upon the unsolved problem of prohibition, as well as the editorial comments made by you, surrounded as you are by perhaps the most radical anti-prohibition atmosphere in America. You very properly check those who insist upon a parallelism between anti-slavery and prohibitory agitations. After all the comparisons that may be drawn, there is still this radical difference: the abolitionist fought against slavery in every form, public and private; the auction-block, the slave-breeder, the importer, all fell beneath the axe of that agitation. The prohibitionist fights only against the commercial principle, and denies the right of any one "to manufacture for sale, sell, or keep for sale as a beverage." The Iowa prohibitory amendment (which has just been declared invalid upon a mere technicality, and not upon principle) aimed at no "compulsory change in the private personal habits" of any one. It sought to "impose self-denial" on no man "in the regulation of his own life in his own home." On the contrary, under the proposed Iowa prohibitory amendment, every citizen was at liberty to import, manufacture, keep, use in his family, give to his friends any kind of intoxicating liquor as a beverage, and as much, for that matter, as he could before or can now. He could carry as much with him for his personal consumption if the amendment had stood legally adopted as he could before the prohibitionists undertook "to regulate his private actions." What, then, does prohibition seek for, if the individual is left in possession of all this personal liberty? Prohibition simply seeks to prevent any one from manufacturing, for sale as a beverage, or selling, or keeping for sale as a beverage, all intoxicants. In short, it forbids running a distillery or brewery to supply saloons, or running a saloon. By keeping in mind the exact text and meaning of prohibitory measures, we can better understand the subject. By describing a clear circle around the object to be examined, we can arrive at more exact conclusions. Ernst Hofer.

McGregor, Iowa.

[Our objection to this defence of prohibition is, that it is a quibble of which, in a controversy on any other subject, a disputant would be ashamed. If, for instance, we were talking about potatoes, who would venture to say that no interference with any man's personal liberty in the matter of using potatoes was meant by a law which forbid any one to grow them for sale, or to expose them for sale, anywhere within the State, and simply compelled any one who wished to use them either to grow them himself or import them from some other State? Of course, the effect of prohibiting the sale of a commodity within the State is practically to prevent the use of it by everybody who cannot afford to purchase it at a distance in large quantities. This may be a good thing to do, but those who do it should not pretend that it is not an interference with any man's life in his own home This tendency to be uncandid and sophistical has always been, for some inscrutable reason, a feature of the temperance agitation. The pretence that moderate drinkers will in all likelihood become drunkards was one illustration of it; but the most conspicuous was the story that the wine used at the wedding in Cana of Galilee was unfermented. There was not a particle of foundation for this in reason or tradition; it was a disgrace to the scholarship and ingenuity of the persons who invented it; yet it did duty for many years as a temperance argument. Our advice to the friends of the cause is—in discussion, at all events—to take the bull by the horns boldly, and not go about pretending that they did not see him, or did see him but thought he was a cow, or had no occasion to go through the field where he was grazing.—Ed. Nation.]

MORAL SUASION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice, in a recent issue of your excellent weekly, a criticism from President Bascom, of the University of Wisconsin, on some views expressed by you in regard to the question of prohibition. In descanting upon the subject, the writer states your position thus:

"Notwithstanding the variety of opinion and practice on the subject of temperance, you believe, if we understand you, in a law that shall repress intemperance, and look to its ultimate extinction in prohibition, and that this end is to be reached as rapidly as law supported by public opinion can be made to perform its function of repression. Prohibitionists might wish to alter somewhat the emphasis of your response, but would hardly desire to modify its fundamental principle."

There is one aspect of the temperance question which, it seems to me, is too much ignored. I refer to the value and effect of moral suasion, as it is commonly called. I know the influence is one which is rejected and decried as visionary, useless, and effete; but is it actually entitled to no consideration? Is prohibition, even in a modified and conservative form, the best remedy applicable to the evil of intemperance? Permit me to review the subject for a moment.

It must be universally conceded that if men were of their own volition to abstain entirely from the use of intoxicating liquor as a beverage, intemperance, with all the wretchedness, poverty, and crime it entails, would be completely eradicated. Now, is this solution of the subject a practicable one? The radical friends of prohibition aver not. They instance the experience of the world since the dawn of history to confirm their opinion, and declare that mere moral restraint has been found totally inadequate to govern and subdue the passions and appetites of men. This answer, however, involves an admission which, if directly affirmed, the authors themselves would be the first to repudiate and deny—namely, the inefficacy and futility of moral influence. It is tantamount to an assertion that the precepts and truths which are constantly inculcated, in every civilized nation, by the pulpit, the press, and the school, are utterly destitute of practical effect. In other words, it implies that we may inveigh, for example, against the evil of revenge from now until the crack of doom, but our utterances will be barren of result unless they are enforced by proper legislation. Such is the only conclusion from the premises laid down. Does it conform with fact?

Now, the truth, I apprehend, is nearly the reverse. Prohibitory laws, under certain conditions, may be advisable and effective to a limited extent, but there can be no rational doubt that, were intemperance suppressed by means of moral influences, the evil would be entirely extinguished. The reason is plain. Thoroughly imbue men with the idea that the excessive use of intoxicating drink is deleterious to both mind and body; deeply impress upon them the fact that an inordinate use of liquor means poverty, disease, and shame, and you have created the strongest motives for men to lead lives of sobriety, rectitude, and industry. This plan is not so visionary as many may conceive. The particular virtue of prohibition is the apprehension of punishment it is expected to inspire. This, to a certain extent, is a powerful motive. In comparison, however, with the effect of moral suasion, it is insignificant. Most of mankind, especially that portion possessed of ordinary intelligence and judgment, have an innate desire to be respected by the world, to live in ease and comfort, to escape sickness and disease, and to provide for children and old age. I say this desire, latent though it be in many cases, resides in nearly every human breast. Why should it seem so difficult to awaken and enlist this powerful quality of the heart in the cause of temperance? Can we imagine a stronger incentive to sobriety than is furnished by a desire for riches, honor, comfort, and peace? It seems to me not. Teach men that temperance means a cheerful home instead of a dismal jail, an honored and useful life instead of one stained with disgrace and crime, and the one aim of prohibition agitators will be most effectually attained.

An economic principle is at the base of the moral-suasion plan, and one, too, that should receive earnest consideration. So long as there is a demand for intoxicating beverages, there will be a supply of them. The one chief defect of the prohibition plan is that it is directed against only the supply. The demand for liquor still

exists; and, although law may diminish it, in a small measure, by limiting the supply, we may rest assured that it will not and cannot entirely extirpate it. This fact is fully confirmed by the operations of the Maine law. The State of Maine contains only a small foreign population, and its legislation against the liquor-traffic has been of the severest character. Circumstances, therefore, strongly favor the success of the prohibitory policy in that State. As a matter of fact, however, large quantities of liquor are still sold and consumed in Maine, and the most watchful vigilance of the authorities is unable to completely suppress the illicit traffic. This instance, as I said, confirms the truth of the principle for which I contend. Remove the demand for intoxicating drink, and you destroy the supply of it. This is moral suasion. Attempt simply to remove the supply and you still leave untouched the cause of it—namely, the demand. This is prohibition.

E. H. FINLAYSON.

AMSTERDAM, N. Y.

MR. H. H. BANCROFT'S LITERARY METHOD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Bancroft's answer sets up what we call at the bar a plea by way of confession and avoidance. The charge that whole pages which were not written by him go into his book, Mr. Bancroft admits in his statement that "at least one-half the manuscript thus far completed has been written by his own hand," the rest being revised by him, and that he "does not rewrite what is perfectly satisfactory," being able to employ his time and strength to "better advantage." Just how he employs his time and strength to better advantage than in writing what he prints over his own signature he does not explain.

But his justification for his methods rests entirely, in the last analysis, upon the magnitude of the work, which, "as finally laid out, proved sufficient to occupy one man for two hundred years." This is the veriest outcry of weakness from one who has undertaken more than he can accomplish, and on that ground justifies his appropriation of the acknowledged work of others. It is also a complete admission that Mr. Bancroft does not, and could not from the nature of the case, write the books which, nevertheless, he prints over his name. Would Mr. Stedman be heard to say that he had undertaken to write essays on all the poets, but, on account of the "magnitude of the undertaking," had been printing the work of others? Could any one imagine Mr. Whittier claiming that he had set his heart on producing thirty-nine volumes, but that, finding the task would occupy him two hundred years, he had organized a bureau of poetry, carefully suppressing, however, all evidence as to which poems were his and which were his assistants'? Does the "magnitude of the work" prevent Mr. Bancroft from saying, "This chapter was written by Mr. Oak, who is in every way qualified for the work"? When he does not choose to rewrite what "is perfectly satisfactory," is there anything to excuse his not saying honestly, "I did not write the ensuing ten pages; they are the work of Mrs. F. F. Victor, a lady of ability and discriminating judgment"? Other historians than Mr. Bancroft have found their work, when "finally laid out," too great for their powers. Buckle, touched with the fire of a noble enthusiasm, left only what has been so aptly termed "a splendid fragment" of his lofty endeavor. The brilliant Macaulay, purposing to write his history down to "a time within the memory of men still living," put down his pen almost at the beginning of his task. The very name of Bancroft suggests that illustrious historian, now full of years and honors, whose history, a monument to his learning and his genius, hardly passes the threshold of our national existence. I venture to say that not one of these ever harbored the thought of padding out his uncompleted work with the writings of other people.

Such a course violates the fundamental contract between the historian and his readers. One who buys Hume or Froude rests secure in the assurance that the facts stated have been weighed, the arrangement carefully decided upon, and the form of expression chosen by the historian himself. It is the ever-present judgment of Hume or Froude that makes their works of value. But who can tell, in looking at Mr. Bancroft's pages, which are his and which are those of some unnamed and perhaps irresponsible subordinate? Who can tell which facts he has verified and which he has not? If a given chapter or page is the work of some competent person other than Mr. Bancroft, it is fair to that person, it is only honest to the reader, that this should be stated.

As to the charge of attempting improperly to influence newspaper criticism, my way of looking at this whole matter is so different from Mr. Bancroft's that I am not surprised to see that he considers it "silly," while to me it appears very serious. Mr. Bancroft takes refuge behind the merest quibble on the word "offer," and says that he never paid or "offered" to pay for reviews. But he does not deny my charge, which I here reaffirm, that he told me personally that he was *willing* to pay for favorable reviews in respectable papers. He does not deny that the San Francisco newspaper offices have been besieged by his agents with articles about himself and his books. Since writing my first letter it has come to my knowledge that the New York papers have suffered from a like crusade. And I have also been informed by the gentlemen approached that Mr. Bancroft personally attempted to present books to one of the editors of a leading San Francisco paper, and suggested that a review would be considered as an equivalent. Names and dates can be given if desired.

CHAS. H. PHELPS.

NEW YORK, February 14, 1883.

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF ATHENS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, "A Member of the Archæological Society of Athens," is evidently not conversant with the state of things at Athens, and risks a fall in trying conclusions with any one who has been acquainted with it for years past. The houses now being built on the northern slope of the hill of the Acropolis are not "squatter" affairs at all, but substantial legal stone domiciles, to move which a heavy compensation must be paid. Nor are representations and remonstrances on the state of archæological interests to the Greek Government wanting from any side. I have personally had many conversations with eminent Greeks, official and non-official, on the subject, especially with Mr. Tricoupis, who frankly admits that the archæological law is utterly inoperative, and that anything which can be transported can be got out of the country in spite of the law—in other words, that the smugglers can do what the honest men cannot. Public opinion in Greece is only sensitive to what is said of the country abroad and in foreign papers, especially; and if any effect is to be produced, it must be by the united action of foreigners who do care for Greece somewhat. As to the French Government protecting its interests, a single case which occurred last summer will show how far it felt free to put on political pressure for archæological purposes. A French engineer, engaged on some works being carried on by a French company, unearthed a relief which he sent to the French School at Athens, whence nothing is or can be exported contrary to law, and where the collection is always available for students. It was seized in transit, under a provision of the law which forbids transportation of antiquities without a permit; and though the School protested, and showed that the finder had no intention of exporting or concealing the relief, and had never heard of the law, it was confiscated.

The archæological law was not made as your correspondent supposes, but by the Bavarian regency, and I have heard Tricoupis say that he was himself opposed to it. As to any sympathy with its provisions, no one can have it who has any with the interests of archæology, to which its restrictions and spirit are most disastrous. Egypt is the only civilized or uncivilized country which has such a law, and the Athens Museum has a fine collection of Egyptian antiquities which the Greek officials smuggled out of Alexandria in defiance of it. Suppose Italy, Holland, and other countries which have had a part in art were to imitate the illiberality of Greece in this respect, what public galleries would now be existing? Such a thing as a great art museum would be impossible in any part of the world. Nobody can find fault with the desire of the Greeks to keep on their soil the finest examples of their ancient art by any honorable means, but we can blame energetically the way of making their collections by confiscation and barbaric procedure unworthy civilization, to say nothing of the fact that the laws are so absurd that they defeat their own purpose, and sacrifice the highest archæological interests. If even the Greek laws brought into the Greek museums the remains now lying hidden all over Greece, not much could be said; but the fact is that they do not. On the contrary, they do all that is possible to hinder scientific excavation, except with their own feeble means, and destroy in many ways more archæological data probably than they recover. The proceedings of the archæological authorities have excited in me so profound a disgust (though I have personally never found difficulty in getting out of the country anything I had bought) that I am heartily glad to hear of any valuable object of archæological interest being carried out of Greece.

If Greece would adopt the Italian law on excavations, etc., her museums would fill with rapidity, and what was not needed would go to help the study of art and archæology in other parts of the world. This is an object of much greater importance than the pseudo-patriotic pride of the Greeks, which can never understand that the presence of the Elgin marbles in London has done, and is doing, more for the honor of ancient Greece than they would have done in their place on the Acropolis of Athens. Any other civilized man would be glad to see his country's art in the places of honor all over the world; only the Greek is so narrow-minded as to prefer that the honor should not be paid, to its not being paid at Athens and to the pecuniary profit of the country. It is mainly the showman's feeling.—Yours truly, W. J. S.

FLORENCE, Jan. 28, 1883.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I feel the truth of much that the *Nation* has said on "Southern Homicide"; there is everything to be said against it and nothing to excuse it. But there is, I think, in the case a consideration which may be given in explanation, and perhaps in palliation, of this abuse,

which we deprecate and are doing what we can to reform. Whoever knows the Southern character need not be told that the Southern man has always regarded the appeal to the law in the settlement of personal difficulties as a confession of cowardice. He takes such matters into his own hands, and formerly to a greater extent than now adopted the "Code" as the best method of adjusting them.

So long as duelling was upheld by public opinion, and almost legalized by the invariable failure of juries to convict for it, there was much less random street-shooting, and a measure of decency, at least, in the method. But things are changed. Public opinion is more and more against duelling; the stringency of the laws and the outcry of humanity are fast putting it down, even in the South. It is no longer an honorable way of killing. The old spirit of so-called chivalry has not declined with the "Code"; there is the same unwillingness—in a lessening degree—to go to the law; and in this transition stage from the "Code" to the courts we have fallen into the present lawless and cruel habit of street-fighting. Give the South a little more time, and it will slowly do away with both street-fighting and duelling—I say slowly, because it can only be done thus.

F. C. WOODWARD.

WOFFORD COLLEGE, S. C., Feb. 12, 1883.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have followed, in the columns of the *Nation*, the discussion of "Homicide in the South" with that keen interest which I feel in all matters affecting this section of our common country.

Truth should be followed for her sake alone; it matters not whether the pursuit leads to the exaltation of friends or the abasement of enemies. It is, therefore, quite beside the question for Southern men to meet the arraignment of a Northern journal with the *tu-quoque* argument. Especially is this the case when the arraignment is presented dispassionately, by a journal whose past course should satisfy every true Southern heart that its honest purpose is to promote justice and the general welfare of the entire country. Let us pretermit, then, all consideration of Northern crime, and examine the condition of our own criminal statistics; for no rational man whose person or property is menaced by imminent danger would neglect the warning thereof, even if given gleefully by a malicious enemy.

The *Nation* avers that homicide is common in the South among the higher classes of society, and that it frequently results from trivial disagreements which in a more civilized community would never lead to violence; that this deadly arbitrament has the tacit approval of the mass of Southern society, both men and women so giving it their sanction that the survivor of such impromptu duels is rarely brought to trial and never punished. The inference is drawn from these allegations that Southern men, individually, are responsible for this condition of affairs, and that the mere existence of such a state of things is conclusive evidence of general individual depravity. Every fair-minded man who reads the papers, or who resides in any Southern community outside of the largest cities and towns, will admit the truth of the *Nation's allegations;* but every man, Northern or Southern, whose experience justifies the expression of an opinion, will as promptly deny the *inference.*

The truth is, that the readiness to invite and accept conclusions of force is not the result of individual depravity, but is the logical sequence of circumstances and social relations which for generations have been active factors, and of which the present generation feels the effect. Why this readiness to resort to deadly weapons? Because, firstly, no man can live respected in a Southern community and be a coward, in the ordinary, physical acceptance of the term; and, secondly, because, by inheritance and association, Southern men are naturally and physically brave. I am not holding this condition of affairs up as the highest type of intellectual civilization; I am endeavoring to show that it is something stronger than isolated individual action, and that, under the influence of its moral coercion, good men, peaceable men, gentle men will rather philosophically "die in their boots" than try conclusions with it. Public opinion says a man must fight or, in its tribunal, be disgraced; and most wise men—here, at least—while they smile at the folly of an opinion without any rational basis, prefer fighting one man to an entire community.

Who, then, is at fault? What has brought about such a condition of public opinion that a man who will not fight is condemned even in the eyes and hearts of women? Are we, the present generation, responsible for it? No. There are many causes, most of which were and are beyond our control. They are:

1. *A large and frequently wild territory, with a sparse population.* In such a country men have insufficient or no police protection. The carrying of arms is a wise and just precaution. Familiarity with the use of arms leads to a too facile employment of them; but the wearing of weapons itself indicates no depravity in the bearer under the circumstances stated.

2. *Slavery*, making for generations the safety of white men's families dependent, or liable at any moment to be dependent, on their individual courage. It may readily be perceived how, in this condition of society, even gently-nurtured women would despise a man who lacked courage.

3. *Reconstruction*, by making what before was only a menace a reality; by exposing white men's lives, liberty, and property, and, above all, the safety of their families, to every possible danger that an ignorant black population, constantly irritated by unscrupulous leaders, could devise or suggest.

Here, above all others, is the cause which has made Southern men familiar with the use of deadly weapons. During the dark period of Reconstruction the white men of the South had absolutely no protection against a tyranny unparalleled in the history of modern civilization, except that of their own arms. Their governments and courts were filled with, and controlled by, such a rabble as God in his mercy never cursed any people with since the days of Moses. Those men of the South who did not have weapons then procured them. It was well for them and for civilization that they did, for nothing but brute force and brute bravery awed that dark crew. It was natural, when a community was *forced* to arm itself with knives and pistols in veritable self-protection, that it should become too familiar with their use; but does not the fault rather lie with that civilization which permitted the legislation of Reconstruction, than with those who suffer because they did what every brave man should have done for family and self?

But it matters not whose the fault. The past concerns us less nearly than the future. We are correcting our abuses, and your noticing them will aid our efforts. Homicides among the social class to which you refer have become rare in this city; none has occurred here in seven or eight years. Each year they are becoming less frequent in the larger *commercial* towns. Commerce is a great civilizer. Even now there is no danger to deter Northern emigration. Northern men *who do not fight* are not compelled to face the exigencies of the moral code which confronts the Southern man "to the manner born." Southern communities that do fight are as fair and just as men usually are when their lives are often made to hang upon fairness and justice in others. I saw in the thronged streets of this city, in the bitterest days of revival against reconstruction and radicalism, an ex-Governor of Louisiana, himself heartily detested, kill a man as popular, probably, as any in the city. The streets were thronged with excited people, most of them probably armed. Any one of a thousand men could have killed the homicide with impunity, and yet not a hand was raised against him, because the man whom he had killed had insulted him, and *custom made that insult equivalent to a challenge to immediate fight.*

This *custom* is a recognized fact. *You* see in the insult the physical act—a trifling blow, a taunting word—which might possibly be best treated with contempt. In fighting communities custom interprets that blow or taunt into a declaration that the striker or taunter is about to shoot; and if the recipient appreciates the earnestness of his position, he stops not to moralize, but defends his life, albeit in so doing he outrages civilization. H.

NEW ORLEANS, Feb. 15, 1883.

COLLECTION OF JUDGMENTS AGAINST STATES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A strong reprobation of the repudiation of State debts is not inconsistent with a strong conviction of the impracticability of any scheme for their collection through the intervention of the Federal Government; and calm, intelligent discussion seems only to render clearer this impracticability.

Your issue of February 15 contains two suggestions for the collection of such debts which abundantly warrant your own comment upon "the difficulty of engrafting suits against the States by private creditors upon our system." The vice of both these suggestions, as of all which have come under my observation, is that they subordinate the due and regular performance of the functions of government—indeed, its very existence—to the pecuniary demands of an individual. The "device of garnishment" suggested by your Nashville correspondent may be safely assumed to be the offspring of a lawyer whose zeal for the collection of just debts has rendered him somewhat indifferent as to methods. That his "device" is "simple" cannot be denied, nor that it would be effective—to the extent of the taxes "intercepted" (as so euphemistically put by your correspondent); but that it is therefore Constitutional and practicable does not follow. It is in its spirit a resort to the old rule "that he shall take who has the power, and he shall keep who can."

The Constitution provides that the United States shall guarantee to every State a Republican form of government; and the Tenth Amendment reserves to the States, or the people thereof, the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States. The adoption of a Constitutional amendment authorizing the confiscation (or interception) by the courts of the United States, of all the taxes levied by the State for the support of its Government, would be destructive of the form of government guaranteed under the Constitution, and could not be upheld by the Supreme Court without the repeal of this guarantee, as well as of the Tenth Amendment, which must be construed as reserving to the States the *application*, as well as the *levying*, of all taxes for State purposes.

Nor does the proposed device, apart from Constitutional objections, meet the practical difficulties in the way of its execution. If it were possible for the judicial authority to sustain such an amendment, how would it be possible for the organization of society to be maintained if the taxes levied for the support of a State Government are to be thus diverted to the payment of private debts? How are violators of the law to be punished? What is to become of public schools, public roads, charitable institutions for the insane, and the manifold necessities of civilized communities? If it is answered, the taxing power of the State must again be invoked, why may not this second levy be diverted in like manner, and so *ad infinitum*? The adoption of such a plan could only be paralleled by the expedient of cutting off the fool's head to cure him of his folly.

The other mode, suggested by "A Layman," of adopting an amendment depriving a repudiating State of its representation in Congress and its electoral vote, is equally heroic, and, under the Constitution, equally impracticable. "United States Marshals, with the Army and Navy at their back," could doubtless enforce any method which the wit or the folly of man could devise for the collection of such debts; but this scheme would require the evisceration from the Constitution of all the provisions for the organization of the Senate and House of Representatives, and of the Electoral College, and would strike out the vital principle of Federal Union.

The only real safeguard against the spirit of repudiation will be found in a high sense of public honor, and this can be best assured by sending to the Legislatures of the States only men of personal integrity and sound financial views—men who will hesitate before they pledge the credit of their State, and, having pledged it, will uphold it unhesitatingly. Judge Curtis said forty years ago, in his essay on the "Debts of the States," "that it was often dangerous to run too close a parallel between public and private duties," and that "the rules for the conduct of States and of individuals are not always identical, though it is not easy to see just where they differ." Whether we look to the harmony of the States and of the Federal Government, and the consequent peace and happiness of the people, or to the practical value of State obligations and the ultimate security of their holders, we shall be constrained to leave their enforcement to the sense of honor and justice prevailing in the States. The remedying of evils is the great business of life, but it is folly to attempt by legislation the remedying of all evils, and the remedies thus far proposed for the cure of repudiation are worse than the disease.

JAMES A. PEARCE.

CHESTERTOWN, MD., February 17, 1883.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in press or in preparation 'Authors and Publishers,' a manual of suggestions for beginners in literature; an illustrated 'Tourist's Guide-book to the United States and Canada'; 'The History of the Northern Pacific Railroad,' by Eugene V. Smalley; 'Italian Rambles,' by James Jackson Jarves; Gindely's 'History of the Thirty Years' War,' translated by Prof. Andrew Ten Broeck; the following compilations—'Sacred Scriptures,' extracts from the Old and New Testaments and from other sacred books, and 'Prose Masterpieces from Modern Essayists'; the following books of verse—'Destiny, and Other Poems,' by M. J. Serrano, 'Songs of Toil and Triumph,' by J. L. McCreery, and 'The White Nun,' and Other Poems,' by Agnes L. Carter; the following sketches—'Our Choir,' by C. G. Bush, and 'A Mingled Yarn,' by Henry Edwards; also, 'Insanity; its Causes and Prevention,' by Dr. H. P. Stearns; and 'A Perpetual Almanac,' by President Barnard, of Columbia College. The Messrs. Putnam, in addition to the other organizations for which they publish, will, on behalf of the Charity Organization Society, issue a 'Classified and Descriptive Directory to the Charitable and Beneficent Societies and Institutions of the City of New York'; and they will hereafter act as publishing agents for the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science.

A life of the late General John A. Dix, by his son, the Rev. Morgan Dix, is in the press of Harper & Bros., as are also the 'Autobiography of James Nesmyth, Engineer,' edited by Samuel Smiles, and William Black's 'Shandon Bells.' A book will doubtless grow out of Prof. W. G. Sumner's series of articles on industrial and social topics just begun in *Harper's Weekly*: "What our Social Classes Owe to Each Other." The same firm have brought out "Pericles, Prince of Tyre," and "The Two Noble Kinsmen," in Rolfe's edition of Shakspere.

As complementary to their "Campaign Series," Charles Scribner's Sons will shortly begin publication of three volumes, entitled "The Navy in the Civil War." The first, 'The Blockade and the Cruisers,' is by Prof. J. Russell Soley, of the Naval Academy, at Annapolis, and will appear in March. Rear-Admiral Daniel Amman will treat of the Atlantic Coast operations; Commander A. T. Mahan, of those in the Gulf and Inland Waters.

A. Williams & Co. will publish shortly a translation, by Louise T. Jackson, of Judith Gautier's celebrated monograph concerning the great musician, recently deceased, under the title of "Richard Wagner and His Poetical Works—From 'Rienzi' to 'Parsifal.'"

The fourth volume of the Parchment Shakspere, of which D. Appleton & Co. are the American publishers, contains "Twelfth Night," "The Winter's Tale," and "King John." In uniform style is the Parchment edition of the 'Imitation of Christ.' Both these elegant and most handy volumes are sold at a price so low that it seems a pity they cannot (or do not) furnish a standard for other good books, even copyrighted, for which we are accustomed to pay as much while getting a very inferior grade of type, paper, binding, and general tastefulness.

The new Riverside Hawthorne (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) offers in Vol. 3, "The House of the Seven Gables," "The Snow Image, and Other Twice-Told Tales," and in Vol. 4, "A Wonder Book," "Tanglewood Tales," and "Grandfather's Chair"—the latter becoming at once the child's gift *par excellence*. The MS. of the "Wonder Book," says Mr. Lathrop in his preface, is the only one which, in its original form, is owned by any member of Hawthorne's family. "Scarcely a correction or an erasure occurs, from the beginning to the end," and this is indicative of the author's habit of composition. He "meditated long over what he intended to do, and came rather slowly to the point of publication; yet when the actual task of writing was begun it proceeded rapidly and with very little correction" or redrafting. Mr. Lathrop once more dispels the illusion that the real model of the House of the Seven Gables can be pointed out in Salem, or, in fact, ever existed outside the novelist's brain.

Mr. Baring-Gould's 'Vicar of Morwenstow' is having a new lease of life, having already reached a fourth American edition, in cloth and in paper (T. Whittaker).

A useful little catechism in domestic duties is the 'Advanced Lessons in Kitchen Garden, with Songs and Occupations,' published under the auspices of the Kitchen-Garden Association (New York: J. W. Schermerhorn & Co.). Lesson IX., on the duties of a child's nurse, is a good example of the method; but whether it is maid or mistress, complete ignorance is assumed, and categorical answers are required.

Ginn, Heath & Co. send us 'Yale Examination Papers,' collected and arranged by F. B. Stevens. These date from 1876, and will be added to hereafter, from year to year. The requirements for admission to the college are prefixed. Bearing the same imprint is a beautifully printed little square volume of "Anacreontics," edited by Isaac Flagg. It contains thirty-five of the odes which usually pass under the name of Anacreon, though generally admitted to be the productions of several unknown authors. The Greek text is accompanied by short notes, entirely confined to the brief explanation of such difficulties as might perplex the tyro.

From the Government Printing Office we have the 'Report of the Chief Signal Officer' for the years ending June 30, 1880, and June 30, 1881, and Lieut.-Col. C. B. Comstock's 'Report upon the Primary Triangulation of the United States Lake Survey.' This last work is purely technical. It contains the usual maps, views of the instruments employed, graphic tables, etc. Students of our late war will be interested to know that the official 'Findings of the Court of Inquiry, and Reviews of the Judge-Advocate-General and of the General of the Army, in the case of Maj.-Gen. G. K. Warren,' has also appeared at Washington.

We have received a copy of the 'Memorial Addresses on the Life and Character of the Hon. C. C. Washburn, LL.D., late Governor of Wisconsin,' delivered before the State Historical Society, July 25, 1882, with a portrait (Madison); and a memorial notice of the late Lewis H. Morgan, by Charles Henry Hart, read before the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Philadelphia, May 4, 1882.

In the rather supercilious notice, in the *Academy* of January 20, of Professor Garnett's translation of 'Beowulf,' it is curtly remarked that the book contains "a fair bibliography of the subject." Lest the reviewer's ignorance should impose on some of his American readers, we repeat that this bibliography is "the fullest that has ever yet been prepared"—much fuller, for example, than Wülcker's in the *Anglia*.

Professor Hübner's 'Grundriss zu Vorlesungen über die Griechische Syntax' (Berlin: W. Hertz) will be eagerly welcomed by classical scholars who have learned to appreciate the value of the similar manuals which the author has given to the world on Latin grammar and on Roman literature, both of which have had great success. In conformity with the plan of the two volumes mentioned, this book gives simply the headings of the various departments of Greek syntax, according to the author's development of the subject, with a complete bibliography under each heading. To those who have to spend weary hours in dictating or taking down the titles of books, such manuals are an unspeakable comfort, and Professor Hübner's experience, sagacity, and industry are a sure warrant that the completeness at which he aims has been attained. Not less is the service rendered in another direction. While much has been done in the department of Greek syntax, infinitely more remains to be done, and the gaps in our practical knowledge are clearly manifest to any one who will look through this manual with even a modicum of care. American students of Greek, who are apt to complain that German scholars have left them nothing to do, may well thank this German

scholar for his silent but eloquent indication of profitable lines of work.

The Commission des Archives Diplomatiques has lately presented to M. Grévy a satisfactory report. The Commission regard the numbering and stamping of the leaves of all collections of manuscripts as a very important precaution against that habit of abstraction which every large sale of autographs shows to have been common in times past. A special department has accordingly been organized for this purpose. Proper precautions taken, the Commission are desirous of making their treasures as useful as possible. All documents down to 1792 may now be freely consulted and copied. Copies of documents relating to the Revolution and First Empire must be submitted to the Minister. Later documents can only be copied in special cases. In 1882, 2,324 volumes were consulted by 98 persons. As the result of recent researches made in the archives, the Commission can point with some pride to such works as Faugère's 'Écrits inédits de Saint-Simon,' and Boislisle's 'Œuvres complètes de Saint-Simon,' Boulay de la Meurthe's 'Concordat,' Cosnac's 'Louis XIV.,' Vatel's 'Madame Du Barry,' Chéruel's 'Mazarin,' Rott's 'Henri IV.,' Jung's 'Lucien Bonaparte,' Tratchewski's 'Politique de Vergennes,' Hanotaux's 'Administration des Intendants,' Michaud's 'Innocent XI. et Louis XIV.,' Broglie's 'Frédéric II. et Marie-Thérèse,' and many others whose title-pages boast of "documents inédits.

—The new Cambridge weekly, *Science*, is smaller in size of page, by almost exactly one-fourth, than its English prototype, *Nature*. Its press-work is superior, but on the whole, its typography is less inviting. The absence of head and column rules, and the use of "solid" large rather than "leaded" smaller type, seem to us mistakes which will be recognized by the conductors themselves after a short experience. The scheme of the contents is a tolerably close copy of that of *Nature*, and indeed there was no reason for departing from it. The most original feature is the "Weekly Summary of the Progress of Science," in place of which *Nature* has "Our Astronomical Column," "Chemical Notes," "Biological Notes," "Geographical Notes," etc., appearing not regularly, but by turns. Systematic arrangement is secured by the American plan, and this is a gain; so is the freshness of intelligence it insures. On the other hand, the necessity of condensation works against the readability of the summary, particularly in really popular divisions like that of geographical discovery and travels. We apprehend that the "general reader" will make haste to skip pages whose resemblance to a scientific year-book is enhanced by the reference number appended to each. It is too early to judge how strong *Science* will be in the department of reviews. Dr. Asa Gray opens it, in the first number, with some interesting comments on De Candolle's 'Origin of Civilized Plants.' We hope to see displayed here an unshrinking courage, unsparing alike of shams and of prejudices; a plain speaking after the model of a recent leading article in *Nature* (Jan. 12) on the "Thirst for Scientific Renown." It is evident that *Science* starts off with a very strong support from the class which is to make and to profit by its success. Every American scientist should do his utmost to strengthen and sustain it. The editors, on their part, will, we have no doubt, welcome friendly criticism such as we have endeavored to apply. The publisher of *Science* is Moses King, Cambridge, Mass., and the subscription price is five dollars per annum.

—Mr. George Parsons Lathrop, in an article on the "Hawthorne Manuscripts" in the *Atlantic* for March, declares that it is "not easy to see why the printing of unfinished work is an injustice to an author who has won for himself an historic importance, so long as his completed works are available for ascertaining what he could accomplish at his best"; and reminds the critics of the Hawthorne manuscripts of the old story that it was by a violation of Virgil's last injunction to burn the manuscript of the 'Æneid,' that the great epic of Latin literature has been preserved to the world. Assuming the truth of the tradition, it is hardly safe to infer from it that all death-bed injunctions with regard to manuscripts ought to be violated, or that if the 'Æneid' had been left in the extraordinary condition in which 'Dr. Grimshawe's Secret' appears, even without any injunction at all, Varius and Plotius Tucca would have done well to publish it. Mr. Lathrop's view of the subject is that the Hawthorne manuscripts throw an interesting light upon the operations of Hawthorne's mind, and his analysis of the relations which the various fragments bear to each other is ingenious and perhaps correct. On the other hand, the popular critical view seems to be that much of 'Dr. Grimshawe's Secret' is in such a condition that it lets us into the secret of Hawthorne's method of composition very little more than reports of his dreams or what he may have said in his sleep would. Mr. Henry James has an article on Salvini, in the course of which he denounces the "extraordinary system" of bi-lingual Shaksperian representation which permits the "support" to do their work in English, while the star plays in Italian; the support, too, being very bad of its kind. With a resolute determination not to speak ill of the Republic, Mr. James suggests that the willingness of audiences to submit to the bi-lingual nuisance may be a proof of their "self-control"; while, in a spirit of candor, he at the same time suggests that it may, on the other hand, be a proof of their density. The motive which leads managers to lend themselves to the system is undoubtedly that they save the heavy expense of importing a foreign troupe; and it may possibly be that the audience, nine out of ten of whom do not understand a word of Italian, are helped a little by the support in their own tongue, to which they have been accustomed from childhood. There is, after all, a good deal in understanding what the rest of the company are saying to each other and the star, when the star's performance has much the effect of pantomime. Salvini's *Othello* is such a great piece of acting that it would probably draw if there were no support at all, and the cues were simply read by the prompter. When Salvini first came to this country he had a very good Italian troupe with him, but, apparently, he has now got the full measure of the "self-control" of American audiences. Mr. Horace D. Warner gives an entertaining account of the "City of Earthquakes" (Caracas), his knowledge of the subject being derived from a long residence in Northern Venezuela.

—The illustrated article on "Parsifal" at Bayreuth, by M. G. Van Rensselaer, in *Harper's* for March, is, unfortunately, more timely than the editor probably imagined it would be. The account here given of Bayreuth, of Wagner's house, of his personal appearance, of the theatre on the hill, of the characteristics of his dramas and his music, together with the well-told story of "Parsifal," will make this number of the magazine very acceptable to the large number of admirers of the late composer in this country. The article is a good illustration of the difference between real enthusiasm and that offensive "gush" to which so many other feminine writers on music are addicted. A few columns are devoted to the principal vocalists, who differ so widely from those generally heard in this country in being as great actors as they are singers, and therefore able to merge their individuality in a work of art. "Some of the finest pieces of acting I have ever seen have been in Wagner's dramas," is the statement of an experience shared by many who have heard Materna, Brandt, Niemann, Vogel, and Scaria. Frl. Malten, who was one of the *Kundrys*, is unduly lauded here in comparison with Frau Materna and Frl. Brandt, whom she did not equal in any way, although she looked more beautiful. Wagner himself and his antipode Hanslick agreed that to Materna belonged the first prize, both vocally and dramatically. The illustrations include views of Bayreuth, the theatre, several scenes of the drama, and portraits of Wagner, Malten, Reichmann, and Winkelmann. Scaria (in speaking of whom as "perhaps the greatest basso of our time," the *perhaps* is quite superfluous) would have been a welcome addition.

—Miss Titcomb writes us:

"In the notice of 'Early New England People,' in No. 919 of the *Nation*, the lack of conventional form in the arrangement of the pedigrees is attributed to the author's inexperience in book-making. That very fact would have been the strongest motive for adopting the conventional form had the author not thought that by avoiding it, and making the genealogy subordinate to the biography, the book could be made more readable. As to the assertion that the general pedigrees inspire distrust, the author would say that the families alluded to are too well known to admit of the possibility of misrepresentation."

—Columbia College is justly lamenting the death of Prof. Clifford R. Bateman, of the Faculty of Political Science, which took place in this city on February 6. Professor Bateman was the only son of President Bateman, of Knox College, Illinois. He was graduated from Amherst College in 1876, and from the Columbia College Law School in 1878. During his collegiate and professional studies he had devoted his attention mainly to political history and public law. Having become especially interested in the newest and as yet least developed branch of political science—administration—he sailed for Europe in 1878 to study this subject. After spending a year at the universities of Heidelberg and Berlin, he became dissatisfied with the German treatment of administrative law, which seemed to him too dogmatic for so young a science. In the autumn of 1879 he went to Paris and entered the École libre des Sciences Politiques. Here he found what he was in search of—a purely inductive investigation of the political sciences. During his stay in Paris he became intimately acquainted with that small circle of professors and Government officials who for a number of years past have been engaged in the collection and comparison of foreign legislation. This acquaintance determined the direction of his own work. He made it his task first of all to familiarize himself with the administrative systems of the leading European States. He hoped thus to gain a basis for the intelligent investigation of the methods and problems of State and municipal government in the United States. In the autumn of 1881 Mr. Bateman returned to this city, and took the chair of Administrative Law which had in the meantime been created for him by the Trustees of Columbia College. The interest which his lectures aroused among the students amply justified the establishment of this chair—the first of the kind in the United States—and the choice of its occupant. His style of lecturing was simple and lucid and his method singularly objective. "Professor Bateman," one of his students writes, "never stated his own view on any matter of opinion. He gave the facts and the arguments advanced on either side of the question, and left us to draw our own conclusions." Professor Bateman's work in the School of Political

Science, short as was its duration, will not be without tangible results. He has shown how the department of instruction with which he was intrusted ought to be conducted.

—In a recent (anonymous) 'History of Maryland,' used in the public schools of Baltimore, occurs (p. 42) the following paragraph, which deserves to be snatched from oblivion as a genuine curiosity of blundering. The historian, describing and explaining the Maryland coat-of-arms, says:

"Above the cap is the figure of a helmet with the crest of his lordship's paternal coat of arms on the top of it, which crest is a ducal crown with two half bannerets set upright upon it. The name banneret was once used to mark a partially created baron. By these small flags or bannerets Lord Baltimore symbolized his promotion from a lower order of hereditary nobility to that of a baron or bearer of the square flag."

The historian therefore thinks (1) that Calvert was a knight banneret, which he never was; (2) that a banneret is "a partially created baron" (!) instead of a knight created on a stricken field, like Sir John Chandos at Navarrette; (3) that a banneret is a "lower order of nobility"; (4) that this rank of banneret is, or was, hereditary; (5) that the small flags on the Calvert crest indicate this imaginary rank, whereas the banner of a knight banneret was square, and the flags on the Calvert crest are not at all square; (6) that a square flag was the distinctive symbol of a baron, but whether entirely or only partially created, we are not told. Of the former, we suppose; for Lord Baltimore would scarcely wish to commemorate his singular transition period of "partial creation," like a tadpole that has acquired his aristocratic legs, but not yet cast off his plebeian tail. Part of these extraordinary blunders are probably due to a confusion of baronets and bannerets; though Calvert was never either the one or the other.

—The long-expected 'Compendium of the Tenth Census' has at last appeared in a plump octavo volume, containing, with the introduction, more than 1,800 pages, or double the number in the 'Compendium of the Ninth Census.' It also embraces a much greater amount of information, both in range of subjects and in the degree of detail with which these subjects are treated. It is possible here only to indicate in a general way the character of the contents. Following the introduction, the first 648 pages are devoted to the statistics of population, treating of (1) the aggregate population by States, counties, and minor civil divisions; (2) race; and (3) general nativity, in similar tables. Then come tables giving the native, native white, and native colored population, by State or Territory of birth; a county table of the native and the foreign population, by State or Territory of birth in the case of the former, and by foreign country in the case of the latter; the native and the foreign population of fifty principal cities, classified by State or county of birth; sex of the population, with race and general nativity; the natural militia; the males of voting age; school, military, and citizenship ages; all ages, classified by sex, race, and general nativity. Other tables regarding population, which would apparently be more properly grouped in the first part of the work, are found toward the end. These relate to occupations, areas, families, and dwellings, foreign parentage, the population of Alaska; illiteracy; the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes; and mortality. The main body of the population statistics are succeeded by those of agriculture, which comprise tables giving the general statistics of agriculture by States, number and size of farms, etc., and the principal vegetable and live-stock productions. The statistics of manufactures are next in order, and are exceptionally full. They comprise comparative tables, by States, of certain general statistics; the general statistics of 332 different industries; general statistics by counties; statistics for twenty principal cities; and, finally, statistics by States of twenty-seven of the leading articles of manufacture. The accompanying statistics regarding power used in manufactures open up a subject heretofore untouched by the Census. The statistics of mining and mineral production, petroleum, and quarries follow; then those of transportation, including railroads, steam craft, canals, telegraphs, and telephones. Statistics of occupations of the population, with age, sex, and nativity, are placed between the foregoing and the statistics of fisheries; these last, greatly summarized, occupying only two pages. Likewise, on the subjects of foreign parentage and areas, families and dwellings, only summary tables are given. The statistics of the population of Alaska are taken from the more extended report upon this topic. The statistics of life, fire, and marine insurance are given at considerable length, as are also those upon assessed valuation, taxation, and public debt. The statistics of illiteracy are given in connection with those of public schools. Finally, we have tables, by States, of the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes, and of mortality. An excellent index concludes the volume.

—An idea of the relative importance assigned to different subjects may be gathered from the following facts: To Population, including occupations, illiteracy, the dependent, etc., classes, and mortality, are allowed about 800 pages, of which 58 pages are devoted to occupations, 12 to illiteracy, 44 to the dependent, etc., classes, and 30 pages to mortality. To Agriculture are devoted 275 pages; to Manufactures 285 pages; Transportation, telegraphs, and telephones, 86 pages; and Wealth, debt, and taxation 126 pages. This apportionment of space appears to be very closely in accord with the relative importance of the subjects, and the minuteness with which it is desirable to treat them. A noticeable and valuable feature of the present compendium is a set of tables showing, by States, and by race, sex, and nativity, the number of population of each year of age from one to eighty years. Other additions, which contribute greatly to the increased bulk of the work, are a number of county tables, in addition to the State tables as found in the 'Compendium of the Ninth Census.' The statistics of mining, quarrying, petroleum, lumber, ship-building, and many other subjects, which have been in the hands of expert agents, are presented much more fully than heretofore. Many of the subjects just enumerated have already been discussed in the pages of the *Nation;* but, in addition to these, the work contains a great amount of suggestive material, which will yield rich rewards to the statistician and political economist. It may not be amiss to state that the edition of the 'Compendium' is 100,000, 90,000 copies of which are at the disposal of members of the two houses of Congress, and 10,000 of the Secretary of the Interior.

—Each branch of modern science may be likened to a benevolent octopus, whose arms continually grope after new objects, and whose suckers fasten exhaustively upon all matters that fall within their range. Sometimes very curious material is thus appropriated. One of the latest of these eccentric contributions is in volume v. of 'North American Ethnology,' in the Interior Department's survey of the Rocky Mountain region. Dr. Robert Fletcher presents an illustrated paper on "Prehistoric Trephining," evidence of which, singularly for the nominal scope of the survey, is thus far limited to Continental Europe. One of the objects of this study, however, is to stimulate research in that direction in America. Dr. Fletcher, who is best known as a co-editor of the 'Index Medicus,' presents here no new facts, but he makes an attractive résumé of what is known, and adds one or two acute comments. The literature of this curious subject only covers the past ten years, and there has been no review of the whole since Broca's papers in 1877. The skulls thus operated upon belong to the neolithic age, and very plausible reasoning makes it probable, first, that they were opened for the relief of disease—presumably for the escape of confined dæmons in the "possession" of epilepsy; and, secondly, that the survivors were regarded with veneration, and that sections removed from their crania after death were prized for amulets. The compiler, quoting Velpeau's remark "that French flesh and English are different" in their capacity to endure surgery, suggests that the relation of race to traumatism at large is a point for pathologists to study, and that it may be a possible factor in the results of trephining. It is certain that the field surgery of the Rebellion showed a difference between whites and blacks in their recovery from general operations. This paper, which appears exhaustive not only as to Europe, but as to the world in the present state of knowledge, is illustrated in not exactly the highest style of wood-engraving, but intelligibly, and is copiously indexed.

—The Republican Société Historique lately opened its *cercle* with a *salon de lecture*. The Catholic Société Bibliographique has in turn established a *salon bibliographique*, with a reading-room and a library attached. It is intended to serve as a place of meeting for "all men of intelligence and heart who, without distinction of origin, of philosophic preference, or of political leaning, do not separate the interests of religious orthodoxy and of sound social doctrines from the progress and the diffusion of scientific method and of high intellectual culture"—which is a sufficiently flattering way of describing the clerical and reactionary parties. Lectures—*conférences*—are to be established, and particular attention will undoubtedly be given to historical investigation and to Christian and French antiquities. A Committee has lately been founded (*Comité Historique Franco-Russe*) for the study of the documents that relate to the French emigration into Russia during the French Revolution. The annual subscription to the Salon is 100 francs for Parisians and 50 francs for provincials. No doubt we shall see some of the literary products of the Salon from time to time in the *Revue des Questions Historiques* and in the *Bulletin Critique*.

—In the *Nation* for Sept. 14, 1882, we spoke of an article by Hubert Hall, in the *Antiquary* for August, upon "The Great Case of the Impositions" (1606). This article is continued in the October and November numbers, and will be found very important in the study of the history of English taxation. If in the first article a serious error was pointed out in Stubbs, the October number contains a still more damaging charge against Hallam, in reference to the manuscript authority cited by him (vol. i., p. 313, of the American "Library" edition). Mr. Hall gives entire the document of which Hallam gives "a very inaccurate and misleading paraphrase. It is a painful fact that he could not read the manuscript." The most important omission is of the words "denizens and aliens"—proving that the grievance was "not so much that aliens should be arbitrarily taxed for the public good, but that denizens should be included with them." But, what is still more important, he has found "a duplicate and

more authentic transcript" of the report in Chief-Justice Hyde's own hand, and this declares at the end that "the patent was confirmed and assured [not *affirmed*, as Hallam has it], against aliens, *but not against natives*." So that Hallam's conclusion that the assessment upon aliens was "absolutely against the law" was directly the reverse of the truth. In regard to the right of the Crown, Mr. Hall asserts that "the right of the Crown to restrain, license, or even entirely exclude foreign merchandise was ever, notwithstanding Magna Carta, an essential of its prerogative." This we suppose to have been the case; and it is the ground of the distinction made by the American leaders at the time of the Revolution between external and internal taxation. His derivation of the right to prisage, etc., "from the prerogative of purveyance or preëmption" we should hesitate to accept; and he himself admits that he may "easily be in error." As to the question of expediency or necessity, he says: "During the Middle-Tudor period, I unhesitatingly maintain that both the interest and feeling of the bulk of the nation were on the side of the prerogative, and that, moreover, the Crown did little more than seek to recover its undoubted revenue, which natural causes had diverted." The first of these propositions is no doubt correct; to establish the second is the work of the third paper, in the November number, which ends: "It is at least rash to speak of the Impositions of James I. as an unprecedented violation of the Constitution."

—The fourth concert of the Symphony Society, on Saturday evening, began with Beethoven's Second Symphony, which is less frequently heard than most of the others, probably because the first and third movements are hardly worthy of their author, although the fourth, and especially the second, are among the most beautiful things he has written. At the other end of the programme was Liszt's symphonic poem "Tasso," in which the striking contrast between the joyous, triumphant second part and the melancholy first part produces a most admirable effect. Original in melody, rhythm, harmony, and instrumentation, this composition alone would establish the rank of Liszt among the foremost modern composers. It was remarkably well played. The *Charfreitagszauber* from "Parsifal," which was produced several months ago by the Brooklyn Philharmonic Society, was here for the first time presented to a New York audience, but without the vocal parts. Although a concert performance of such a realistic fragment from a music-drama is as unsatisfactory as a collection of Shaksperian "beauties," and for the same reason, the piece was warmly received by the audience. The principal fault of the performance was that the wood-wind and brass were out of tune and played too timidly. Nor were the transitions from one instrumental color to another, which should be as imperceptible as the changes of tint in a flower, sufficiently delicate and gradual. The same faults were noticeable in the funeral march from "Die Götterdämmerung," which, however, was played with considerable feeling. The march was given in honor of the late composer, yet a part of the audience committed the *bêtise* of applauding after it. The only solo piece was Chopin's F minor Concerto, which was played by Mme. Schiller. Her execution was as light, graceful, and brilliant as usual, but it was almost entirely deficient in artistic interest. This, however, it should be distinctly understood, was not the fault of the pianist, but of the wretched instrument placed at her disposal. Its tone was hard and dry, devoid of all sustaining power and richness, and without a shade of expression. It is to be hoped that Mr. Damrosch will recognize the necessity of looking into this matter. A good oboe or horn-player is not to be had every day, but first-class pianos are abundant in New York.

MORISON'S MACAULAY.—I.

Macaulay. By J. Cotter Morison. [English Men of Letters Series.] London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros.

AMONG the scores of critics, some of them persons, like Mr. Bagehot, of no mean capacity, who during the last thirty years have attempted to analyze the nature and to define the limits of Macaulay's genius, no writer we can name has produced a work half so instructive, or half so full of weighty and original thought, as is the short essay in which Mr. Cotter Morison has given us at once a charming biography and a masterpiece of literary criticism. When, indeed, we say, as we may with perfect truth, that Mr. Morison's 'Macaulay' satisfies the expectations of all who have read and admired his 'Gibbon,' it is hardly necessary to add anything in the way of praise. The two essays, however, though both admirable in their way, are at least in one respect curiously contrasted with each other. Mr. Morison's estimate of Gibbon may well claim to be considered a final judgment on the position of the author of the 'Decline and Fall'; or, if we remember, as we ought, that the court of literary criticism never pronounces absolutely conclusive decrees, we may at least say that Mr. Morison has, with regard to Gibbon, delivered a summing up which fairly represents the conclusions at which all competent and discriminating judges have at present arrived. No one, on the other hand, can suppose that Mr. Morison has uttered, or can have uttered, the last word about Macaulay. He himself is as fully aware of this as his readers. He acts, if we may pursue a convenient legal metaphor, simply as a judge of first instance. His decision will doubtless carry weight, but it is subject to revision by that court of appeal which is constituted by the opinion, not of twenty or thirty years, but of two, or it may be of three or four, generations.

Nor is it at all certain that posterity will ever come to a unanimous decision on Macaulay's claim to eminence. Mr. Morison very happily places Macaulay among the class of men of whom Cicero is by far the most eminent representative; and the name of the Roman orator is enough to warn any one against counting with confidence on the final decisions supposed to be pronounced by history. The reputation of Cicero has ebbed and flowed, and will ebb and flow for ever, with the fluctuations of human sentiment and opinion. There is no man among the heroes of the ancient world of whom we know so much; there is no man whose character is, in one sense, easier to read. His merits and his faults are patent; they can be ascertained as easily by readers of ordinary education as by profound scholars. For all practical purposes, Cicero's sayings and doings were as well known to Arnold as to Merivale. Mr. Froude, Prof. Mommsen, Mr. Trollope, and Mr. Freeman have all of them had the same materials for judgment before their eyes; yet we all know that these eminent writers have formed diametrically opposite judgments as to the feelings with which we ought to regard the man who saved Rome from falling into the hands of Catiline. When we ask for the cause of this difference of opinion, we find that it is as obvious as it is irremovable. Men of common sense are agreed as to the qualities of Cicero's intellect and heart; no detractor denies his splendid talents or his pleasing humanity; no admirer can overlook his vanity and his weakness. But while one class of critics feel that Cicero's virtues more than atoned for far greater vices than can be laid to his charge, another class hold that weakness, especially when it leads to failure, is the unpardonable sin which cannot be compensated for either by oratorical and literary talents which have never been surpassed, or by moral graces which, if unsuited for the times in which Cicero lived, anticipated the virtues of later and Christian ages. As it has been with Cicero, so in a measure it is with Macaulay. His qualities of head and heart are patent. No one doubts his great literary and rhetorical powers; no one can fail to perceive that even in the domain of history he was deficient in some of the qualities which are to be found in the two or three historians who, like Thucydides, stand high above all who have devoted themselves to the study of the past. There is no question as to Macaulay's qualities; the real question is, What is the standard by which these qualities are to be measured? and there is no more reason to suppose that the world will ever be entirely at one about the standard of historical than about the standard of moral merit.

If, however, Mr. Morison cannot, from the nature of things, have spoken the last word on his subject, he certainly has done more than probably can be achieved by any other living critic to clear the way for arriving at a determination of the position to be taken by Macaulay in the ranks of English literature. It would be idle to pretend entire agreement with his criticisms; it would be a poor compliment to a most suggestive writer to intimate that he suggested nothing to us but monotonous assent. We may, however, assert with confidence that no competent critic will henceforth dream of pronouncing an opinion upon Macaulay without weighing Mr. Morison's remarks with the most respectful attention; and, further, that Mr. Morison has, in two respects at least, thrown something like new light both on the literary genius and (what can hardly be separated from it) the moral tone and character of Macaulay. His great and first achievement is precisely to define Macaulay's preëminent merit as an historian:

"Macaulay's great quality is that of being one of the best story-tellers that ever lived; and if we limit the competition to his only proper rivals, the historians, he may be pronounced *the* best story-teller. If any one thinks these superlatives misplaced, let him mention the historical writers whom he would put on a level with or above Macaulay—always remembering that the comparison is limited to this particular point: the art of telling a story with such interest and vivacity that readers have no wish but to read on. If the area of comparison be enlarged so as to include questions of intellectual depth, moral insight, and sundry other valuable qualities, the competition turns against Macaulay, who at once sinks many degrees in the scale; but in his own line he has no rival. . . .

"Macaulay was a master of the great art of *mise-en-scène* such as we never had before. It is rather a French than an English quality, and has been duly appreciated in France. Michelet praises Macaulay in warm terms—speaks of him as 'illustre et regretté,' and of his 'très-beau récit.' If he must be considered as an historical artist who on the whole has no equal, the fact is not entirely owing to the superiority of his genius, unmistakable as that was. No historian before him ever regarded his task from the same point of view, or aimed with such calm patience and labor at the same result; no one, in short, had ever so resolved to treat real events on the lines of the novel or romance. Many writers before Macaulay had done their best to be graphic and picturesque, but none ever saw that the scattered fragments of truth could, by incessant toil directed by an artistic eye, be worked into a mosaic which, for color, freedom, and finish, might rival the creations of fancy. The poets who have written history—Voltaire, Southey, Schiller, Lamartine—are not comparable to Macaulay as historical artists. They

did not see that facts recorded in old books, if collected and sorted with unwearied pains, might be made to produce effects nearly as striking and brilliant as the facts they invented for the works of their imagination. Macaulay saw that the repertory of truth was hardly less extensive than the repertory of fiction."

These passages lose a great deal by being torn from their context, but they are worth quotation because they exactly hit off the essential characteristic of Macaulay's work. He was above all things a narrator: his object was to tell the tale of the past. Could his grand scheme have been carried into execution, he would have given Englishmen a literary picture-gallery of English history. You may say, if you like—though, as we think, very mistakenly—that the attainment of this end was not worth the labor of a lifetime. You may say that Macaulay's narrative has, even as narrative, peculiarities which may fairly be considered flaws. But you cannot even estimate his shortcomings unless you perceive his aim. It is impossible to tell whether a marksman falls short of the mark unless you know what is the point at which he is aiming. Macaulay will certainly be quite misunderstood if you confuse the object of a narrator with the aims of an historical critic. You must not judge Herodotus by the same standard as Thucydides. It is vain to fancy that because (say) men such as Gneist and in a measure De Tocqueville may, no less than Macaulay, be called historians, these writers, and others whom one could name, were really pursuing the same object as the most famous of English historians. To an historical critic, past events are a series of problems to be solved; to an historical narrator, past events are a picture to be painted. Here and there a man of transcendent genius combines the gifts of a literary painter with the powers of a social philosopher; but the combination is rare, and a doubt may be entertained whether the search into the causes of past events has not done at least as much harm by vitiating the truth of narrative as it has done good by throwing light on social or historical problems. The philosophy of Thucydides has been of much less permanent value to the world than the facts chronicled by Herodotus.

However this may be, when once it has been recognized that Macaulay or any other writer treats history as what, after all, it primarily is—the narration of bygone events—it is idle (and we doubt whether Mr. Morison has always borne this in mind) to quarrel with our historian for not being an historical critic. The real question is how far the historical story-teller has carried out his own idea of historical narrative in a worthy and striking manner. Tried, as he ought to be, by this standard, Macaulay occupies—on the showing of a critic who, like Mr. Morison, is, if just, certainly severe—a very high rank among the authors with whom he is fairly compared. The passages we have cited from Mr. Morison's essay, and others which should be read with them, put Macaulay's astounding literary merit absolutely above question. One singularly profound remark deserves special attention:

"In criticising Macaulay's 'History,' we should ever bear in mind it is, after all, only a fragment, though a colossal fragment. We have only a small portion of the edifice that he had planned in his mind. History, which has so many points of contact with architecture, resembles it also in this—that in both impressiveness largely depends on size. A few arches can give no adequate notion of the long colonnade. Of Macaulay's work we have, so to speak, only a few arches. It is true that he built on such a scale that the full completion of his design was beyond the limited span of one man's life and power. But had he lived ten or fifteen years longer, . . . and carried on his work to double or treble its present length, it is difficult to exaggerate the increased grandeur which would have resulted. Such a structure, so spacious and lofty, required length for harmonious proportion. As it is, the 'History of England' reminds one of the unfinished cathedral at Beauvais. The ornate and soaring choir wants the balance of a majestic nave, and the masterpiece of French Gothic is deprived of its proper rank from mere incompleteness."

Nor is it only the literary power of Macaulay which Mr. Morison vindicates. He gives as fair an answer as can be given to the grossly exaggerated charges of unfairness and inaccuracy:

"He had a share of ordinary human infirmity, but not a large share. He can be prejudiced and incorrect, but these failings are most assuredly the exception, not the rule. Above all, he impresses all impartial judges with a conviction of his honesty. . . . His inaccuracy arose from hearty dislike for men of whom he honestly thought ill. Of conscious duplicity and untruth, no one who knows him can conceive him guilty."

The charges on which Mr. Morison pronounces a verdict of guilty are want of generalized and synthetic views, excessive diffuseness, and deficient historical spirit. For the grounds on which these accusations are supported we must refer our readers to Mr. Morison's pages. One brief remark is, however, worth making. His strictures are all, in a sense, true. It is not equally clear that they are any of them relevant, for they are based to a great extent on the neglect of the principle which Mr. Morison had himself laid down, that Macaulay must be judged of as a narrator. The wants pointed out are little else than illustrations of the admitted fact of Macaulay's neglect of the critical side of history. What, to give one example of our meaning, is the point of objecting to Macaulay's habit of constantly illustrating the past by reference to the present, as where he tells us of Manchester it "then [in the time of Charles II.] had not a single press; it now supports a hundred printing establishments. It then had not a single coach; it now supports twenty coach-makers"? The defect of this kind of writing is the failure "to examine the growth of society in bygone times with a single eye for the stages of the process." Macaulay, in other words, does not look upon history as a science. So be it. But it is admitted throughout that his object was narration, and it is very difficult to see what better mode is open to a teacher who wants to show modern readers the changes which have taken place in the course of centuries than by contrasting the known with the unknown, the present with the past. For Macaulay's object his comparisons are excellent. His object is, it must be admitted, not the same as that of writers who look upon history as a branch of social science.

If Mr. Morison's great achievement is to have defined with precision Macaulay's literary merit, he has also done a great deal to bring into a clear light a side of his character which has been a good deal overlooked by much more ardent admirers than is Mr. Morison. There was an heroic fibre in him which the peaceful times and peaceful occupations in which he passed his days never adequately revealed. Of his high public spirit the world has been long aware. He was one of those men who intensely enjoyed the pleasures of a prosperous life; but there never lived a politician more absolutely free from even the thought of sacrificing any public cause whatever to his private interest. What Mr. Morison brings out is, that this public spirit was part of the man's whole nature. He had in him a touch of heroism; he at no time complained of fortune or of mankind. There is not a trace in a word he ever wrote or spoke of the disastrous delusion that our own calamities or miseries affect the course of the universe. He did not fancy that England was lost because he had to throw up a brilliant career and spend the most critical years of his life in India. His journal—which one may hope will be known to those who live fifty years hence in a way in which it cannot be known to the present generation—reveals or suggests some bitter wounds of private feeling; but a proud and manly reserve kept Macaulay from any complaint. He inherited a good deal more of manliness and heroism from Zachary Macaulay than was perhaps perceived either by father or son; and this latent heroism was, it should be noted, in part the result of the quality or defect which has done more to divert sympathetic admiration from Macaulay than his inaccuracies or his occasional unfairness. He is felt not to be "sympathetic." By this it is not meant that he was not a man of warm feelings. His attachment to his friends was firm, his attachment to near relatives amounted to a passion; and his indignation at dishonesty and meanness was so strong as occasionally to pervert the calmness of his historical judgment. When he is said not to be sympathetic, what is meant is that he did not brood over his own feelings or care to analyze the feelings of others. This may have been a defect. It was a defect (if so it is to be called) characteristic of that eighteenth century to which Macaulay in character belonged. We should, however, remember that this fault is allied to some virtues. Modern thinkers who have passed their lives in at once analyzing their own feelings and denouncing self-consciousness, have been occasionally found utterly deficient in fairness to friends or in gratitude to benefactors. If Macaulay was not sympathetic, he had some homely but respectable virtues which flourished best in an atmosphere of genial stoicism. He was through life true to himself and just to others. If truth and manliness and justice fail to conciliate admiration and affection, the question may arise whether the defect lies in the man who possesses these qualities, or in the generation which is imbued with a passion for sympathy and self-analysis.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Notes upon Some of Shakespeare's Plays. By Frances Anne Kemble. London: Bentley; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882. 8vo, pp. 169.

English Dramatists of To-Day. By William Archer. London: Sampson Low; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882. 8vo, pp. 387.

Balfe: His Life and Work. By Wm. Alexander Barrett. London: Remington & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882. 8vo, pp. 313.

Les Premières Illustrées. Saison théâtrale 1881-1882. Par Raoul Toché. Paris: Monnier; York: J. W. Bouton. Quarto, pp. 102.

Les Comédiens Italiens à la Cour de France sous Charles IX., Henri III., Henri IV., et Louis XIII. Par Armand Baschet. Paris: Plon; New York: Christern. 1882. 8vo, pp. xv.-367.

FOR the first time in her long literary career Mrs. Kemble now appears as the author of a book of prose not taken wholly or in part from her journals or letters. She has published plays and poems, and has put forth nearly a dozen volumes of travels made from her diaries, but the present is her first venture in literary criticism for its own sake; for the criticism which lent so much savor to the 'Records of a Girlhood' and 'Records of Later Life,' was incidental. The present volume, however, is not a sustained effort, being almost as desultory as its

predecessors, and quite as delightful. The first of its eight essays is a paper "On the Stage," originally prepared as a lecture, if we mistake not, and afterward printed in *Harper's Magazine* almost twenty years ago (vol. 28, p. 364). The second and third are notes on "Macbeth"; the fourth contains notes on "Henry VIII."; the fifth, sixth, and seventh are notes on the "Tempest"; and some of these have seen the light before, although no preface or note gives us any hint of a previous appearance, even of the paper "On the Stage." The eighth and slightest of all is a little matter of four pages, called "Notes on Romeo and Juliet," and really consisting of suggestions to an actor who was studying *Romeo*—mere hints for acting, as Mrs. Kemble aptly terms them. As a matter of fact, also, the notes on "Henry VIII." are confined to analyses of the characters of *Queen Katharine* and *Cardinal Wolsey*. Slight as are some of these essays, they are all pregnant; they are the result of long and loving study of Shakspere by a highly-gifted woman, born of a family to which Shakspere was bread and meat. The least important of the Shaksperian essays are the three on the "Tempest," which are chiefly taken up with a discussion of the alleged emendations of Mr. Payne Collier's folio of 1630. The most important of the Shaksperian essays are the two dealing with "Macbeth," and containing a subtle analysis of the character of *Lady Macbeth*. But more important than any of the Shaksperian papers is the essay "On the Stage," which should be read and pondered by every one who takes an intelligent interest in the drama and in the theatre—two very different things, though often confounded, as Mrs. Kemble properly points out and proves.

Space fails us to consider adequately Mrs. Kemble's admirable discussion of the dramatic faculty; but we cannot refrain from quoting one lucid paragraph: "The combination of the power of representing passion and emotion with that of imagining or conceiving it—that is, of the theatrical talent with the dramatic temperament—is essential to make a good actor; their combination in the highest possible degree alone makes a great one" (p. 5). Bearing this dictum in mind, it shows in Mrs. Kemble no small freedom from prejudice to declare (p. 8) that "Garrick was, I suppose, the most perfect actor that our stage has ever produced, equalling in tragedy and comedy the greatest performers of both." We apprehend that the Roman Roscius and Molière's pupil, Baron, are the only two actors worthy to be placed side by side with Garrick; and we are inclined to think that he was the superior of both. It should be remarked that the reference (p. 7) to recent revivals of Shakspere is to Fechter's and not to Mr. Henry Irving's; and that it was Macready who said (p. 11) that Mrs. Kemble was "ignorant of the first rudiments of her profession."

To those pessimistic persons who are frequent and shrill in bewailing the fact that there are no English dramatists to-day, the mere bulk of Mr. Archer's book must be rather surprising; and still more surprising is it to find that before considering in alphabetical order and with abundant critical apparatus the playmakers of our day, the author devotes thirty pages to the playwrights of yesterday, among whom he classes not only the late lamented Lord Lytton and Mr. T. W. Robertson, but also the very much alive Mr. Charles Reade and the equally stirring Mr. Dion Boucicault. Yet among the sixteen living victims whom Mr. Archer calls "Dramatists of To-day" he chooses to include Mr. Tennyson, to whom the word dramatist is at best only a courtesy title. But these are minor cavils, and we must confess that Mr. Archer has written a useful book, and done much to show that the English drama of our time is not as unworthy of serious consideration as it is often assumed and asserted to be. Mr. James Alberry, Mr. W. S. Gilbert, Mr. Sydney Grundy, Mr. Herman Merivale, Mr. A. Pinero, and Mr. W. G. Wills are men whose plays are as good as the most of the novels which appear in three volumes and are praised in the papers. Mr. Alberry's "Two Roses," Mr. Gilbert's "Sweethearts," and Mr. Merivale's "Forget-Me-Not" are comedies with a decided literary quality and of a distinct literary value. The scene from the "Two Roses," which Mr. Archer reprints in full, is remarkably clever; and the opening dialogue of Mr. Sydney Grundy's "In Honor Bound" (also quoted in full) is an admirable bit of construction, worthy of Scribe. In fact, the best work of the best English dramatists of to-day will bear comparison with the best work of the English dramatists of seventy and eighty years ago. Surely Colman's "Poor Gentleman" and Mrs. Cowley's "Belle's Stratagem" are not plays of a higher order, morally or intellectually, than the comedies of Mr. Alberry, Mr. Gilbert, and Mr. Merivale, mentioned above. The apparent decadence of the drama is owing partly to the fact that there are in proportion quite as many bad plays as of old, and partly and indeed chiefly to the fact that the novel has taken the place of the play. It may be that the newspaper will take it away from the novel. In any case, there is no denying that the decline of intelligent interest in the drama, if not the decline of the drama itself, dates from the day when the "Author of 'Waverley'" began to pour forth his rich and varied stream of prose fiction. A single American, Mr. Bronson Howard, figures among the "English" dramatists whom Mr. Archer delights most to honor, notwithstanding the fact that Mr. Howard's best play, "Old Love Letters," has not yet been acted in England. The book contains an index of plays mentioned, but none of proper names.

It may perhaps be doubted whether Balfe's life and works were of sufficient importance to justify two elaborate biographies. Mr. Barrett nowhere makes any allusion to the fact, but a life of Balfe, by Mr. Charles Lamb Kinney, was published in 1875. There is very little to choose between the two biographies, neither being a model of biographical writing or free from carelessness, while both are lively and readable. Mr. Barrett's book has no lack of amusing anecdotes; but what is perhaps most noteworthy in it is the information it affords about the librettos which Balfe set to music. It will be news to most people that Balfe began in 1848 an opera on the subject of Hugo's "Le Roi s'amuse," used by Verdi in his "Rigoletto," produced in 1851. His "Armorer of Nantes" was based on Hugo's "Marie Tudor." Balfe also began, or at least considered, the setting to music of the "Lady of Lyons," a play well-fitted to serve as the libretto of an Italian opera, and which, having been so treated by Oxenford, has since been set by another English composer. The "Rose of Castille" was an English adaptation of the "Muletier de Tolède," as "Blanche de Nevers" was an operatic version of the play known in English as the "Duke's Motto," and taken by Mr. John Brougham from the play made by M. Victorien Sardou out of the novel of M. Paul Féval. The libretto of the "Bohemian Girl" had an even more remote origin. The motive of the story is found first in one of the "Novelas Exemplares" of Cervantes, whence it was borrowed by at least one of the Elizabethan dramatists; it served Von Weber as the basis of his "Preciosa," and to Longfellow it suggested the "Spanish Student"; M. de St. Georges used it as the foundation of his three-act ballet, with the queer title, 'La Gipsy," performed at the Paris Opéra, in 1839, set by three different composers, one to an act, the second being by M. Ambroise Thomas; it was the libretto of M. de St. Georges's French ballet which the poet Bunn took as the groundwork of his libretto for Balfe's English opera, M. de St. Georges readapting Bunn's into French as "La Bohémienne" for the Théâtre Lyrique. It is somewhat amusing to see the melodramatist Fitzball styled by Mr. Barrett "a dramatic writer of great power and fancy, and, above all, one who was by no means deficient in the qualities looked for in a true poet." When some uncritical person had spoken of Fitzball as the Victor Hugo of England, Douglas Jerrold promptly interposed with, "The Victor Nogo, I suppose you mean!" Yet it was Fitzball's drama of the "Flying Dutchman" which suggested to Heine first, and afterward to Wagner, the fine dramatic legend as we now have it. Mr. Barrett's volume has a fuller index than we are wont to find in English books.

The two French books on our list may be dismissed briefly. We announced the first number of "Les Premières Illustrées," when it appeared originally, a little more than a year ago. M. Toché has gathered into a volume his lively descriptions of the first performances in Paris of thirteen new plays, whereof one was of English origin (an adaptation of "Othello"), another of German birth (an adaptation of "Boccaccio"), and the eleven others were French. Of these eleven, five have already been declaimed or sung in New York. The illustrations of the work are abundant, and at least one of them has a special interest—a portrait of M. Sardou, by Mlle. Blanche Pierson, the original of *Odette*. M. Henri Meilhac has prefixed a very clever imitation of the metrical *Gazette* of Loret.

M. Baschet's volume is the result of laborious researches in the archives of Mantua. In it he tells for the first time with exactness the story of the visits of the Italian actors of *commedie dell' arte* to the court of France; and his is, therefore, the historical complement of the more purely critical books of M. Maurice Sand, M. Louis Moland, and M. Édouard Fournier.

The Development of Constitutional Liberty in the English Colonies of America. By Eben Greenough Scott. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882. 8vo, pp. 334.

Mr. Scott has made a really useful and interesting book, but it would be much better if he were not so fond of theoretical and abstract statement. The work professes to be "not a history, but a philosophical contemplation of what is known to be history"; and we do not quarrel with this, although this kind of treatment is liable to exactly the fault that we have pointed out. Mr. Scott has treated his subject thoroughly and with insight; there is hardly a page that does not contain some striking fact or truth well stated; but this is intermingled with so much dry and abstract remark that the effect as a whole is heavy and deficient in point. "No one will dispute," we read (p. 97), "that the force which expands the Victoria Regia on the Senegambia is the same as that which covers the rocks of Greenland with lichens." Of course not; the remark is true enough, but so general and obvious as not to be worth while stating, unless the connection with the argument or line of thought were more essential than appears to be the case.

The same fondness for generalizations is seen in the division of the book (after the preliminary chapter) into "The Era of State Development in America" and "The Era of Constitutional Development in America"; and, particularly, we

do not like the statement of the "motives" of these two eras, as being respectively "The Development of Tribal Institutions" and "The Longing for Popular Sovereignty." Can we fairly call those fifteen years an *era* which began with the Writs of Assistance and ended with the Declaration of Independence? Further, can we call it an era of *constitutional development*, when it did not give birth to a single constitution or governmental form? Further still, is there not a lack of correspondence between a bare *longing for popular sovereignty* and a *constitutional development?* So with the earlier period. One is startled to find our Colonial period—really a period of constitutional development—described as characterized by the development of *tribal* institutions. This word "tribal" has come to be used in our day as almost a technical term, to describe that outgrowth of the family institution which we find, for example, among the North American Indians. On page 25 we find this era defined more precisely as consisting "in the undisturbed, free, and natural growth of tribal institutions" through "certain qualities which were inherent in the colonists as members of a Teutonic tribe." Here we have the key to the author's use of the term; but it seems to us incorrect, for all that.

When, however, we get below what we may call a mannerism, we find a useful and interesting discussion of the forces which led to the American Revolution; and two subjects in particular are treated with a fulness and intelligence which make these chapters a real contribution to our history—the subject of Toleration in the Colonies, and their Commercial Relations. We do not quite understand the claim in the preface, in relation to these last, that "this is the first time they have appeared in our literature as a cause of revolution," for certainly every recent historian has dwelt upon them with more or less fulness. We will admit that nowhere else, within our knowledge, are they treated with such fulness and completeness as in this work. But there is one unaccountable mistake. The Navigation Act is called (p. 188) "an Act of Parliament, which, passed during the Commonwealth, was reënacted and continuously enforced after the Restoration. It provided, simply, that thenceforward no goods, the produce of Asia, Africa, or America, should be imported into England or exported out of it but in vessels belonging to the people of England, etc." But the Act itself, given in full on page 314, says: "Such ships or vessels as do truly and without fraud belong only to the people of England and Ireland, dominion of Wales, or town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, or are of the build of, and belonging to, any of the said lands, islands, plantations, or territories, as the proprietors and right owners thereof, and whereof the master, and three-fourths of the mariners, at least, are English." That is to say, the Act specifically favors the ships of the Colonies as much as those of England; for we suppose that the requirement that master and seamen should be English did not exclude English subjects residing in Boston or Newport. This provision of the Act of 1660, copied from that of 1651, was designed to encourage English navigation—the Colonies being reckoned as English: Cromwell's policy was directed against the Dutch, not against the English Colonies. But the Act of 1660 added a provision (section eighteenth) directly designed to favor England at the expense of the Colonies, in requiring the "enumerated articles" of Colonial production to be shipped direct to England. This was the commencement of the series of legislative acts, designed to use the Colonies for the profit of English merchants, which led at last to the American Revolution. It was the policy of the Restoration, not of the Commonwealth—Oliver Cromwell had nothing to do with it.

There are also some errors in the account of the Roman and Grecian Colonies (p. 31). The Latin Colonies were not so called because the colonists were "selected from the Latins"; on the contrary, they were regularly, or at least frequently, Roman citizens who surrendered their citizenship in exchange for political autonomy—they *became* Latins. Neither did "Italian Colonies" form a distinct class: the Colonies "planted outside the boundaries of the peninsula" (like Narbo) were Latin colonies, and the *jus Italicum* of the Empire, of which perhaps the author was thinking, is a totally different thing. Nor was his fourth class, the Military Colonies, called so because "made up of garrisons and discharged soldiers." The earlier colonies were often composed of this class. The distinction was, that the military colonies, first established by Sulla, were created by the authority of the commander, not by that of the people; they were an accompaniment of the decay of the Constitution of the Republic—a foreshadowing of the Empire. The contrast drawn (p. 33) between the Roman and Greek colonies—that the former were kept *in statu pupillari*, while the latter were designed for an independent growth—is interesting, and has a certain amount of truth in it. It does express the relation of such colonies as Miletus, Syracuse, and Massilia, as compared with Luceria and Cremona. Nevertheless, Athens, too, under Pericles, sought to found its empire upon a class of colonies, the *cleruchiæ*, essentially identical with *coloniæ Romanæ:* that is to say, as much a part of the body politic of the mother city as a ship carrying the flag of a nation is a part of that nation, wherever she may float.

The Appendix contains some valuable documents, particularly the series of acts, beginning with the Navigation Act of 1660, designed to trammel the commerce of the Colonies, which ended in exciting them to revolution. Unfortunately, the original Navigation Act of 1651 is not given, under the impression, it would seem, that that of 1660 is a mere reënactment of it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Public Papers of Alonzo B. Cornell, Governor of the State of New York. 1880. Albany.
Rolfe, W. J. Shakespeare's History of Pericles, Prince of Tyre. With engravings. Harper & Bros.
Sand, George. The Countess of Rudolstadt. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.
Simcox, G. A. A History of Latin Literature from Ennius to Boethius. In 2 vols. Harper & Bros.
Smith, E. H. Latin Selections: Being Specimens of the Latin Language and Literature. Boston: John Allyn. $1 50.
Socrates: a Translation of the Apology, Crito, and Parts of the Phædo of Plato. New ed. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Ten Brink, B. Early English Literature. (To Wiclif.) Translation Revised by the author. Henry Holt & Co. $2 25.
Walker, F. A. Political Economy. Henry Holt & Co.
Wilmot-Buxton, H. J. English Painters. With a Chapter on American Painters, by S. R. Koehler. Scribner & Welford.
Wood, H. G. A Treatise on the Limitations of Actions at Law and Equity. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Yorke, J. F. Notes on Evolution and Christianity. Henry Holt & Co. $1 50.
Zola, E. La Belle Lisa; or, The Paris Market-Girls. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. $1 25.

Fine Arts.

THE NEW YORK ETCHING CLUB EXHIBITION.

Of the etchings which fill the west and northwest galleries at the Academy of Design, it may be said in general, as was said of the water-color paintings, that they show progress in command of some of the technical means of expression, but they do not show an entirely right use of those means. There is marked gain in what relates to the mechanical operations of the process, rather than in the more artistic qualities of etching as a mode of delineation. As regards the more essential qualities—power of accurate and significant drawing, clear perception of the just conventions of delineation pure and simple, and just how much more than delineation may be suggested without overstepping the normal limitations of the process—there is marked evidence of weakness, of misconception, and of reckless transgression on almost every side. In fact, our etchers, with very few if any exceptions, show a very decided lack of elementary training and cultivated understanding. There is a certain conventional mannerism with which they seem to be captivated with surprising unanimity, and which is greatly impeding their progress. To acquire this mannerism they appear to strive more zealously than they do to attain creditable proficiency in the more essential qualities just mentioned.

To how great an extent this is true, we presume few artists or others are consciously aware; but a tolerable estimate may, perhaps, be arrived at if one will imagine all the accidental imperfections of biting, all affected rudeness of execution, and all *retroussage* removed from the larger part of these plates, and then consider how much would remain. In other words, coming down to the naked qualities of these drawings on copper, how much life and merit have they as such? We do not say that they have none, but we think it will appear plainly, on a little critical examination, that they have far too little. Nor do we mean to say that there is no proper agreeableness in the accidental accompaniments of the etching process—minor slips or unsteadiness of the needle, foul biting, etc.—or even in some employment of the *retroussage* method of printing. In an entirely subordinate way these may all be well and pleasant enough, but they do not at all constitute what is essential, are not to be directly sought, and should never be permitted to cover or excuse weak or bad work. By the good and significant drawing which we desire to see in etchings, we do not mean necessarily slow or elaborate drawing. Etching may be very rapid and free; but right rapidity and freedom in etching, no less than in other modes of drawing, are based upon perfect discipline of eye and hand; and the results of this freedom have a very different look, to a cultivated eye, from those of superficial attempts to imitate it. And we must say frankly that the freedom now so widely indulged in by our etchers is not sufficiently expressive of disciplined power. It is, to a great extent, simply loose and meaningless.

But there are exceptions; and among the plates in this collection which come nearest to what we should regard as good etching, is one, No. 61, "Sawley Abbey," by Francis Seymour Haden, in which we find nothing to criticise. It is a truly magnificent sketch, and we have seen no other original work by Mr. Haden at all equal to it. In the life of its grand lines, the proportions of its main masses, the suggestion of infinity by the simplest means, and the exquisite placing of the groups of sheep or cattle, it is comparable to nothing that we know of but the finer plates of the "Liber Studiorum." Mr. Haden contributes eight of his larger, though not largest, plates to this exhibition, and all of them are stronger and more meritorious than those which we had occasion to notice in the last Black-and-White Exhibition. But none of the others approach No. 61 for mastery, harmony, and economy of line. These others are rendered inharmonious by having many lines in some parts and few in others, producing an unequal effect. Nor do these others show the same power of drawing or design.

Strong in many ways, also, is the work of Mr. Stephen Parrish. It exhibits some good qualities of drawing and good choice of subject. It shows, also, sometimes, but not always, a right appreciа-

tion of the proper limitations of etching. His smaller plates here—No 16, "Old Acadian Inn Yard," and No. 17, "A Spring Day in an Old Suburb"—are, we think, the truest in obedience to right principles. His large plate, No. 144, "Coast of New Brunswick," is strong in some ways; but it is not so exemplary, considered as etching, as the preceding. It is too redundant in line, and is here and there ungrammatical in its suggestion of chiaroscuro—as where the roofs of houses in the background are made as dark, or very nearly so, as the darkest things in the foreground. There is, moreover, a uniform and unpleasant sharpness of edges in the buildings. It is quite possible that they may actually have been so in the scene which the artist has depicted, but in such a case he would be justified in breaking and rounding them more or less; for such breaking and rounding is just what Nature herself does with such objects in process of time, thus softening the harsh rigidity of man's mechanical work and allying it to the character of her own objects. In No. 115, Mr. Parrish departs more widely from what we conceive to be the proper ends of etching. Indeed, this is essentially painting rather than etching. The soft gradations, giving the effect of light and space, bring it within the province of brush work or something of kindred nature. The design is well composed, and were it finely wrought in mezzotint it might be very beautiful.

Mr. Thomas Moran's "Pass of Glencoe," No. 102, is a grand subject, rendered with considerable strength, though in a somewhat conventional manner, and with the fault, in chiaroscuro, that the darker shades on the distant mountain contend too strongly with the dark of the foreground. Mr. Henry Farrar's "Now Comes Still Evening On," No. 50, has a pleasantly solemn sentiment of twilight, and is up to the artist's usual mark of technical excellence, which is a comparatively high one. The several plates by J. H. Twachtman and Mrs. Twachtman, respectively—especially No. 159 by the former and 161 by the latter—have some clever, free qualities; but they are too indeterminate and spotty for true effect. No. 34, "In the Fields," by L. C. Earle, is a comparatively delicate and true bit; and Mr. C. A. Platt's "Provincial Fishing Village," No. 138, contains some expressive work; but, like so many others, this plate shows that apparently affected rudeness of execution to which we have alluded. Two plates by Aug. Laucon, No. 76, "Lion," and No. 77, "Lioness," are comparatively fine; but since John Lewis etched and engraved in mezzotint his consummately grand, masterly, and exquisitely subtle lion subjects (works which are far too little known, and in comparison with which Landseer's delineations of lions are like child's play), we have a standard of attainment which makes us require a great deal of any other artist who may attempt to portray wild beasts. There is in this collection also a "Lion's Head," by Heywood Hardy, No. 69, which, again, is comparatively fine.

No. 175, "Home from the Fold," by Charles Volkmar, is well composed, and good, free work, relatively speaking. Mr. A. F. Bellows's "On the River Mole, Surrey, Eng.," No. 10, is true in sentiment, as Mr. Bellows's work usually is. It wants strength and significance, however, in line and touch, and it is far too complex in elaboration. No. 72, "Study of Trees," by J. Henry Hill, is a thoroughly true and tender little bit of nature; and it is clean, honest etching, though rather too redundant in line. No. 9, "Fisher Boats of Venice," by Albert Ballin, is a conspicuous example of some of the worst tendencies of modern etching. It is utterly incoherent, spotty, and characterless. "Mont St. Michel," No. 67, a large plate by A. H. Haig, is a highly elaborate and very skilful piece of work, though somewhat mechanical, and rather like engraving than etching. It deserves honorable mention, however, for the quality, now so rare in etching, of sound and faithful drawing. There are, perhaps, other plates here of equal merits, and many which show the like defects, with those we have noticed (with exception of Mr. Seymour Haden's "Sawley Abbey"), but we have observed none which call for any new or different remark.

The catalogue is a handsome quarto of fifteen pages, with nine etched illustrations by Wm. M. Chase, F. S. Church, R. Swain Gifford, Thomas Moran, J. C. Nicoll, Joseph Pennell, C. A. Platt, Walter Shirlaw, and T. W. Wood respectively. It contains, also, a brief preface by Mr. Haden, in which, after some judiciously guarded remarks, of a complimentary nature, upon the character of American etching, he takes occasion to reiterate his views respecting the nature of modern engraving as compared with etching—speaking disparagingly of engravers, and characterizing their art as a purely mechanical one. He complains, too, of the injustice (in his view) of admitting engravers to academic honors while etchers are "left out in the cold." We do not concur with Mr. Haden's sweeping views on this point. There has been, and still is, certainly, a vast deal of purely mechanical engraving. It may even be admitted—indeed, it is undoubtedly the fact—that modern engravers are, as a class, in comparison with the engravers of earlier times, rather masters of their tools alone than men of artistic character and capacity. But to class all engravers who make it their business to reproduce other men's designs in this category is altogether unjustifiable. The art of rightly translating a painting into the terms of engraving is in no sense a mechanical art. It is a thoroughly fine art, and a very honorable one. Such work, though it may not require those gifts which enable a man to excel in higher forms of original design, nevertheless does require that sympathy with and understanding of original work which only a man who is essentially an artist can possess. And to a certain extent a first-rate engraver is compelled to exercise original gifts, even in translating a picture—gifts of precisely the same nature as those which Mr. Haden has himself so admirably exercised in translating Turner's "Calais Pier" into etching. Such an engraver may, with undoubted justice, be made a "Royal Academician," and in becoming one he will reflect as much credit upon the Academy as the Academy confers upon him. Indeed, such a man's claims to academic honors are superior to those of the average modern etcher. The fact is that the burin and the etching-point are equally and simply instruments of linear expression. If either of them is used by an artist, the result is a work of art, while if either is used by a mere mechanic or by a charlatan, the result is not a work of art. And we must add that in our judgment even the mechanical engraver deserves more respect than the average etcher, for the one is a faithful laborer, while the other is not so.

Respecting these etchings in the catalogue, very little in praise can be said. They call, rather, for pretty sharp condemnation. Not one of them shows any considerable skill in truthful, tranquil, and harmonious drawing; and without expressing these qualities it is presumptuous for a man to etch. Nor do they indicate powers of original design, or even of artistic selection or treatment of subject. They consist, with little exception, of commonplace, conventional, or weakly fanciful themes, upon which few persons of good sense will care to dwell very long. Mr. Chase's "Spanish Peasant" is a scratchy and spotty performance, with no qualities beyond such as any clever academic student could readily achieve. Mr. Church's "Market Day" is beneath criticism in point either of sentiment or of drawing. Mr. Gifford's "Miller's Home" has a sentiment of picturesqueness, but it is wanting in graphic character of line and touch. Mr. Moran's "Glencoe" (a reduced copy of the larger plate already noticed) has some merit of frank simplicity and composition, but it is not more than clever. Only clever, too, is Mr. Nicoll's "In the Harbor," and without the *retroussage* printing we doubt whether it would appear even clever. The naked lines, when searched out, have little living expressiveness. We may say about the same of Mr. Pennell's "At Lynchburg, Va.," save that it is a much less interesting subject. Mr. Platt's "A Provincial Fishing Village" (also a copy from a larger plate) is pleasantly composed, and shows some feeling, but little subtlety of draughtmanship. Mr. Shirlaw's "Italia" is a sentimental and ungraceful thing, with some delicate elaboration of the head and hair, like engravers' work, but without a single vital line in it. And Mr. Wood's "Fresh Eggs," though neither affected nor conventional, is weak and commonplace.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 1, 1883.

The Week.

THE rule by which the House of Representatives is to be kept from adopting the Senate Tariff Bill as it stands, and the adoption of which was, on Monday, prevented by the breaking of the quorum, but which was carried on Tuesday, is a great curiosity. It provides "that during the remainder of this session it shall be in order at any time to move to suspend the rules, which motion shall be decided by a majority vote, to take from the Speaker's table House bill 5,538, with Senate amendments thereto (being the so-called Senate Tariff Bill), and to declare a disagreement with the Senate's amendments to the same, and to ask for a committee of conference thereon, to be composed of five members on the part of the House." In other words, the Senate Tariff Bill may be taken up for the purpose of disagreeing with it and of sending it to a conference committee, but not for the purpose of adopting it. This is probably the first time in parliamentary history that a rule was made for a legislative body, permitting the latter to take up a certain subject for action, but providing at the same time that this action shall be in one way and not in another. The "protected interests" are evidently at their wits' ends. But the race of those who have to resort to such tricks is usually not a long one.

In the Senate on Monday Mr. Van Wyck called up his resolution requesting the President to communicate any information in his possession touching the alleged agreement of the Ministers of the United States, Great Britain, France, and Italy at Lima to make a joint effort to bring about peace between Chili and Peru, and to inform the Senate whether the Minister of the United States had been instructed to accept the mediation of the Ministers of European Powers in settling the troubles. The resolution was adopted without dissent, but Mr. Van Wyck made some remarks in support of it, relating to Mr. Trescot's mission, which are important if true. He declared that Mr. Trescot was prevented from making peace between Chili and Peru by the Administration. "Just as Mr. Trescot was about to make the proper representations to the Government of Chili," he says, "he was stopped by a cable despatch from Secretary Frelinghuysen," and "was informed that any intervention in the affairs of other nations was against the policy of the United States; substantially, that murder, massacre, and destruction of trade might go unchecked between two independent republics so far as the United States were concerned." We do not remember seeing this despatch. If the Administration was so bloody-minded then, why has it become so pacific all of a sudden? Our impression always was that Mr. Trescot failed to make peace because Chili and Peru could not come to terms.

The appointment of Mr. John W. Foster to the Spanish mission is reported to have been entirely unsolicited by him as well as by his Indiana friends. This is very creditable to the Administration. Mr. Foster has served as Minister of the United States to Mexico and to Russia, and has on all occasions shown not only that fidelity to duty which must be expected of every officer of the Government, but peculiar aptness for diplomatic business. As Mr. Foster also speaks the language of the country to which he is sent, his appointment may be called emphatically one made "in the interest of the public service."

There is little probability that the new and somewhat disguised form of steamship subsidy engrafted upon the Shipping Bill in the Senate will become a law, and there is some probability that it may operate to kill the whole bill. The House has shown such decided hostility to any kind of subsidy that its concurrence in a bill to give a bonus of one dollar per mile (or $3,000 for each trip across the Atlantic) to pay shipbuilders, not for carrying the mails, but for carrying the American flag, is not to be expected. The legislation to be saved or lost this week is so vast in amount, embracing several appropriation bills, the Tax and Tariff Bill, the Court of Appeals Bill, the Bonded Whiskey Bill, etc., that any bill of secondary importance which requires much circulation back and forth between the two houses is very likely to fail.

There has been a series of rather important failures in the West, in the last ten days, beginning with that of John V. Ayer's Sons in the iron trade at Chicago, and including that of W. T. Allen & Co., grocers, and the large paper-manufacturing firm of Lucius Fairchild & Co., at South Bend, Indiana, besides a good many smaller ones. The effect of these was to give a downward turn to all the speculative markets in grain and provisions, which has continued throughout the time mentioned. General trade in the West has also been interrupted to a very considerable extent by the floods in the rivers in the central region, and by heavy snows in northwestern Iowa and southwestern Minnesota. There are even apprehensions of still greater damage along the Lower Mississippi, when the accumulated floods of the Ohio and other Northern rivers shall reach there. To these add fears of disturbances in prices by the passage of the Tariff and Revenue Bill by Congress. All these circumstances have combined to depress business generally. Money has continued abundant, but with a hardening tendency, during the last week. The movements of capital between the United States and Europe are less marked than a few weeks ago. The total weekly value of our exports of domestic products has diminished in the past ten days, and yet foreign exchange has declined. It is believed that foreign capital is now taking more of our railway securities than a couple of weeks ago; prices of stocks having declined to a point where many conservative capitalists both in Europe and this country believe they are safe to buy if a fair degree of discrimination is exercised in the purchases. As the earnings of the railroads are unusually large, and the present range of prices is from 15 to 20 per cent. below those of a year or eighteen months ago, there seems much ground for this opinion. Of course a great deal depends upon the prospects of the next grain crop, about which, of course, nothing positive can be said for at least six weeks yet.

The *Christian Advocate* has published a defence and explanation of its share in puffing the swindle which has become known to the public during the last week or two as "the Methodist Mine." It says, in substance, that the swindling owner of the mine, a man named Bixby, hit on the device of getting Dr. Spencer, the President of a struggling "Wesleyan University" in East Tennessee, to believe that he was going to endow the University with 15,000 shares of his stock, and persuaded him that it was very valuable. The President sent out a professor to examine it, but whether the professor had ever seen a mine before does not appear. The professor reported that it was a very fine mine indeed. Thereupon the unhappy President started for the North to puff the stock, in order to enable the owner to get some money to "develop the property." He saw the editors of the *Advocate*, who knew no more about mines than he did, and told them a wonderful tale. "The gleam of confidence in his eye," they say, "the smile of serene anticipation on his lips," deceived them, and they wrote a gorgeous puff of the mine, enabling the swindling owner to "unload" on a considerable number of simple-minded Methodists. They are now very sorry, and confess they did wrong; probably all the sorrier because, if we understand their statement rightly, they went in themselves on "the ground floor."

This would be, perhaps, a sufficient excuse but for two things. One is that although it may be proper to invest your own money on the strength of a "gleam of confidence in the eye," or a "smile of anticipation on the lips" of somebody else, it is not right to persuade other people to do so for any purpose, not even to endow a "University." This is a lesson of which everybody has had plenty of experience during the last twenty years. The other is that it is well known that religious newspapers are a favorite medium for swindlers and charlatans desirous of getting rid of worthless stocks. For some years after the war they were the chief agents in promoting the sale of good-for-nothing railroad securities, to the great scandal and loss of the religious world. The editors of the *Advocate* ought not, therefore, to have been taken unawares when Dr. Spence came gleaming and smiling into their office. They ought to have met him with the unalterable rule that no journal, and above all no religious journal,

ought to recommend an investment under any circumstances or for any purpose. It is not the business of a newspaper, or one for which any editor is fit. If there be no canon of the Methodist discipline forbidding stock-puffing by newspapers, one ought to be promptly adopted, and it ought to operate whether the stock turns out well or ill.

The demand which is now said to have been made on our Government for the extradition of P. J. Sheridan, who is accused by Carey, the informer, of having been actively engaged in organizing the Assassination Society in Dublin, is likely to lead to some troublesome controversy; but it seems hardly probable that the British Government will press it vigorously. Whether an offence is political depends on the motives of the offender, to be inferred from the surrounding circumstances. If it is obviously an expression of political hatred or discontent, and is committed on a political officer or agent, either in revenge for political wrongs or with the view of bringing about a political change, it is a political offence, however atrocious or repulsive or futile. And the reasons why free governments are unwilling to surrender persons to take their trial at home for such offences are obvious enough. The first is, that political offences almost always—like that greatest of them all, armed rebellion—arise out of domestic discontents or dissensions, on the reasonableness or justice of which a foreign government is not competent to pass. The second is, that while as regards ordinary crimes the supreme government of every country stands aside as an almost impartial spectator, indifferent to the decisions of the tribunals, as regards political crimes it is an eager and interested, and often fiercely interested, party to the prosecution, and is likely to use all its influence and all its power to bring about a conviction. Consequently, the chances of a fair trial for political offences are in every country smaller than for any other offence, and no government which is asked to surrender a refugee likes to be very nice in drawing the line between them and ordinary offences. In fact, the rule which governs most such cases was very neatly laid down by Lord Palmerston when he said that "the British Government had never undertaken to provide for the internal security of other countries. It is sufficient to them to have the power to provide for the internal security of their own." There is nothing in all this, however, to lessen the joy with which all civilized men will hear that everybody connected, nearly or remotely, with the Phœnix Park murders has been strung up.

Dr. Dix, of Trinity Church, is delivering a course of lectures on the "Calling of the Christian Woman," in one of which he recently fell foul of what is called the "higher education," which Columbia College is now being asked to provide for in this city. We are a little reluctant to comment on the newspaper reports of what he said, knowing how often sermons and lectures are travestied or perverted in the newspaper summaries of them; and in his behalf we must express a doubt whether he really said that the term—

> "Higher education of women suggests the question, Higher than what? higher than whose? higher than that of men or higher than women receive at present? The term clearly masks a sinister purpose and covers a theory of woman's education against which I enter a solemn and permanent protest. These advocates demand an education for women on the same line with that of men; training them to think men's thoughts, to do men's work. This is plainly intended, for it is coupled with another demand for co-education. That means that the youth of both sexes should be taught the same things, in the same places, and out of the same books, and by the same teachers, and in company of each other. It is well known that pressure has been brought to bear upon the trustees of Columbia College to coax or tease or frighten them into an adoption of this policy. It appears, then, that these advocates of a higher education are driving at co-education, and under this term aim at treating girls as if they were boys, as essentially the same thing, and training them all together, and that the woman shall have the same training as the man."

We express a doubt whether he said all this, because it is both sophistical and obscure. There is no such want of clearness in the term higher education as he seems to discover; in fact, no more than in the term "higher mathematics," or "high school," or "higher classes." When any one talks to Dr. Dix of the "higher mathematics" he does not answer, "Higher than what? higher than whose? Why are mathematics high? Why not low? What are your real designs in using this strange phrase?" When one speaks to him of a "high school," he does not say, "Ha, ha! I see what you are up to. Why should a school be high? Why not low or medium? Do you mean as high as Trinity Church steeple, or as high as the Capitol dome at Washington? If so, why should a school be so high? Answer me that, or for ever hold your peace." The higher education of women is really, we assure Dr. Dix, a perfectly harmless and well-known term, in long use both in England and this country. It masks no nefarious design against the female character, or the true dignity of womanhood, or the peace of homes. It means simply what is known among men as more advanced education than is given at primary schools to children. It means what a young woman would do who, at sixteen or seventeen, instead of giving herself up to dancing, flirting, or even wholly to church work, should continue the studies which she has been carrying on at school or under a home governess. It means, in fact—we blush to write it—more history, more geography, more French and German, and more philosophy than she has had while her skirts only came to her ankles; to be acquired in a room with benches, from teachers called "professors." The theory on which it is asked for is not that woman ought to do man's work, as Dr. Dix supposes, but that a little more knowledge than she now gets will fit her better to do her own work. We will even be so cruel as to add that we think Dr. Dix's reasoning processes, if correctly reported, would inevitably be improved if his female audiences had had a little training in elementary logic.

The convicts in the Penitentiary at Jefferson City, Missouri, mutinied on Friday, under the lead of a Mr. John B. Johnson, a "safe-blower" by profession, who was serving out a twelve years' sentence for highway robbery. He set fire to the buildings, and though the revolt was put down, the losses by fire are very heavy. The ringleaders embraced also Mr. J. S. Johnson, a murderer, Mr. Perry Martin, a stage robber, and Mr. "Arkansas" Williams, a convict of experience, who got up a revolt in the Kansas City Jail last spring. The despatches mention that they are all "desperate men," and there is nothing in the account given of their proceedings on this occasion, or in what we know of their previous lives, to throw any doubt upon the statement. No explanation is given of the revolt, except the mutineers' simple, honest dislike of prison life. Strange to say, no public sympathy is expressed for any of the gallant fellows, and no enthusiasm displayed over their heroism, which, in view of the hold that Jesse James has taken upon the public heart, and the respect and consideration with which he has been treated, must seem rather hard to them. Mr. Martin, for instance, who last summer carried things with as high a hand in southwestern Missouri as James himself ever did, and "held up" several stageloads of passengers between Seligman and Eureka Springs, must feel that, if James was a hero, he was on the way to become one.

The correspondence between the Secretary of the Navy and Commander Gorringe is probably unique. The naval archives either of this or any other country certainly cannot show its match. Something of the kind, however, was sure to happen when Mr. Chandler took possession of the Navy Department. To politicians of his type, officers of Mr. Gorringe's kind, who have scientific and literary or economical interests, are simply incomprehensible. In the world in which Mr. Chandler has passed his life as plain "Bill Chandler" there were no such persons, and he does not see how they can exist in the new and strange world in which he now lives in the extremely grotesque character of an admiral in command of a small fleet. In old times, whenever any of Mr. Chandler's companions advocated anything, or discussed anything of a public nature, he always understood that they were doing it because they had "an axe to grind," or had their eye on an office, or wished to "knife" or "slaughter" somebody, or get even with somebody. In those circles the notion that a man's public talk is simply the expression of his private sentiments, would afford food for much mirth. When Mr. Chandler, therefore, saw that Commander Gorringe had been reported, in an interview in the *Evening Post*, as advocating "free ships," it seemed to him so natural that he should have been paid for doing it, that he at once set to work to find out who had paid him, and wrote to him for the purpose in the simple, artless way to which he had been used in his old set. He was probably extremely surprised to find that Commander Gorringe was annoyed by the inquiry. Among "the boys" it would doubtless have been received with perfect good-humor. Mr. Chandler probably to this hour does not see why Commander Gorringe should have got "mad" on being asked whether he, an American naval officer, was not in receipt of British pay, particularly as there was no hint of a "divvy" or assessment; or why it

should be considered offensive to suppose that an American gentleman would not talk "free ships" unless he expected a check for it. The most laughable part of the affair is the closing interview with the Secretary, reported by some of the papers, in which he declares that Gorringe is angry, and is "vituperating" him, and that all he had done was to object to the Commander's giving his views on free trade and free ships "in British employ." This is the old Bill Chandler of the stump and the caucus all over. The poet has said, you may break, you may ruin the vase if you will, but the scent of the roses will hang round it still. So, also, you may take a wire-pulling politician, and make him a sailor, or an astronomer, or an anything-you-please, he will always retain his old tricks, and especially that most useful one of putting a new dress on an old lie.

We called attention some time since to a decision of the United States Commissioner at Boston with regard to medical diplomas in that State. The subject having attracted the attention of Dr. H. P. Walcott, of the State Board of Health, he requested an opinion upon it from the Attorney-General. This has now been published, and it is to the effect that corporations organized under the general law of Massachusetts have not, as such, power to confer degrees at all. He founds this conclusion chiefly upon the fact that power to confer degrees has been expressly given by the Legislature to some colleges; in others it has not been given, and it is not a power which an educational institution must possess by its very existence. This opinion, if sustained by the courts, will save Massachusetts from the reproach of encouraging the fraudulent multiplication of degrees. It gives degrees the position they ought to have, of valuable franchises, which nobody can obtain without proving himself fit by his previous study and attainments to employ them properly. It does not, however, meet the whole difficulty of the general cheapening and degradation of degrees. A college degree is of little value in the United States, not merely or chiefly because of the dread of bogus diplomas, but because of the multiplication of institutions with the power of conferring real degrees. It would be a great mistake, no doubt, if any seven persons possessed, in Massachusetts or elsewhere, the power of vesting themselves with the right to give degrees; but as a general rule the right can be obtained from most of our legislatures if there is any pretence of founding a college or professional school, on however flimsy a basis. The degrees issued by these institutions generally help a young man to the practice of medicine or law, and how many hundreds of them there are in the United States we have no means of knowing. There are in this State four or five law schools which stand on the same footing before the law with Columbia and Harvard, and the same thing is true all over the country.

The Buffalo *Express*, in its waggish way, undertakes to make fun of our exposure of the abuses connected with bouquets, and couples us in its ridicule with the Boston *Advertiser*, and the dastardly attack made in the columns of that paper on the crush hat. If the *Express* had followed the matter with the care it merits, it would know that we have completely demolished the position taken by the *Advertiser* on the crush hat, and proved that in attacking the hat it has shown its complete incompetence for the task of social reform. The *Express* satirically reminds us that the Constitution of the United States makes no provision for the settlement of social questions of the sort that we have been discussing. It thinks that in "the earlier and simpler days of the Republic" the fathers supposed that "all social questions could be safely left to custom," but adds that with the frivolity of the present day the conflicts between fashion and economy require something more than custom for their settlement, and therefore suggests the creation of a "court" in which such matters may be judicially decided. This flippancy may do very well for Buffalo, but we can assure the *Express* that society in New York is no laughing matter. We shall not be deterred by ridicule from going on with our work, in which we are daily receiving assurances of the support and esteem of our best society.

The collapse of another clerical savings bank in the Roman Catholic Church, this time in Massachusetts, for a large amount, it is to be hoped will at last put poor depositors on their guard against this most dangerous and unbusinesslike way of disposing of their money. Considering the success of Mrs. Howe's bank of deposit among the native American women in Boston, we ought not to speak severely of the financial ignorance and credulity of the poor Irish who expect priests to do one of the most difficult things in this age and country—invest other people's money with safety and profit. The most experienced and honest financiers find it very hard to do it; it is folly to expect clergymen to do it. As a matter of fact, however, neither the Augustinian Fathers in Massachusetts, nor Archbishop Purcell in Ohio, made any pretence of investing the money of the depositors in a business way. They seem to have used it without stint or restraint in church-building and other ecclesiastical uses, and trusted to luck and the usual annual voluntary contributions for church purposes to enable them to pay interest or principal when called upon; and now that the system has broken down, all they can say to the depositors is that with time they will pay "dollar for dollar." The extraordinary performance among the Methodists known as "the Methodist Mine," in which some of the clergy and the denominational organ got a large number of the faithful into the stock of a worthless mine, with which the knavish and waggish owner declared he was going to endow a theological seminary, must, however, prevent Protestants from criticising the financial troubles of the Roman Catholics with asperity. We think, on the whole, there is not much to choose between the position of an Augustinian Father with a broken bank on his hands, and that of the clerical occupant of the "ground floor" of a "busted" religious mine.

The savage attack of Mr. Forster on Mr. Parnell in the House of Commons, has a very unpleasant resemblance to the mode in which Sir William Harcourt used to "draw" the Irishmen in the House during the passage of the Coercion Bill, by lashing them into fury by jibes and insults, and then getting them suspended, or reprobated for disorder. One member, O'Kelly, who pocketed so much of the "Skirmishing Fund" in this city, fell into the trap, and, giving Mr. Forster the "lie," has been suspended for his pains. Parnell, though ferociously denounced as an instigator of the assassins, kept cool, and took no notice, evidently to the great irritation of the majority in the House, who wanted him to get up that they might bait him. Mr. Forster's main argument would be reprehensibly absurd if it had not been produced by a very angry man. It was, in effect that he was justified in putting Parnell in jail because it is now proved that some of the Land Leaguers were concerned in the assassinations, and because they used some of the funds of the League in preparing the assassination, and because Parnell probably knew or suspected all this. Unfortunately, Mr. Forster made no pretence when he locked Parnell up of suspecting anything of the kind. What he said was that Parnell's language, even if innocent in itself, instigated others to violence, and that his influence was generally pernicious. Ex-post-facto justification is no more allowable than ex-post-facto legislation.

The Parnell reply has been received with much dissatisfaction by the English press, not apparently because anybody really believes he had any connection with or knowledge of the Dublin assassinations, but because he was not sufficiently repentant and submissive under Forster's attack, which seems hardly to have been of the kind, however, to make a man amiable and conciliatory. In fact, it was highly disorderly, and probably would not have been permitted toward an English member. It is against the rules of the House to accuse a man in debate of a disgraceful offence. Why O'Kelly should have been suspended for telling Forster that he lied, when Forster was allowed to tell Parnell that he had had a hand in a murder, it is hard to see. Of the performance on both sides, however, it may be said that it was magnificent, but not war. The impolicy of Mr. Forster's denunciations need hardly be pointed out. They may make Mr. Forster feel easier, but they do not help to solve the Irish problem. Abuse of Parnell from that quarter does not damage him with any one who does not hate him already. It unquestionably endears him to the Irish voters, and the Irish problem consists almost wholly in conciliating the Irish voters, and in getting them not to mind Parnell. Since this speech they will probably mind him more than ever. In fact, it may be considered fuel for the flame of agitation. The best way to undermine Parnell's influence is to go to work to redress the Irish grievances—whatever they be—of which Mr. Forster, Mr. Chamberlain, Mr. Courtney, and the Marquis of Hartington have all within the last month acknowledged the existence. In the game of vituperation the Irish are fully Mr. Forster's match, and nothing can come of it but bitterness

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 21, to TUESDAY, February 28, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON Wednesday the Senate passed the Army and Fortification Appropriation Bills, and the joint resolution to provide for the termination of the articles of the Treaty of Washington relating to the fisheries, and took up the Rebate Bill. On Thursday the Naval Appropriation Bill was under consideration. The amendment of the Committee making the appropriation "for engines and machinery for the double-turreted iron-clads, in accordance with the recommendation of the Naval Advisory Board," was agreed to. On Friday the bill was passed and the Rebate Bill taken up. On Saturday the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill was passed. On Monday the House Bill to prevent the importation of adulterated and spurious teas was called up and passed, as was also a resolution requesting the President to communicate any information in his possession touching the alleged agreement of the Ministers of Great Britain, France, and Italy at Lima to make a joint effort to bring about peace between Chili and Peru, and to inform the Senate whether the Minister of the United States had been instructed to accept the mediation of the Ministers of European Powers in settling a purely American question. On Tuesday, Secretary Frelinghuysen reported that Minister Partridge had been censured for his unauthorized action in the premises, and that foreign Governments had been notified accordingly.

The Republican Representatives held a caucus on Thursday on the Tariff Bill. The whole situation was freely discussed, the result being the adoption of a resolution declaring it to be the opinion of the caucus that the Republican members of the House should vote to non-concur in the Senate amendments to the House Revenue Bill, alias the Senate Tariff Bill.

In the House, on Wednesday, the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill being under discussion, Mr. Beltzhoover made an attack upon the administration of the Signal Service under General Hazen. On Thursday an amendment was passed repealing the preëmption laws, together with all laws authorizing the filing of declaratory statements for the entry of public lands by agent or attorney. On Friday an amendment relating to the Yellowstone National Park, prohibiting the Secretary of the Interior from leasing any portion of the Park to any person or corporation for any purposes whatever, declaring of no force or effect any lease, agreement, exclusive privilege, or monopoly already granted, and authorizing the Secretary of War to detail troops to prevent trespassing upon the Park, was adopted. On Saturday the bill was passed. On Monday an attempt was made to send the Senate Tariff Bill to a conference committee, but it was defeated, and the joint resolution providing for the termination of the fisheries treaties under the Treaty of Washington was passed. On Tuesday the House voted to take the Tariff Bill from the table and send it to a committee of conference. The Senate agreed to a conference, and both houses appointed conferees. At the opening of the Senate on Tuesday, Senator Davis gave notice of his intention to resign the office of President of that body on the 3d of March.

Petitions bearing the signatures of Albert Bierstadt, Frederick E. Church, A. F. Tait, Wyatt Eaton, President of the Society of American Artists, and hundreds of other artists and sculptors were presented by Representative Belmont, of New York, on Monday, urging the passage of his bill, now pending before the Committee on Ways and Means, which provides for the free importation of works of art.

On Saturday the President nominated Mr. John W. Foster, of Indiana, as Minister to Madrid. The nomination is said to have been made with special reference to the naturalization and other questions pending between Spain and the United States, and the mission is therefore regarded as of a temporary character.

On Monday the President sent the following nominations to the Senate: S. G. W. Benjamin to be Minister Resident and Consul-General of the United States at Teheran, Persia; Wickham Hoffman to be Minister Resident and Consul-General of the United States to Denmark; Lucius H. Foote to be Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States to Corea; Dwight T. Reed to be Secretary of Legation and Consul-General of the United States at Madrid.

Secretary Frelinghuysen has, upon the application of the British Government, issued a warrant for the arrest of P. J. Sheridan, accused of complicity in the Phœnix Park murders, and it has been placed in the hands of Mr. West, the British Minister. Mr. Sheridan is in New York. In case he is arrested he will be taken before a United States Commissioner, who will decide whether he is subject to extradition under the warrant. Should he decide in the affirmative, the Department of State will issue the necessary papers.

A correspondence between Secretary Chandler and Commander Gorringe, which culminated in the resignation of the latter, was published on Saturday. Last May Mr. Gorringe published in the *North American Review* an article on the Navy, in which some of the recommendations of the Naval Advisory Board, of which Commodore Shufeldt was President, were opposed. Not long after, Mr. Gorringe gave in public his opinion on the proposed abandonment of the Brooklyn Navy-yard, and the Secretary wrote him: "When particular questions of administration are actually pending in the Department, or before Congress, no public expression of opinion thereon by any officer should be made without he first communicates his views to the Department, and receives authority to make them public. You will please hereafter be governed by this rule." Recently, Mr. Gorringe having published his views on free ships in the *Evening Post*, the Secretary wrote to him to inquire whether he was in the employ of interests not American, which inquiry Mr. Gorringe considered an insult, and so resigned, after writing a sharp letter to Mr. Chandler.

A statue of Robert Fulton was placed in the old Hall of Representatives at Washington on Monday, as one of the two statues to be contributed by Pennsylvania. The sculptor is Mr. Howard Roberts.

The Washington Grand Jury on Friday indicted William Knox Brown, one of the jurors in the first Star-Route trial, for having received money to influence his vote. He is said to have sold himself for $8.

As a result of the investigation begun by the Citizens' Committee of Washington into the operations of the detective corps of that city, the Grand Jury on Monday returned indictments against a number of detectives and ex-detectives and others for receiving stolen goods. One of the men indicted is Arthur B. Williams, counsel for Brady and Dorsey in the pending Star-route trial.

Governor Butler, of Massachusetts, has issued a proclamation appointing Thursday, April 5, a fast day. In conclusion he says: "I do specially exhort the ministers of the Gospel on that day to feed their flocks with the Divine Word, and not to discourse upon political and other secular topics which may divert the serious thoughts of the people from the humble worship of the Father."

The friends of Polk, the Tennessee defaulter, made an offer to the Tennessee Legislature on Wednesday to the following effect: Upon condition that Polk be released, they agree to pay to the State $175,000 in the currency of the Bank of Tennessee, and $75,000 in Tennessee bonds upon which are accumulated coupons to the amount of $33,700, the balance of the deficit to be paid by the note of Colonel Polk, due in one year from date, secured by a mortgage upon Polk's interest in Mexican mining property.

By Wednesday night the Ohio River at Cincinnati was practically within its banks, having receded eleven and one-half feet from its highest point. There is still a part of the city overflowed, but business has been renewed, and all danger is over. At Louisville also order has been restored in the flooded districts.

The Grand Jury at Milwaukee, on Monday, found an indictment against George Scheller, the barkeeper, who is charged with setting the Newhall House on fire.

In the Missouri State Prison at Jefferson City on Friday the convicts broke out into a revolt. They seized two of their foremen, and Johnson, the ringleader, set the building containing the prison shops on fire. The guards ran in with the hose, which the convicts cut. The fire was not under control until five shops had been completely destroyed. The total loss will reach $80,000. Four convicts were seriously burned. Johnson, who attempted to kill a convict who refused to assist him in the revolt, was finally captured after he had made several desperate attempts to escape. About 600 convicts will be idle until the shops are rebuilt, which will cause a material reduction in the revenues of the prison.

The savings bank connected with the Augustinian Society of the city of Lawrence, Mass., which controls the leading Roman Catholic churches and parochial schools there, has failed. The actual debt of the society is about $540,000, of which $429,900 is due depositors, the majority of whom are mill operatives and working people, many of them unmarried women.

Ex-Secretary Windom, John M. Candler, of Massachusetts, and Harvey Farrington, of New York, as trustees of a projected new Stock Exchange in New York, have sent out circulars inviting subscriptions for seats at $5,000 each. When 500 seats are sold, a board room will be opened.

On Saturday the White Star steamship *Republic* arrived at New York with the crew of the freight steamer *Glamorgan*, of the Warren Line. She was sighted by the *Republic* on the 16th inst. in a desperate condition, and all of her passengers and crew except seven, who had been lost, were rescued.

FOREIGN.

In the French Chamber of Deputies, on Thursday, Prime Minister Ferry explained the programme of the Ministry, and solicited the confidence of the country. He said the Government's first care would be to satisfy the wish of the Chamber by applying the law of 1834, under which the Princes would be deprived of their military posts. Without infringing upon the essential liberties of the people, the Government demanded that measures be taken against the utterance of seditious cries and against the authors of seditious placards. Reforms were required in the magistracy. A military bill and an habitual-criminals bill were to be introduced. The budget for 1884 would soon be presented. M. Ferry said the Government proposes to facilitate the execution of public works, and to introduce measures looking to the organization of a protectorate in Tunis and the reduction of the expenses of the occupation of that country. The foreign policy of the Government will be peaceful, but not necessarily one of inaction.

On Saturday M. Jolibois, in making an interpellation, denied that the Republic emanated from national sovereignty, as it lacked a plébiscite, and moved that the Chamber desires that the individual liberty of all citizens, without distinction, be respected. The motion was rejected by a vote of 368 to 93. After a prolonged debate a resolution approv-

ing the measures which the Government contemplates against pretenders, was adopted.

Decrees enforcing the law of 1834, depriving Princes of their military posts, have been gazetted in France. They will affect, it is said, neither the Duc de Penthièvre, who is already exempted from service, nor Prince Roland Bonaparte, who is not regarded as a pretender.

The report of General Thibaudin, Minister of War, in justification of the retirement of the Duc d'Aumale, the Duc de Chartres, and the Duc d'Alençon, says public opinion demanded the adoption of a measure placing these Princes on the retired list. The public had become alive to the inconvenience of the presence in the Army of officers belonging to former reigning families. The great principles of subordination and discipline might be weakened thereby.

It is stated that the French Admiral on the Madagascar station has been ordered to suppress vigorously any attempts to resist the rights of France on the island.

Mr. Gladstone arrived in Paris on his way from Cannes to London on Tuesday. He paid a visit to President Grévy and M. Challemel-Lacour.

In the debate on Mr. Gorst's amendment to the address in reply to the Queen's speech—declaring that, in view of the confession of the Irish assassins, no further concessions should be made to lawless agitation—on Thursday, the Right Hon. William Forster made a violent attack upon Mr. Parnell. He said the recent disclosures had increased the suspicion that the Land League was connected with the outrages. The public expected that Mr. Parnell would have elucidated this point. No mere disclaimer would be sufficient. He charged Mr. Parnell with heading an organization which had started an agitation that promoted outrages and incited to murder. At this point, Mr. O'Kelly having shouted, "It's a lie!" several times, was named for suspension, and his suspension was ordered by a vote of 305 to 20. Mr. Forster then resumed and reiterated his charges against Mr. Parnell, quoting from that gentleman's speeches, in which he had said that murder was unnecessary. He said the wretches who committed the Phœnix Park assassinations had not acted on the letter, but according to the spirit of these speeches. Until Mr. Parnell expressed regret and repentance he could not communicate with him. There were loud cries for Mr. Parnell, but he did not move. The Marquis of Hartington then rose and expressed surprise at Mr. Parnell's silence, which he said was an admission that a prima-facie case had been established against the Irish leaders. The Government, he declared, had no intention of introducing any measures for an extensive change of policy with regard to Ireland that would be likely to arouse strong party feeling and absorb a large portion of the time of the House.

On Friday Mr. Parnell replied to Mr. Forster. He charged him with unfairness, and said he ought to be ashamed of himself for traducing him; that he had been challenged to defend himself, but he had nothing to defend himself from. He occupied a better position in the eyes of the Irish than Mr. Forster did in England. Mr. Parnell analyzed the evidence of Carey at the hearing of the Irish prisoners in Dublin, which he said was not a statement of fact, but of belief or hearsay. The evidence in reference to the source of the "murder fund," he said, rested upon the fact that some men while in prison had received checks from the sustentation fund of the Land League. Such aid had been given to thousands of prisoners. As proof that the prisoners charged with the Phœnix Park murders were not members of the Land League, Mr. Parnell pointed out that one of them had returned a check which had been sent to him from the sustentation fund, saying that he had nothing to do with the League. Mr. Forster's animus was due to the fact that he had attempted to obtain a promise from him (Mr. Parnell), but had failed to do so and had lost his office. In concluding his remarks, Mr. Parnell declared that the present officials in Ireland were manifestly unfit to administer the Crimes Act. Mr. Forster ought to return to his congenial work. Mr. Parnell said he was hopeful that Ireland would weather this, as she had weathered other formidable oppressions. Mr. Trevelyan then proceeded to vindicate the policy of the Government in Ireland. He said that since the present Government had been commissioned to suppress crime, the number of murders had been reduced from three a month to one in the last four and a-half months. After some further debate Mr. Gorst's amendment was defeated by a vote of 259 to 176. The Parnellites abstained from voting.

On Monday Mr. Parnell moved an amendment to the address in reply to the speech from the throne, attacking the executive in Ireland for the administration of the Crimes Act. Its language is said to have been violent. In moving it, Mr. Parnell said that if there had been any reduction in the number of outrages in Ireland, it was only because the people were being kept down by the brutal, terrible Coercion Act, administered in a brutal, terrible way. He complained of the conduct of the Irish judges, who were appointed for political reasons, and were therefore unfit to try political causes. He said that if the Government, after the Phœnix Park murders were committed, had relied on the sympathy of the people instead of upon a tyrannical act, Ireland would have been pacified. He protested against the proclamation of meetings and the prosecution of the press. Freedom of speech did not exist in Ireland. In the Hynes and other murder cases the juries were composed almost exclusively of Protestants, Castle tradesmen, and acquaintances of Earl Spencer, the Lord Lieutenant. The administration of the law was detested by everybody. He defied the Government to continue to govern Ireland without the sympathy of the people. The amendment of the Land Act was urgent, though even that would not quench the spirit of Irish nationality. He believed that Mr. Chamberlain was one of the few English members who correctly appreciated the Irish question. This remark was greeted with ironical cheers. Mr. Parnell said the Government now had a great opportunity to restore peace and order in Ireland. He was confident of victory, having one million of Irish in America behind him. The Right Hon. Andrew Porter, Attorney-General for Ireland, replied to Mr. Parnell, and rebutted the charge of jury-packing. Mr. Parnell's amendment was finally rejected by a vote of 133 to 15.

In a debate in the House of Commons on Tuesday, Mr. Trevelyan said that although the Government had no large measures concerning the government of Ireland to introduce this year, they intended to bring forward several careful measures with regard to the distress existing there. He said the truth was that the holdings in the west of Ireland were too small; the people could not live on them without getting into debt. The question was whether by giving extraordinary relief the Government should stay emigration and merely postpone the evil day.

Since the disclosure made by Carey, a number of Irish-Americans and farmers' sons in Counties Armagh, Monaghan, and Louth have been secretly leaving for America. Mrs. Carey has been completely "boycotted" since she turned informer. Not one of her tenants has paid rent, and notices have been posted on the doorsteps of her houses, warning persons not to pay rent to a "cursed informer."

General MacAdaras, who was suspected of being the "Number One" spoken of by Carey, the informer, indignantly denies the accusation, and has written to Mr. Trevelyan that he is willing to submit to the most rigid scrutiny of his actions.

Mr. Harrington, Secretary of the Organizing Committee of the Land League, who is now in jail for using intimidating language, has been elected without opposition to the seat in the House of Commons for Westmeath made vacant by the retirement of Mr. Gill.

The Prussian Landtag, on Thursday, discussed the estimates of the Ministry of Worship. Herr Windthorst, the leader of the Clerical party, said that the Government was blamable for the conflict with the Vatican, as it had not been in earnest in its negotiations. The Government is not desirous of peace with the Vatican, though the Emperor is in favor of it. Herr Gossler, Minister of Public Instruction, said he would place no difficulty in the way of religious schools, but only desired to prevent the exercise of certain special influence over the schools. He refused to answer Herr Windthorst's question as to whether the negotiations with the Curia had been broken off. The Government, he stated, had almost entirely removed the sequestration of the incomes of the clergy and pardoned Bishop Melchers. This statement caused general surprise.

A despatch from Rome on Thursday said that Cardinal Jacobini's last note pointed out that there was only one alternative: either Prussia must consent to a thorough revision of the May laws or she will deprive the Catholic Church in Germany of the very conditions of existence. A despatch to the London *Times* from Berlin on Saturday said the statement of Cardinal Jacobini, the Papal Secretary of State, that the Bishops had been authorized to give notice to the Government of clerical appointments as soon as the Reichstag and Landtag assented to measures insuring the free exercise of ecclesiastical jurisdiction and the free instruction of the clergy, is regarded as putting the end of the *Kulturkampf* as far off as ever.

The German Bundesrath has approved unanimously the bill prohibiting the importation of American pigs, pork, and sausages.

The Spanish Senate has agreed to prolong all existing treaties of commerce between Spain and foreign countries until March 15. The *Imparcial* newspaper of Madrid on Sunday published a detailed account of the discovery in Andalusia of societies whose aim is to destroy the rights of property and exterminate the bourgeois landowners. The Socialistic societies in Andalusia are said to number 1,000 members, including persons of high social standing. The Government has resolved to take energetic measures for their suppression.

While some members of an Anarchist committee were experimenting with dynamite at the village of Gansharten, in Belgium, on Sunday, an explosion took place in which several men were wounded. It is reported that Anarchist documents were seized at the explosion which show that a plot has been organized to murder the Czar at his coronation in May. It is also rumored that the seizure of Anarchist papers at Brussels will lead to the arrest of Louise Michel and several of her colleagues.

A despatch from St. Petersburg says: "It is stated that letters have been received by the authorities conveying threats to blow up the Kremlin at Moscow, where the Czar is to be crowned. A search was made, but nothing indicating preparations for the destruction of the palace was revealed. A close watch is kept, and the public are not allowed to enter the building."

The St. Petersburg *Golos* has been suppressed because of its mischievous tone in discussing state institutions and in describing the intentions of the Government regarding the reforms which have taken place during the last quarter of a century. An imperial ukase has been published appointing a committee to examine and amend the laws relating to Jews. Forty students at St. Petersburg were imprisoned on Monday for expressing doubts of the administrative ability of Count Tolstoi, Minister of Public Instruction.

THE TAX ON BOOKS.

Mr. Morrill presented a petition in the Senate on Wednesday, from Mr. E. C. Stedman, the poet, of this city, against the abolition of the duty on books, on the ground that it ought not to be abolished till the duty on the raw materials of book manufacture is abolished. Mr. Stedman is the third or fourth American author of note who has petitioned Congress in this sense. He does not, however, go as far as Dr. Holmes and Mr. Whittier, who avowed that they shared the apprehension by which their publisher has long been tormented, that the American mind, if not protected by the tariff, would be injured by foreign literature. He has in his eye, we presume, the interest of American publishers simply, who would, he thinks, be undersold in the American market by foreign publishers, so long as the material of which books are made is heavily taxed here.

We have more than once pointed out that the argument that putting books on the free list would make books too cheap, is, if sound, absolutely destructive of the argument by which the giving of unconditional copyright to foreign authors has all along been resisted—that it would make books too dear. In the various discussions which have raged during the last twenty years between the American and English publishers about copyright, the need of cheap books for a society like ours, in which political security is so largely dependent on popular intelligence, has been always put in the forefront of the American battle. English publishers should not be allowed to enter the American market with copyrighted books, we were told, because they would follow the English custom of making them dear, whereas the highest interests of the American nation required that books—foreign as well as others—should be cheap. Are we to understand Mr. Stedman that the American publishers have abandoned this ground, and hold that the highest interests of the American people require that foreign books should be dear, and that what America needs is not so much numerous readers as thriving publishers? Has Mr. Munro, the eminent Pirate, really destroyed the old passion of American publishers for cheap popular literature?

In the second place, we would ask what advantage can it be to American authors or publishers to tax books which they would never reprint here, or think of reprinting, and which probably are out of print in the country of their birth? Why must the American student or scholar pay twenty-five per cent. duty on any English book, however old, of which he may stand in need—mathematical, geographical, historical, metaphysical—which no American publisher ever dreams of republishing? What has the duty on paper, type, or printers' ink to do with the importation of such books, composing, we venture to say, nine-tenths of all the books imported by private order? How is Mr. Stedman, a poet and critic, injured in mind, body, or estate by such books being cheapened to his countrymen? How do his publishers suffer by books being cheapened which they never think of reprinting? Are they not, on the contrary, served by it? Is not all literature served by everything which diffuses knowledge and fosters the habit of reading?

A very amusing incident occurred in England, the other day, which suggests a possible explanation of some of the opposition on this side of the water to the free admission of foreign books, even the old and rare ones. There is an Act of Parliament which permits villages to set up free public libraries by a vote, we believe, of the ratepayers. The question came before the voters of Brentford, a bucolic town in Middlesex, and it was decided in the negative, under the influence of the argument, "What's the use of books?" and that if any one "wanted to read a book," he could "go out and get one for sixpence." Now, the idea which underlay this argument was clearly that one book, like one apple or banana, was as good as another, and that to a man who wanted a book it made no difference what book he got. Put into terms of political economy, this means that each book competes with every other, just as each potato competes with all other potatoes. We will not assert that Dr. Holmes and Mr. Stedman labor under this droll Brentford hallucination, but their petitions to Congress would certainly give an unscrupulous opponent an excuse for charging them with it. It is only on the theory that the sale of any book in particular prevents the sale of all other books, that a poet can be interested in making all books dear, even those which his own publisher does not and never would produce. No theory of the place of books in civilized society has ever placed them quite so low as this, or given the relation of an author to his work a character so purely mercantile.

It must not be supposed that in saying all this we are ignorant of or indifferent to the arguments in favor of compelling foreign authors to appear in the United States through American publishers as the condition of an American copyright. We think they are in the main strong. But they do not touch the question of taxing non-copyrighted or non-pirated books. Nor do they account for the fact that though no power on earth can prevent the American Congress from giving foreign authors publishing through an American house an American copyright, and thus both obeying the first law of morality and giving the people cheap books, it has never done so, and has never been severely pressed to do so; so that the position in which the American reader is now placed is such that he must either wait indefinitely to see whether a foreign book will be reprinted in this country, or be taxed one-fourth of its price if he presumes to import it.

SILVER DOLLARS.

There is no probability that Congress will reach a vote on any of the bills or resolutions pending in reference to the continued coinage of silver dollars. The coinage must, therefore, continue at the rate of at least two millions per month for ten months to come. The amount in the Treasury at the present time is about $98,000,000, and the amount on the 1st of January next will probably be $120,000,000. The issue of gold certificates has taken the place of that of silver certificates since the law of last year went into effect, so that we cannot expect any considerable purchase of silver dollars by the people to offset the Treasury's purchases of bullion. The two millions per month are therefore a dead investment and sheer waste of the national resources.

If there were any fixed time or amount at which to stop this insane proceeding, it would be possible to deal with the existing stock of dollars by abolishing small notes and leaving the vacuum thus created to be filled by silver. But while there is a limit to the demand for notes of denominations less than five dollars (somewhat less than $50,000,000 are in circulation), there is no limit to the production of silver dollars under the present Coinage Act. The law is an anomaly, unlike anything seen or heard of in tale or history. It runs counter to all experience and all principle. It violates the fundamental ideas of coinage and of money—not in the fact of making silver dollars legal tender, but in making more of them than are wanted. We do not, nor does any other nation, coin gold, or copper, or nickel, except when it is called for by the demands of trade. Nor do we issue greenbacks or banknotes upon the principles applied to silver. This metal, which, its friends tell us, has been so much persecuted and maltreated, is really the only thing going by the name of money which is singled out for special nursing. We have turned the Treasury into a hospital for its treatment, and levied taxes to the amount of $24,000,000 per annum for its comfortable support. Not even our sick harbors and rivers, our Cheesequakes creeks and Muskegon inlets, get so much of our tender care and hard-earned money.

Among all the clouds hanging over the national prosperity at the present time, crippling industry and deterring the investment of capital, nothing is so alarming to business men as the anomalous silver coinage. As nobody can see the end of it, and as nearly every investor thinks that it means mischief, without knowing exactly how or when, its possible evils are an ever-present terror to the commercial classes. Everybody who thinks at all perceives that we are dealing with silver upon utterly false principles. The silvermen themselves admit this when they demand that the coinage be put upon the same basis as that of gold. They acknowledge that it is no part of the Government's function to buy bullion, either silver or gold, and to coin it beyond the wants of the community. They are as ready as other people to see that we are violating an economic law which lies at the root of trade and industry. It is no wonder if those who differ from them in policy conclude that there must be some adequate punishment for the continued violation of that as of other laws.

It is known, also, that the gold reserve of the Treasury is falling while the stock of useless silver is rising. According to a carefully-prepared statement in the *Public* of February 8, the Treasury's reserve of gold has fallen $41,500,000 in the space of seventeen months. The silver coinage has been augmented $34,000,000 in the same time, or nearly as much as the gold reserve has decreased. The gold reserve being under the

control of the Secretary so long as he has a large surplus revenue—it being optional with him to redeem a greater or less amount of the public debt in a given time—there is no necessary connection between the two items of gold and silver. It would be possible for the stock of both metals to be increasing at the same time, instead of the one increasing and the other diminishing. But the fact remains that whatever silver we buy we pay for with gold, and that when we buy our monthly quota of bullion we have $2,000,000 less to be applied to the redemption of bonds and the stoppage of interest on the public debt. The operation of the Silver Coinage Act, therefore, in addition to its other mischiefs, prolongs the public debt unnecessarily. Moreover, it is not impossible that the reduction of taxes by the present Congress may leave the Government with a deficiency of revenue, in which case silver would accumulate at the expense of the gold reserve in spite of the Secretary.

This question is of more immediate importance than the tariff question, yet it has not received one hour's discussion in either branch of Congress during the present session. We say that it is of more immediate importance, because every day's delay brings us nearer the possible catastrophe of a change of monetary standards, or a conflict of standards, or some other tripping stone, which will probably suffice, when it is reached, to plunge all business into confusion and the industrial classes into dire distress. As every note of warning is drowned at Washington by the din and clangor of iron and steel, tin plates and broken crockery, we suggest to the commercial classes everywhere that they put their business, as far as possible, on the gold basis, by stamping, printing, or writing the word "gold" on every piece of paper they receive or execute. The banks of New York and Boston have done this already by resolution, and the banks elsewhere, National, State, and Savings, will do so in due time; they too will come in out of the rain before there is any great shower. Nearly all corporations and large money-lenders exercise this prudence, which cannot be too highly commended or too generally imitated.

THE STATE OF AFFAIRS IN RUSSIA.

A FORTNIGHT more, and Czar Alexander III. will have reigned two years. This is longer, perhaps, than friend or foe deemed probable on the evening of the terrible day when his father was torn to pieces by the bombs of Ryssakoff and his associates. His own hope seems to be reviving and a feeling of security growing up at the Court. The Imperial family are no longer hiding at Gatchina or Peterhof. The Czar rides, and occasionally walks, through the streets of St. Petersburg without a heavy escort or a hedge of extra police. He dares to visit a school, to appear at a theatre, and to spend a few hours at a state ball in the Winter Palace. The spectre of Nihilism has lost much of its terrors. The year now closing has witnessed but few murders by the hand of conspirators—the assassination of General Strelnikoff on the promenade in Odessa being the most striking case—and each act of revolutionary violence has been followed by the removal to Siberia of hundreds of convicted or suspected revolutionists. The Army and the peasantry, though not free from infection, can still be relied upon, and the Church is an instrument in the hands of the rulers. The nobility surrounding the Court is apparently full of ardent loyalty, the public press preaches fidelity, and the circulation of clandestine sheets has almost been suppressed. The most important sign of revived courage and confidence is the announcement, by the Imperial Manifesto of February 5, of the Czar's intention to be publicly crowned in his ancient capital, Moscow, "in May next."

It is true, a tone of almost lugubrious sadness pervades this very manifesto, in which the Czar tells how he ascended the throne in the midst of grief and horror; how, bowing before the judgment of God, he determined in his heart not to perform the sacred rite of coronation until the feelings excited by the great crime had had time to calm down; and that he is now ready to execute the will of God, receive, with the crown, the Holy Sacrament, and join with his people in fervent and humble prayer. More than that, there is an expression of uncertainty or fear in the words "in May next," unaccompanied as they are by a statement of the day chosen for the great national solemnity. Nor is there a word of cheer in the whole document. It contains no allusion to any achievement of the first two years of the reign, to the recovery of internal peace or prosperity, to happy auguries of the future. The fact is, there is absolutely nothing to boast of or to be thankful for in these two years, unless it is the mere survival of the monarch and the Empire. Nihilism has been partly disarmed, but not stifled. Discontent and alarm are still general. No liberal reform of any importance has been ventured upon. Not the least response has been made to the general demand of the enlightened classes for a constitutional régime. Reactionaries of the most pronounced type, such as Tolstoi and Pobiedonostzeff, hold the reins of power, and even such moderate liberals as Loris-Melikoff or Peter Shuvaloff are kept aloof. The press is muzzled as it never was under Alexander II. The peasantry are left a prey to extortion, want, and intemperance; the Treasury is depleted, the prisons are gorged. No conquest, no victory has been achieved abroad. Skobeleff, the popular hero, had to be rebuked, shortly before his death, for bold patriotic utterances which were distasteful to the suspicious German neighbor. The arrogance of England, in her settlement of Egyptian affairs, had to be borne without a loud protest.

While everything is stagnant or supine in the inner spheres, a change is perceptible in the doings and tendencies of Russian diplomacy abroad. Internally distracted and financially weakened; isolated by the girdle which the Austro-German alliance has drawn around her; provoked by the insolence of Great Britain; distressed by the impotence of the French Republic, her constantly-dreamed-of future ally (an impotence sealed for a time by the death of Gambetta)—Russia now openly manifests a determination to cultivate anew friendly relations with her neighbors, Austria and Germany, as she did in the time of Nicholas; to observe a peaceable *modus vivendi* between herself and the Curia of the Vatican, and indefinitely to postpone all further schemes of aggression in the Balkan Peninsula. The late journey of her Minister of Foreign Affairs, Giers, in the course of which he visited Rome and Vienna, was evidently undertaken for the sake of negotiations in this direction, and these could not have failed to be successful, as the Russian diplomatist was empowered to make concessions everywhere. The Curia has obtained concessions in regard to the treatment of the Catholic Church in the Polish provinces of the Czar, and Austria-Hungary—such are the indications at least—has been promised a neutral forbearance in respect of her doings in Bosnia-Herzegovina, and her dealings with Montenegro, Servia, and Rumania, including the vexed question of Danubian navigation superintendence. In return the Curia has undoubtedly promised to abstain from fomenting agitation in favor of the Polish nationality, and Austria-Hungary is said to have waived all objections to a union, at some future day, of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia. Possibly Russia has also been assured by the allied Courts of Vienna and Berlin of a friendly attitude in case complications in Turkistan and the Kulja territories should make her inclined to draw the sword there where England is most anxious to see her keep the peace. What tends to give color to such a supposition is the repeated announcement made of late in Russian papers that hostile outbreaks against the Russians were feared in Central Asia, and still more the strange accord with which the organs of Katkoff and Aksakoff, the leading Panslavic publicists and confidential friends of the present Government, have been recently engaged in demonstrating that German and Slav are not, and ought not to be, foes, after all. A new programme has been forced upon the Russian Government and its supporters by altered conditions within and abroad, and with it the Czar may go to the coronation at Moscow. It may read—Peace in Europe, advance in Asia; and Russian patriotism may interpret it as meaning defiance to England.

THE NOVEL OF TO-DAY.

A CURIOUS international literary discussion has been recently started by a very innocent remark of Mr. Howells, in the course of a magazine article, intended to convey the idea that the art of novel-making had made considerable progress since the days of Dickens and Thackeray. The discussion has branched out in all sorts of directions, and has furnished an opportunity for every kind of moral, including, of course, the perennial one of international sensitiveness; but one of the points brought up—the decline of the novel of "purpose," *i. e.*, the novel which aims at effecting the reformation of some social abuse, or redressing some wrong or injustice—deserves more attention than it has received. There is no doubt about the fact. Neither in England nor in America does any novelist of the first rank attempt to use the novel as a means of reform in public opinion, of stirring up enthusiasm or indignation on social subjects. There is one

living novelist, Mr. Charles Reade, who made a great reputation only a generation ago by novels in which such subjects as prison reform and private-asylum abuses played a great part, but even he has abandoned this sort of writing. In this country, what we may call the French view of literary art—*i. e.*, the view that a story is told for its own sake, and not for any ulterior purpose, or in order to teach any lesson—is steadily acted upon by Mr. James; and Mr. Howells, as we understand him, thinks Mr. James is right, and has consciously adopted it himself.

Changes of literary fashion are generally produced by a variety of causes, slowly affecting the structure of society from year to year, and he would be a very bold man who should undertake to explain in a few words why epic poems are no longer attempted, or why romantic writing is a thing of the past. But with regard to purpose in fiction, there are one or two points which suggest themselves as explanatory of the change that has taken place. One is, that the subjects in this generation which interest persons of a reforming turn of mind are subjects which hardly lend themselves to fiction. A novelist, to effect a reform, must fire the heart and imagination of his readers. Fifty years ago, when the world felt down-trodden and oppressed; when the heel of the tyrant was on the neck of man; when superstition and ignorance and bigotry made the lot of the lowly hard, and suffering and injustice common, the novelist had a fine field for enlisting the sympathies of his readers. The feeling against abuses of all kind was closely allied to the democratic movement which was sweeping over the world. In Dickens it is always the poor and ignorant who are wronged by the wealthy and powerful having the control of the laws in their hands, and a strong picture of this sort of tyranny will always fire the heart of the novel reader. In America the great novel of this sort, a generation ago, was 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.'

Since that time, however, the emancipation of the down-trodden and lowly has been, in most countries, pretty complete; they have been given all that they asked; and in England to a great extent, and in this country altogether, they have the Government itself in their hands. There is no tyrannical social system to which the novel reader can attribute abuses. The questions which have arisen in this country, while of equal importance, are not of the same value for purposes of fiction with those of an earlier day. You can fill a reader's mind with indignation at slavery, but it is difficult to imagine a novelist basing a successful story on the evils of a protective system as illustrated by the duty on steel blooms. Civil-service reform, biennial legislatures, the fee and salary question, codification, copyright, seats in the House for cabinet ministers—all these are important matters, but they are troublesome to use in fiction. Even the old subjects, like prison abuses, which involved the idea of wrong and tyranny, have assumed a new aspect, for all the abuses have been remedied in theory, and if they still go on in fact, it is not because of any tyranny or oppression anywhere in our social system, but because of other causes which do not lay a foundation for that sympathetic interest which was the capital on which novelists like Dickens, Reade, and Mrs. Stowe worked. The following newspaper explanation of the termination of the revolt at Sing Sing illustrates what we mean:

"Mr. Paddy Wynn, the ringleader in the serious revolt at Sing Sing, yesterday resigned that position, and the revolt came to an end, at least for the time being. We regret to add that Wynn quitted the bad eminence of ringleader not because a spasm of virtue had laid hold of him, but owing to the fact that his Ulster County friends and admirers had united in telegraphing him their confidence that he was shortly to be the recipient of a pardon."

No rising novelist, with these facts before him, would see his way clear to stirring up the community on the subject of Paddy's sufferings.

Besides all this, the ventilation the press now gives all abuses, as a matter of business, helps to take the wind out of the sails of the novelist with a "purpose." Fifty years ago the press was itself much more closely connected with the class which was interested in the perpetuation of abuses than it is now. It kept silent or threw cold water upon reform schemes. Now it is the reformers' regular means of agitation, and he must be a very feeble agitator who cannot get a hearing through it. It furnishes to reformers a more immediate and certain vehicle than the novel.

These causes help to draw off the reform fervor from the novel, and turn it into other channels. The novelist has, however, still left him just what he always had for his main materials, and it is apparently his idea that he can get along well enough with these.

SYMPTOMS OF IRISH FEELING TOWARD ENGLAND.

LONDON, February 5.

ENGLISH politicians have had too long an experience of Irish troubles to feel sanguine that a diminution of disorders in Ireland indicates any deep or permanent change in the sentiments of the people. Still, after the acute crisis of 1881 and the first half of 1882, the comparative tranquillity of the last six months has been welcomed as a cheering sign by all Ministerialists, and by moderate and sensible men of both parties. There has been a sensible decline in the returns of agrarian crimes over all the south and west of the island. There has been a general disposition to take advantage both of the Land Act and of the Arrears Act of last session. It is true that both measures are complained of as inadequate; still, under both, a good deal has been done and is being done which, by alleviating the distress of the peasantry, must tend to quiet their minds and remove some of the provocations to outrage. Finally, the impunity which crime had so largely and so long enjoyed has been broken down by the conviction of a number of murderers, and by the supposed discovery—one must say supposed, because the investigation is not yet complete—of the secret societies for assassination which have inspired so much terror in Ireland itself. If it should turn out, as is probable, that these societies are really very small, and not widely ramified among the people, there will be a further sense of relief.

All these features of the present situation, taken together, render it more encouraging than any we have seen since the formation of the Land League made agitation formidable; and it is satisfactory to note that such improvement as exists is not due to the exceptionally severe provisions of the Prevention of Crime Act of last session, for these provisions—such as that permitting the Lord Lieutenant to order a trial by judges instead of by a jury—have mostly been left unused. If things look more peaceful, it is partly because the administration of Ireland, and especially its police system, is being improved; because Lord Spencer has been more skilful in his dealings with the people than Mr. Forster, having had the benefit of Mr. Forster's experience; and most of all because the Land Act has really opened up to the peasantry a prospect of mending their condition, and given them a different idea of what may be expected from the English than they had heretofore entertained. More than half of the 88,000 applications made to the Land Courts have been disposed of, and nearly half of these by agreements out of court made by the parties when they saw the principles on which the Court was proceeding. More than 86,000 applications, involving 185,385 holdings, have been made under the Arrears Act, although it was at first represented as quite inadequate to the needs of the case.

These are cheering signs, on which Mr. Gladstone and his supporters have naturally laid much stress; but they are by no means the only facts to be regarded. Events are every now and then happening, or coming to light, which show how far we still are from anything like a reconciliation between the Irish Nationalists and the English nation. The sympathy which the populace of Dublin have repeatedly shown for persons charged with murders, or attempts to murder, is an almost graver sign than the existence of the secret societies which plot these murders, for they may consist of a mere handful of men. The language of the Nationalist leaders, such as Mr. Davitt and Mr. Healy, in their denunciations of England, is as vehement as ever before. And when an election occurs, the voters seize with avidity the opportunity of returning as members persons whose chief claim seems to lie in the bitterness of their hostility to the very Government which has been trying to conciliate Ireland by the Land Act. We have just had an instance of this at Mallow. Mallow is an insignificant place in the south of Ireland, with less than three hundred electors. It is ridiculous that such a place should have a member at all, and in any redistribution of seats it will of course disappear. But its three hundred voters are probably types of the voters in the Irish towns generally, and fairly represent the sentiments of their class. They have just rejected the new Solicitor-General for Ireland, and chosen against him, by a majority of nearly two to one, the editor of an extreme Nationalist paper, whom the Government have been prosecuting on the charge of sedition. This prosecution was his recommendation to the electors, and he made it such himself. With symptoms like this, it can hardly be doubted that if a general election were to take place now, the Nationalist party would come back to the House of Commons with twice its present strength, claiming far more effectually than it can do now to represent the Irish people. That is to say, the desire to be separated from England, to have as little as possible to do with her, is as strong as ever in Ireland, and is the expression, not so much of any serious plan for having an independent Irish Government, and thereby promoting the welfare of the people, as of a deep, fierce, almost unreasoning dislike of the English Government and England herself.

The English are only now beginning to realize the strength of this dislike. They have been kept so long from understanding it by a fact which makes its existence the stranger—the fact that the dislike is not reciprocal. This is not one of those cases of race hatred of which Europe had so many to show, such as the hatred of Pole and

Russian, of German and Slav. The English in England (who must be carefully distinguished from the Anglo-Irish or English Protestants settled in Ireland) have never really hated the Irish. Formerly, they didn't know enough about them to hate them; and of late years, since communication has become easier and vast numbers of Irish have settled in the English and Scotch cities, though there has been some bitterness against the new comers on the part of those humbler laborers with whom they competed for work, and whose wages they lowered, nothing like a general hostility has displayed itself. It is plain, however, that the Irish could not feel bitter toward England if England did not give them some cause. History alone will not quite account for the phenomenon. Even the behavior of the Anglo-Irish, their arrogance and tyranny, from the time of William the Third down to that of William the Fourth, when Protestant ascendancy began to be shaken, will not solve the problem, because these Anglo-Irish themselves—this very dominant caste which so long ruled Ireland by the aid of English power—is itself also full of bitterness against the English, and only sticks to them because it dislikes and fears the aboriginal Irishman, the Catholic Celt, even more. It is worth while, therefore, to ask what it is in the attitude of the ordinary Englishman, as well as of the English Government as a whole, which produces that peculiar irritation and resentment which so many Irishmen, of different ranks and creeds, feel toward England.

The first fact to recognize is that an Irishman —that is, a person born in Ireland, or of Irish parentage—has no substantial disadvantage to contend with in England. He is just as well received in society, is just as likely to make a good marriage, or get a good place, rise in the Army, or Navy, or civil service, succeed at the bar, or in medicine, or in the Church, or in trade, as if he were an Englishman. Not only is every career equally open to him, but success in it is just as easy for him. A vast number of Irishmen have attained eminence as men of letters, or men of science, or lawyers, or journalists, or soldiers, or scholars, or ecclesiastics; and I doubt if one of these could say that his nationality has stood in his way. Lord Cairns is an Irishman, and so are Generals Wolseley and Roberts, and the Bishop of Peterborough, and Mr. Charles Russell (one of the foremost leaders of our bar), and Mr. Stopford Brooke, perhaps the most eminent of London preachers; and no one thinks of their Hibernian origin as making, or having ever made, any difference to them. Only the other day a brilliant young Irishman was chosen Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh, against distinguished Scotchmen. It may have counted against him that he was not a Scotchman, but it would never have occurred to any elector to notice that he was an Irishman. Nor has an Irishman any social slights or mortifications to put up with. Sometimes one who wants to sneer at him may throw in a reference to his nationality by way of pointing the sneer, as Dr. Johnson used to do, and as some people in England still do, with Scotchmen; but that is all. Even among the poor, though the Irish element forms the lowest part of the population in most of the great towns, and competes with the native Englishman for the less skilled forms of labor, there is little animosity between the two races. An Irish laborer is never prevented from getting work, nor an Irish girl from finding a place, by the fact of his or her origin. People are accustomed to quote the phrase, "No Irish need apply," but it counts for very little in the humbler kinds of employment, and in the higher ones it does not count at all. So far, then, as the substance of things is concerned, the individual Irishman has full justice, and nothing to complain of.

When groups of Irishmen, or the Irish as a whole, are concerned, the case is somewhat different. The English have no sympathy, hardly any tolerance even, for any association of persons wishing to keep up what they think a foolish and worthless distinction from themselves. A person or a society or an institution which puts forward its Hibernian character is at once met by coolness or contempt. Why do they want to be Irish, the Englishman thinks, when they can be English? We are willing enough to take them and give them every chance, asking no questions, but recognizing them as members of our nation; and instead of that, they keep putting forward a nationality which has nothing to recommend it and much to discredit it. This attitude toward Irishmen (if the expression may be permitted) lets the Irish know what Englishmen really think of their country and their national type, and they resent it keenly, especially because they contrast it with the way in which Scotch nationality seems to them to be treated. Scotch nationality is, no doubt, a much more purely historical and sentimental matter. It has no political significance; it never causes any trouble between the two countries or even leads to Scotchmen forming organizations of their own for any political purposes. Still, it exists and even makes some noise. Scotchmen are fond of posing as Scotchmen and celebrating their national glories. The English, while sometimes a little amused, are not unsympathetic, and whenever they go to Scotland are profuse in their compliments to the Scotch nature and Scotch traditions. No doubt those traditions are a far pleasanter subject of contemplation than Irish history, which is a record of strife, misery, and injustice such as few other parts of Europe can present. But this does not make the contemptuous air of the English toward Irish nationality any less wounding. In this respect, therefore, the Irish may be said to have some ground for complaint. The grievance is largely sentimental; yet that does not prevent it from being a grievance. And it has the practical consequence of making the English less disposed to believe that self-government is feasible in Ireland: that the Irish, as Irish, could get on and manage local affairs in a reasonable way.

Perhaps the simplest way of putting the case is to say that the English habitually assume their type of civilization, character, manners, government, to be the best and highest type, and therefore that the Irish ought naturally to be glad to accept it and sink their own type in it. Hence, while the individual Irishman is welcomed to England, and allowed to gain all that an Englishman can, the idea of cultivating and maintaining something which is lower, and not in itself laudable, appears absurd and pernicious. It is not so much the manners of the English that are at fault (for they do not, now at any rate, behave with rudeness or insolence in Ireland), as their incapacity for understanding the Irish character, and that waywardness or chivalry (whichever it is to be called) which makes them cling to their nationality just because it is unfortunate. In fact, they take the Irish too seriously, and would perhaps succeed better if they were less anxious to succeed.

The Mallow election may be important, not only as a symptom of the undiminished irritation of the Nationalist party, but as an encouragement to its leaders to play up to these feelings by attacks on the Government in Parliament. There are, of course, always administrative mistakes and blunders, at least among subordinate officials, which may be made the ground of an attack. No one would be surprised if the first nights of the coming session were occupied by Irish debates. Y.

PROSPECTS OF THE PARLIAMENTARY SESSION.

LONDON, February 15, 1883.

THE session of Parliament begins to-day under unusual circumstances. A new code of procedure is going to be tried, and both the Tory and the Irish Oppositions have strong motives to make it fail, because they have opposed its most important provisions. The chief measures to be introduced by the Government are not, as has been usually the case, of a party character, and will not affect the distribution of political power or the interests of any particular classes in the community. They ought not, therefore, to excite party hostility and be met by any party opposition. But, in point of fact, such is the heat and bitterness which prevail, they will doubtless encounter much resistance—a resistance really directed rather at their authors than at themselves. Finally, the head of the Government—the omnipotent head of the dominant party as well as of the Government—will be absent.

A few days ago, it began to be rumored that Mr. Gladstone might not appear during the first few days, and now we are told that he may possibly remain in the milder air of the south of France till Easter, which this year falls earlier than usual. This is taken by some as a sign that he will soon retire from the Ministry altogether, his strength, it is said, having more seriously declined than was supposed, and the need for repose and quiet having become more imperious. But probably this is not the true interpretation. No doubt he has for some time past expressed a wish to abandon political strife and devote his last years to those studies and pursuits, literary and theological, in which his interest has never slackened. But his temporary absence, while still retaining the highest office, is rather a sign that this retirement will not take place immediately, but that he feels the importance to his party of his continuing to hold the leadership, even while he commits the work for a time to his lieutenants. In this he is certainly doing the best thing he can for that party's interests. There are elements of discord in the Liberal majority which might easily put it in peril but for the ardent loyalty which both the Centre and the Left of that majority feel for the Prime Minister, and the unlimited confidence which Liberals throughout the country place in him. Although Lord Hartington is greatly respected as an upright, straightforward, courageous man, who is decided, if not advanced, in his Liberalism, still neither his followers in Parliament nor the masses of Great Britain have learned to know him intimately, to realize and value and obey his personality in the way which gives a leader ascendancy, and makes a policy adopted because it is his. Hence it is clear gain that he should have the opportunity which Mr. Gladstone's absence will give him of directing his party in the House of Commons for some weeks, while it is even more a gain that Mr. Gladstone, by retaining the office of Prime Minister, should hold his party together and maintain the confidence of the nation—or rather of the majority which supports the present Ministry—in the Cabinet and its measures. If he finds that he can continue to reign without the necessity of trying his health by the severe toil of the House of Commons, he is all the more likely to consent to prolong his reign; and his colleagues have every motive of interest for desiring that he should do so, for he is the principal source of the unity and hopefulness of the party which supports them in the country.

Little of consequence has happened since the

close of last session, and nothing which alters the relative position of parties. Of the Liberals I have just spoken. Without being in a state of excitement or enthusiasm—for there has been no fighting lately to excite them, and no measures are announced calculated to raise enthusiasm—they are in as good a position as they have held any time since the general election of 1880, the causes of division still seeming to slumber, and the general sentiment being one of satisfaction with their leaders and themselves. The condition of the Tory party is just the reverse. They are dissatisfied with their leaders, querulous as regards the past, apprehensive of the future. They don't know whether to follow the recognized heads of the party—those members of Lord Beaconsfield's Government on whom after his death his authority naturally devolved—or the younger and more restless spirits who have distinguished themselves as active skirmishers during the last three sessions. Neither set of politicians has given to the world anything but criticisms; neither has produced any sensible effect upon opponents or upon the country at large. The Tories have a feeling not only that valuable opportunities of damaging the Liberal Government have been neglected or misused by the official leaders, but that these eminent persons, from Lord Salisbury and Sir Stafford Northcote downward, have nothing positive, nothing constructive, to offer; nothing which has any attraction for the bulk of the people. For a time they thought that as the Liberals had come into power in 1880 after a series of unsparing invectives directed against Lord Beaconsfield's foreign policy, so a similar series of attacks on Mr. Gladstone and the more radical of his colleagues would be followed by a similar effect in discrediting him. However, after the invectives had been tried, Mr. Gladstone was as strong as before. Next, they fancied that the Liberal victory had been due to local organization, and especially to what is called the "Birmingham Caucus System." Efforts were accordingly made to establish local Conservative associations everywhere, and by them to work a Conservative propaganda in the towns. Apparently, this experiment has had no better success, for the Conservative organization languishes, and the townspeople are apathetic. One or two bold men have tried to persuade the working classes that it is to Conservatism, not to Liberalism, that they must look for social reforms, and have started the cry of Tory Democracy. But this also has fallen flat, for the inventors have omitted to explain in what respect the working classes are specially interested in resisting the programme of the Radicals, and particularly in upholding the power of the House of Lords, the Established Church, the landed aristocracy, the county magistrates, and the Corporation of the City of London. Thus there is much despondency among Tories of the upper class, who feel their position all the stranger because the society in which they move is almost wholly Tory either in name or in fact. Three-fourths of the nobility are Tories, and the rest very moderate Liberals. The proportion is the same among the landowners generally; it is almost the same among professional men and capitalists; while it is very rare to find any Liberals at all among members of the military and naval service. Since all the people they meet and talk to are of their own way of thinking, and join in their lamentations over the approaching ruin of the country, while at the same time the Government continues to be in the hands of those whom they regard as firebrands, they get a painful sense of their own helplessness, and imagine the people—those electors who support this wicked Liberal Government—to be either more destructively minded, or more hopelessly deluded, than they had fancied in the golden days of Lord Beaconsfield. There never was a greater opening for another Lord Beaconsfield than at this moment. If some able and eloquent man were to appear in the Tory party, with a gift for exciting popular enthusiasm, and with a positive programme of policy to unfold, he might rapidly climb to the highest place in English politics and society. But none such appears.

It would be a mistake to argue from the present despondency of the Tories, or even from their want of first-rate men, that they are powerless as a party. Their despondency is due not so much to weakness as to impatience. If they will be content to wait, time will do more for them than they seem likely to do for themselves, and will bring them into office again, perhaps before three or four years have passed. Many forces are in their favor, and not the least of these is that disunion among the Liberals which may possibly follow Mr. Gladstone's retirement. There is, however, no sign that this session will do any more for them than the last, nor that their tactics will be in any respect different. They will probably devote themselves to minute criticisms of the Ministerial measures, seeking not so much to defeat them directly as to break them down in detail by striking out all the stronger provisions and by spending so much time on discussion that it will become impossible to get all of them carried. As has been already observed, these measures are not to be of a strictly party character. Every one who is not a member of the Corporation of the City of London admits that a new municipal government for London is wanted. The bill which the Ministry promises is clearly called for; but it will be a long and complex one, raising many questions on which opinion may well be divided, and it will therefore give many openings for hostile or obstructive criticism, while, as it affects London only, the rest of the country will not be keenly interested in its fate. Whether a bill for remodelling local government in the counties will be brought in, is not yet known—possibly the Cabinet has not yet decided. Such a bill is also greatly needed, but it will afford even ampler opportunities for criticism, and could hardly be passed in this session. Bankruptcy, and patents, and a criminal code, and compensation to agricultural tenants for unexhausted improvements, and the prevention of corrupt practices at elections, are all important matters, which deserve the mention they are to obtain in the Queen's Speech this afternoon. They ought to be dealt with quite apart from party prepossessions. But they are complicated questions, and it will require a rare and unusual degree of virtue in an Opposition to induce it to abstain from endeavoring to defeat some at least of these measures. The prospect before us is therefore one rather of a succession of skirmishes and petty engagements than of any pitched battles; and if this prospect is realized, the session will be unexciting, and may even be fruitful.

There remains, however, another source of danger and difficulty: I mean the Irish question, and the Irish Nationalist party. The perplexities of Irish administration are so numerous that the Government may at any moment make mistakes or find itself in perils which will give the Tory Opposition opportunities for arraigning it. The Nationalist Opposition, by the law of its own existence, is bound to condemn all the Government do. This is what their supporters in Ireland expect from them, and they like it done with at least as much vehemence of language as the rules of Parliament permit. No doubt Mr. Parnell and his friends will complain of much that has been recently done in Ireland. No doubt they will propose to amend the Land Act in several important particulars. No doubt they will introduce some scheme for popularizing local government in Ireland. The resistance which the Government is likely to offer to such proposals will be another ground of contention, but whether such contention will be as bitter as in the last two sessions, or lead to as much waste of time, will depend on the circumstances of the moment. The only prediction that can safely be made is that Irish affairs will continue to occupy, whether the Government like it or not, a considerable share of the attention of the House of Commons. But it is hardly likely that the Ministry will show their hand on the subject of Home Rule or local self-government any more fully than they have heretofore done. They will probably say that till they deal with local government in England they can't be expected to reorganize it in Ireland. There is already a division of opinion among Liberals on the subject; some holding that Ireland must have at least as much of the popular element in her local authorities as England is to have; others thinking that in the present state of Irish opinion this would be dangerous, as giving fresh outlets for political disaffection. The Ministry will doubtless wish to prevent so disagreeable a division from becoming more conspicuous than it now is, and this will be another reason for trying to postpone the topic till another session.

As regards foreign affairs, there are at present no menacing clouds on the horizon. Even those who are least comfortable about Egypt, and who wish that the Government had not undertaken any responsibility in connection with it, do not seem to see what else could have been than what Lord Dufferin has suggested. The behavior of France in the Pacific and in Madagascar has caused some irritation against her; but her internal dissensions may probably make her hold her hand in those regions, and give the irritation time to subside. The rest of Europe is quiet. So far as our foreign outlook is concerned, the Ministry have every facility for fixing their minds on domestic legislation and getting a good deal of it through in this session. If they fail to do so, their credit with the country will seriously suffer. Y.

LA BRUYÈRE.

PARIS, February 1, 1883.

THE collection which the bookseller Hachette has undertaken under the general title of "Les Grands Écrivains de la France" is a literary monument of the first importance. It gives the best text of our classical authors, and the commentaries are full of the most valuable information. M. Servois, who is now Director-General of the French Archives, undertook to publish the part devoted to La Bruyère; he spent several years in this work. His edition is now complete, and it is enough to say that from this moment we have a standard edition of the great moralist of the seventeenth century. The 'Characters' of La Bruyère will always have a chosen place in a good library, next to the 'Thoughts' of Pascal and to the 'Maxims' of La Rochefoucauld. If the 'Characters' is well known, so much cannot be said of its author; he conceals himself in his work, and does not, like Montaigne in his admirable Essays, make the reader familiar with him. "One knows nothing, or next to nothing, of the life of La Bruyère," said Sainte-Beuve in 1836. Since that date, a few discoveries have been made by MM. Walckenaer, Destailleur, Jal, Chatel, Édouard Fournier. M. Servois gives us a biographical essay on his author, which forms a thin volume annexed to his collection.

Jean de la Bruyère was born in Paris, in what is called the Cité, near Notre Dame and the Hôtel-Dieu. He was baptized, probably the day after his birth, on the 17th of August, 1645. His father was not a nobleman; he was controller-general of the *rentes* of the Hôtel de Ville (the *rentes* of the city of Paris). He styled himself in the notarial documents as "noble homme," but this was a proof of commonality, not of nobility. Some of his ancestors were ardent members of the Ligue. This is what De Thou says of the foundation of this famous association: "Principium Lutetiæ factum, ut primaria urbs ceteris toto regno exemplo suo præiret; ubi, instigantibus, inter alios, Petro Bruerio [La Bruyère] seplasiario ac Matthia ejus filio præfecti parisiensis assessore, huic fœderi certatim plerique, qui vita per infamiam in olea et lustris acta decoxerant, nomen dederunt" ('Thuani Historiarum,' liber lxiii.). The elder La Bruyère, mentioned by De Thou, became a member of the "Conseil des Seize"; his name is found among the signers of many letters addressed to the Pope or to the King of Spain. The two La Bruyères of the Ligue are chargeable with complicity in the events of November 15, 1591, on which day Brisson, the first president of the Chamber, and two Councillors were hung. The meetings of the Sixteen which preceded the murder took place in their house. Their importance ended with the power of the Sixteen; they became exiles, and took refuge at Antwerp or at Brussels, where Mathias published in 1603 a 'Rosary of the Virgin Mary.' He was suspected of having taken part in various plots against the life of Henri IV. From Brussels Mathias went to Naples, where we lose trace of him.

Guillaume de La Bruyère, the grandfather of the moralist, was not very proud of his family. He was the modest secretary of the Bishop of Paris. He waited a long time before he bought the place of cabinet secretary to the King. He left two sons and a daughter. Louis, one of the sons, married the daughter of a *procureur* at Châtelet, and had for his eldest son the author of the 'Characters.' He was himself, as I have said, controller-general of the *rentes* of the Hôtel de Ville; he was not rich, and, with the dower of his wife, had only a capital of 12,000 francs; with the interest of this sum and his salary he had to educate eight children. Fortunately, his brother John, who was in better circumstances, lived with him, and helped him to keep house. We don't know what John's profession was; M. Servois suspects that he was a contractor in some *ferme* of the state. It is probable that La Bruyère never left Paris during his youth. At the age of twenty he passed his examinations in law before the University of Orleans (which university, with that of Poitiers, could then alone teach the civil law). His thesis was entitled "De Tutelis et Donationibus." He was admitted, and returned immediately to his home in the Rue Grenier Saint-Lazare.

He lost his father in 1666, and his uncle four years afterward. This uncle had more than 100,000 livres—a great sum for the time. He used silver at table, not pewter; he kept a coach. He lett the greater part of his fortune to his brother's children. La Bruyère found himself in possession for several years of his uncle's carriage and horses. His second brother, Louis, four years younger than himself, took the paternal office of receiver of *rentes*, and married, in 1682, a distant relation of Boileau. The two brothers continued to live together. La Bruyère had become a lawyer, but he had no success at the bar; he was too shy, too meditative, too full of perplexities. After eight years at the bar in the Parlement of Paris, in 1693 he became treasurer-general of France at the financial bureau of the *généralité* of Caen. Having taken the oath at Caen, after the usual fashion, he returned to Paris, and never went back to the bureau. The permission to remain in Paris was granted to whoever had a court office. Racine was a treasurer like La Bruyère, but never discharged the duties of the office. It is not known upon what pretext La Bruyère could remain absent from Caen.

The title of treasurer, which he held for twelve years, and which changed nothing in the routine of his life, had made him, from a bourgeois of Paris, an *écuyer*, a nobleman. He lived like a philosopher, with his books, in the midst of his family. For reasons which are unknown to us, he renounced his independence in 1684, and took a position among the professors who had to finish the education of the grandson of the great Condé. Bossuet was generally consulted as to the choice of these professors, and it was under his auspices that La Bruyère entered the house of "Monsieur le Prince," as he was always called.

The young Duke of Bourbon, his pupil, had just finished his second year of philosophy at the College of Clermont (which soon afterward was called Collége Louis-le-Grand). He had been brought up by the father Jesuits; the Jesuits had also educated his father at Namur, his grandfather at Bourges. The young Prince was somewhat spoiled by the flattery of his masters; he is represented in some confidential letters of his governor to his father as despotic, "quarrelsome, violent, insolent toward his inferiors, extremely childish and frivolous." The education of the college had not been good for him. La Bruyère entered on his new functions on the 15th of August, 1684, with a salary of 1,500 livres a year. His duty was to teach history, geography, and French institutions; the mathematician Sauveur was to teach geometry and fortification. The young Prince was sometimes with his father, who was called Monsieur le Duc, and sometimes with his grandfather, Condé, at Chantilly. The young Prince was himself called the Duc de Bourbon, and was presented at court. He was to have his own household, but Louis XIV., who regulated all such details, gave him a *premier écuyer*, M. de Saintrailles, colonel of the Enghien regiment, thus saving a governor, a first gentleman of the chamber, and a captain of Guards. Louis XIV. also wished to know the names and conditions of all the preceptors. Two Jesuits, by the desire of Condé, remained with the two lay preceptors, Fathers Alleaume and Du Rosel.

Condé took a great interest in the studies of his grandson, and the preceptors wrote constantly to him. La Bruyère tells him what his method is in two lines: "I will always see that he takes from our studies what is the least *épineux* [thorny], and what is most suitable to the great prince." The correspondence of La Bruyère with Condé leaves, however, distinctly the impression that the professor was tired of the inattention and levity of the pupil. Condé does his best—he tries to help the conscientious master; but La Bruyère, having not much satisfaction in his pupil, found no consolation in the frivolous and worldly company in which he had to live. Knowing his own merit, a bourgeois of yesterday, he had to deal with the father of his pupil, who was the most fantastic and terrible of men. The violence of the Condés, which no longer found a noble employment on the battlefield, was now spent in miserable domestic affairs and on innocent people like the timid La Bruyère. La Bruyère did not know how to do things by halves; he had a morbid conscientiousness; he fatigued and disgusted his pupil with his lessons. Too timid in the routine of life, La Bruyère was not timid enough in his teaching. He was bold enough to read the 'Principles' of Descartes to the young Prince, and to make comments on a book which was condemned by the Jesuits. He did it at Versailles, under the eyes of the two Jesuits. To be sure, he had the great Condé on his side, as Condé was a philosopher; he had also Bossuet, who heard his commentaries on Descartes' philosophy with pleasure.

The last letter which has been preserved of La Bruyère's to Condé bears the date of the 4th of July, 1686. Condé died on the 11th of December. His death changed everything, and put an end to the mission of La Bruyère. His pupil became in his turn Monsieur le Duc, while the father of his pupil became Monsieur le Prince. La Bruyère remained, however, in the household, in the quality of a man of letters, with a pension of 1,000 livres. He was styled "gentleman of M. le Duc." He was probably a librarian, and at times a secretary. He certainly must have regretted deeply the great Condé. He shows in his 'Characters' the most sincere admiration for the hero of Rocroi; but his new masters had none of the qualities of Condé. Saint-Simon has left their portraits, and it is impossible that some of the traits of the 'Characters' should not have been inspired by sentiments which were not much different from those of Saint-Simon.

We must repeat here what Saint-Simon says of La Bruyère himself: "The public has lost (in 1696) a man illustrious by his *esprit*, by his style, and by his knowledge of men—I mean La Bruyère, who died at Versailles of apoplexy, after having surpassed Theophrastus, who first was his master, and having depicted the men of our time in his new 'Characters,' which have an inimitable manner. He was, besides, a very honest man, good company, simple, without any pedantry, and very disinterested." The Abbé d'Olivet, in his 'Memoirs,' speaks of him as a philosopher who was content to live quietly with his friends and his books, who chose them both well, who feared every kind of ambition, even the ambition of showing too much *esprit*. If we judge him by the 'Characters' alone, we find not so much severity in the man; we see him at times very passionate, full of a concentrated and deep passion, angry with the men who surround him, disgusted with their follies, their vices, their vanity. His characters are all portraits, it can be safely asserted, and in some cases it can be proved. What a gallery! what a terrible and eloquent protest against a whole generation of men. There is more life in Saint-Simon; more sadness in La Bruyère. Saint-Simon is more dramatic; he carries us with him into the very midst of events and of men. With La Bruyère we see things from above, and we perceive the great currents which lead a country and an age to its ruin.

Correspondence.

ETHAN ALLEN'S BIRTH-YEAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your comments last week on Mr. Leslie Stephens's tentative list of names for his new "Dictionary of National Biography," you say he has "adopted 1742 as Ethan Allen's birth-year, but 1737 and 1739 are given by other authorities." According to the town records of Litchfield, Conn., his birthplace, Ethan, son of Joseph and Mary (Baker) Allen, was born January 10, 1737-38. He was the eldest child of his parents, who removed to Cornwall, Conn., when he was about two years old.

JOHN D. CHAMPLIN, JR.

NEW YORK, February 21, 1883.

POPULAR SCIENCE IN THE COUNTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Those who are confined to the close quarters of the city, and have to depend for their scientific instruction and entertainment on the limited range afforded by occasional lectures from such men as Professor Marsh or Professor Tyndall, may fail to realize the liberal opportunities of some of our Western localities. Dr. ——, for example, is giving a series of Sunday evening discourses from his pulpit in Akron, Ohio, one of which is reported in the Akron *Daily Beacon* of February 14. (We cannot answer for the correctness of the report.) His subject was "The Creation," and his laudable purpose seems to have been to "justify the ways of" Moses "to man." If the newspaper report is to be trusted, the following is the substance of a part of this "most interesting discourse":

"In that period, science has shown, great land and sea whales, with monstrous serpents and smaller animals, as well as winged, web-footed fowls filled the earth, air, and seas. Skeletons of animals and monsters are in the great museums of the world, showing the huge and bulky creatures of that age. They roamed over the earth and ploughed through the seas, tyrants and kings of all the earth. It was shown that at St. Louis there is one of those ancient specimens, so large that a man can stand erect and walk down the throat of the animal into its stomach, which is as large as a common bedroom. Other specimens were referred to, 120 feet long. These animals had great mouths, and a full-sized ox would make but a single bite. It was shown that these creatures were so abundant that from their fat and substance have come the great oil deposits of the earth, as the vegetable growth formed the vast coal beds. God's goodness was shown in providing in that far-off age for the people of to-day. What a sight it would be to-day to see animals large as a steamboat roaming over the earth, browsing off the tops of the highest trees! If such creatures lived—and science shows they did—it is no wonder that the earth is full of crude, strong-smelling fat."

No wonder, indeed! The only room for surprise is in the fact that so little now remains of these disagreeable and malodorous remains. Is there not, we would timidly inquire of the Rev. Dr.—may there not be at least—something providential in that? What if these terrific animals had been still more abundant, and, finding plenty of "full-sized oxen" for their occasional "single bites," had deposited their "Oriental fragrancy" in the strata beneath every rural gentleman's garden? How truly painful it would have been to any sensitive mind to purchase some modest patch of ground for a suburban residence, and on digging the cellar to come plump into the "crude and strong-smelling" reminiscences of a former occupant of the size of a Cunarder! Most providential it is, indeed, that we are spared this painful experience, unless it may occasionally occur in Akron, Ohio.

The reporter goes on to promise the public that "two more Sundays will be given to the earth and its creatures before Adam came and found all complete. It will well pay the time spent to hear the story of Moses and the scientific facts laid alongside and compared."

"At the conclusion of the Doctor's discourse," we are gratified but not surprised to learn, "that grand chorus from 'The Creation,' 'The Heavens are Telling the Glory of God,' was rendered with thrilling and magnificent effect."

E. R. S.

HARVARD COLLEGE AND DR. BUTLER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the dinner of the Harvard Club of New York, on the 21st inst., frequent reference was made to the ludicrous position in which the authorities of the University would be placed in being called upon to confer the degree of LL.D. upon the present Governor of Massachusetts. Whether there is a rule or custom requiring such a step on the part of these learned men or not, I do not know; but it is quite certain that it will not be by any means the first time they have occupied just such a position in the matter of conferring this degree. Again and again they have bestowed it on men whose only possible qualification for it was their high official station, at which they had arrived in many cases by the vicious methods in use among machine politicians, and which they filled with little or no ability or merit.

Does this high-sounding degree, then, mean anything? If so, what? Does it imply learning, intellectual power, or statesmanship? Or is it simply the tribute which Harvard University pays to "the butcher, the baker, the candlestick-maker" who happens also to be a smart and successful politician? What sort of civil-service reform is the University teaching? "Get yourself elected President or Governor, no matter how—and no matter how you perform the duties of your office—and we will crown your successful efforts with our highest degree."

Looking at the long line of learned Doctors created within the last few years, the men of Harvard may rest assured that the Governor of Massachusetts will play his part in their annual farce quite as respectably as most of those who have heretofore been invested with this great honor. Perhaps he may say (because, as we all know, he is a humorous man) that Harvard University has discovered a very good way of making really great men "small by degrees," if not "beautifully less."

Anti-Butler (Harvard, '63).

Lowell, Feb. 26, 1883.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For a number of years I have been a reader of the *Nation*. It and the *State*, of Richmond, Va., are the only papers which I now see regularly. I have just read the issue of the 18th of January of the *Nation*; the *State* of the 1st instant had been read previously. In this number of the *Nation* so much has been said, and well said, by the correspondents as to the general accuracy of the statements made by the *Nation* in reference to social homicide in the South, and the causes which have produced and still perpetuate the present unfortunate state of affairs, and by the *Nation* itself as to the means which should be used to put a stop to it, that I shall not attempt to improve upon the one, nor further confirm the other; but only beg to offer a word of encouragement in this disagreeable effort to rid our system of the lead and iron, the probing for which is naturally so painful to the patient.

While not ready to insulate the *Nation* upon a pedestal of integrity quite so dangerously lofty as "A South Carolinian," nor to do obeisance before it with a reverence quite so profound, still I will say (and I believe I am giving expression to the opinion of the *majority* of "decent people" in the South—not simply "the best men"—in saying it, although the *Nation* may not think so) that I have always felt truly grateful to the *Nation* for the position it has taken in reference to "troops," "repudiation," and "social homicide," or against Grant, Mahone, and the *State*. I say sincerely, I thank thee that thou art not as other men are *quoad hoc*, or these poor publicans; and I wish the publicans a speedy repentance.

The fathers of the past generation could well say to their sons, when leaving home, "Don't make yourself a fool because you are from Virginia"; but repudiation and social homicide are fast teaching the sons to say, "Don't tell anybody you are from Virginia." One does not feel specially prone to brag, abroad, of being a fellow-countryman of "Boss Billy," or of the chivalrous participants in "affairs" and defenders of the "knife-and-pistol" solution of petty difficulties. There are two Virginians in this town, at any rate, who keep exceeding dark on that topic just now.

Although I am a friend of the *State*, and "the stock of that shotgun sticking out" had been observed before you called attention to it, still, being at a safe distance, and knowing it to be the *State's* old shotgun, and harmless to riddle burgers or worse knaves than I am, I shall sign my name to this and take the risk, abuse and all.—Yours truly, another renegade,

T. R. Sampson.

Athens, Greece, Feb. 6, 1883.

THE "NATURAL METHOD" OF TEACHING LATIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The correspondence that has appeared in your paper on the subject of the so-called "Natural Method of Teaching Latin" has suggested to me to ask for space to point out what appears to me to be the fallacy which underlies the arguments of its advocates.

This method aims at teaching a foreign language, not mediately, through the words and phrases of the learner's native tongue, but by producing, if possible, an immediate and direct association between the foreign word or expression and the thing signified by it. In other words, it aims at repeating the natural process by which the learner originally acquired a knowledge of his native tongue; and this is its great merit in the eyes of its admirers. But these admirers lose sight of the very important difference which distinguishes the mental state of a child when he first begins to learn his native language, from the mental state in which he afterward approaches the acquisition of a foreign language—a difference which constitutes so essential an alteration in the conditions under which nature originally worked as to render a repetition of that process impossible.

When the child begins to pick up his own language, his mind is entirely unoccupied by any verbal symbols whatever, and, impelled by the powerful instinct of association implanted in him by nature, he rapidly and with the greatest ease catches them up from his playmates and guardians, and learns to associate the proper symbols with objects around him. But this state of mind is possible only once in the course of his linguistic experience. Very different is the state of his mind when he comes to learn a foreign language. It is already preoccupied with an extensive scheme of verbal signs, linked by almost indissoluble bonds of the strongest association with the objects and events that present themselves in his daily experience, and it has become impossible for him to begin the task of associating a new set of signs with those objects without the old signs constantly thrusting themselves in between the new signs and the objects they stand for, whether he wish it or not. In other words, the natural instinct now is to associate the new signs directly with the old and familiar signs, and only indirectly with the things signified. The usual method, therefore, of teaching a foreign language by means of and with constant reference to one's native tongue, has a juster claim to be called the "Natural Method" than the method usually so called; and it is the method which has been followed by the most successful teachers of Latin from the days of old Roger Ascham, who, when recommending the master to begin his instructions with the easier letters of Cicero, writes: "First,

let him teache the childe, cherefullie and plainlie, the cause and matter of the letter; then let him construe it into Englishe, so oft, as the childe may easilie carie awaie the understanding of it."

That Latin should be taught by means of, and with constant reference to, one's native English, recommends itself further to our judgment when we consider that in teaching it the chief end aimed at is the acquisition by the pupil of the power of translating accurately and at sight into idiomatic English a passage from a Latin classic, and the further power of rendering into correct and not inelegant Latin a passage from an English classic. Any young man who is master of these accomplishments may congratulate himself on the good use he must have made of a long course of training at the hands of judicious teachers. If he has not acquired the accomplishment of being able to converse in Latin, he can console himself with the very just reflection that to be able to converse in a dead language is, after all, an accomplishment more curious than useful, and that the performance of the best modern adepts in Latin conversation would, it is to be feared, sound sad jargon to the ears of a Terence.

E. Hawksley Rhodes.

11 Norfolk Road, London, Feb. 8, 1883.

ARCHÆOLOGY IN GREECE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, "W. J. S.," is undoubtedly right, from a strictly topographical point of view, when he writes that stone-houses are now being built on the northern slopes of the Acropolis; but as yet there is no solid building far enough up on the slopes to interfere with any ancient remains that may exist connected with the Acropolis as such, or to cover any antiquities that may have been thrown down from above. It is safe to say that the slopes of the Acropolis, so far as they have been encroached upon, present no greater interest than any other central portion of the site of ancient Athens.

I am by no means of opinion that such laws relating to the exportation of antiquities as those of Greece are advisable everywhere, or indeed permanently in Greece. Their justification there is that every great civilized country except the United States is already in possession of important remains of Greek art, and that had matters been left to take their course (precisely on account of the feebleness of Greek resources alluded to by "W. J. S.") there would soon have been remains of Greek antiquity everywhere except in Greece. One may well deplore the restriction as a hindrance to the advance of archæology; but it is difficult not to sympathize with the motive, which is most unjustly stigmatized by "W. J. S." as "the showman's feeling," and to contrast it with the American system of taxing the importation of antiquities and works of art. While all well-informed persons must concur in "W. J. S.'s" views regarding the inestimable profit to Greece and to the world of the transportation to England of the Parthenon marbles at the time when Lord Elgin took them, I cannot but think that now, in these days of easy and rapid communication, those precious heirlooms of Athens would be more useful were they taken from their dingy quarters in London and restored to the Acropolis. They have performed their function of a chief factor in opening the eyes of the world to the preëminence of ancient Greece; and the incalculable gain to civilization thus acquired is the only justification—and although unanticipated, it is ample justification—of the ruthless despoiling of the Parthenon.

Regarding corrupt and inefficient enforcement of any law there can be but one opinion among honorable men the world over. But opposition to temporary and honest enforcement by Greece of her law forbidding the exportation of those memorials of her glorious past that are left to her, must commend itself chiefly to professional dealers in antiquities.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

A Member of the Archæological Society of Athens.

New York, February 24, 1883.

Notes.

The eleventh of Mr. W. M. Griswold's Q. P. Indexes (Bangor, Maine) is 'A General Index to the *Contemporary Review*, the *Fortnightly Review*, and the *Nineteenth Century*,' filling thirty-six pages, and covering the years 1865–82. It is needless to enlarge upon the merits of this key (by author and subject) to the choicest periodical literature for the term indicated. Let it not be forgotten, however, that it is one of a series, and that its value is cumulative, so to speak. Mr. Griswold, placing at the end some justly laudatory remarks on his labors from German sources, reports in a footnote the singular refusal of Mr. F. A. Brockhaus to send him a free copy of *Unsere Zeit* for the purpose of being (gratuitously) indexed. This is indeed shortsighted.

Dr. Holmes propitiates the readers of the new edition of his 'Professor at the Breakfast-Table' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) by referring to the changes which twenty-five years have made in standards and opinions—instancing the utmost speed of the trotting-horse, and the degree of heresy in a warm Unitarian like himself, of which the one has been heightened and the other significantly lowered. He therefore hopes that "what was once an irritant may now act as an anodyne." The same publishers have brought out a 'Lowell Birthday-Book,' in which there are numerous happy adjustments of selections to the characters whose birthdays are noted on the opposite page, and, it is superfluous to add, a delightful store of wit and wisdom in verse and prose.

"Primers for the People," edited by Eugene L. Didier, and issued by the People's Publishing Co., Baltimore, promise a great deal for a little money—*e. g.*, in No. 6, "A Primer of Criticism," as to certain American writers—"Pretentious mediocrity exposed to the sunlight of truth."

Mr. Francis Parkman's pamphlet, 'Some of the Reasons against Woman-Suffrage,' has been reprinted "at the request of an association of women" in and about Boston.

Oliver & Jenkins, New York, publishers of the *Wheel*, will begin next month an illustrated weekly chronicle called the *Amateur Athlete*, similar in size and general appearance to the periodical already mentioned.

Circulars relative to the collection and distribution of astronomical intelligence have been sent out by the Harvard College Observatory since it was made the American centre of such collection and distribution in an international scheme—Kiel being the corresponding European centre. Mr. John Ritchie, jr., has been placed in charge of this service. Observatories and private individuals are admitted to the benefits of the special circulars, or of telegrams at their own expense.

We have received the slip of dates, subjects, and reference lists accompanying the Hopkins Hall lectures of Prof. James A. Harrison, at Baltimore, on Anglo-Saxon Poetry, which terminate to-morrow. Students anywhere would find it a useful guide to texts and general treatises.

In the February *Bibliographer* (J. W. Bouton), Mr. Edward Solly reprints Wagstaffe's list of the various editions of the 'Eikon Basilike,' and indicates some not contained in it, with a view to as perfect an enumeration as possible and a determination of the order. Even the first edition cannot be identified with certainty.

The London *Times* of February 12 gives a tolerably full account of the Ashburnham MSS. which have been offered *en bloc* to the British Museum, and the purchase of which is now under consideration. The collection is in its subdivisions Italian, French, and English, mainly; the first consisting of the so-called Libri Collection, with its Pentateuch codex of the seventh century. The English, or Stowe Collection, embraces a volume containing more than forty Anglo-Saxon charters, from the close of the seventh century to the Conquest; ten volumes of "Hanoverian Papers" (the correspondence of the Electress Sophia and her son, afterward George I.); the letters and papers of Arthur Capel, Earl of Essex, Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland under Charles II.; the correspondence of various English ambassadors in the reigns of Elizabeth, James I., Charles II., and James II., William and Mary, etc.; the original diary of Henry Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, for the year 1688, etc. In respect to the bindings and the illuminations, the Ashburnham MSS. are almost as remarkable as for their contents. The schools of England, France, Germany, Flanders, and Italy are represented.

"A Librarian" asks us to call attention to what is in effect a deception practised on the reading public, and on buyers generally, in the republication, *literatim et punctuatim* (without the slightest hint of its being the same book), under the title of 'A Jolly Summer,' with the imprint of 1883, of a book published in 1880 under the title of 'College Tramps; or, Adventures of a Party of Yale Students in Europe.'

In the *American Naturalist* for March, Prof. V. M. Spalding has a suggestive article on "'The Plains' of Michigan," meaning the tracts sometimes called "the barrens" in the northern central portion of the lower peninsula of Michigan. They lie in the pine belt, and have small capacities for agriculture, and the writer urges their improvement by the State for tree culture. Circumstances favor their control by the State.

With the March number the new eclectic magazine published at Buffalo, the *Modern Age*, has been enlarged to sixty-four pages. Its aim is to devote more attention to foreign Continental literature than is done by other publications of its kind, and a large proportion of the articles are therefore translations from French and German papers, carefully and neatly done, as far as we have examined them. The March number is very attractive, and contains hardly anything not worth reading. The low price of the magazine is also in its favor.

The *Belletristisches-Journal* of this city has issued as a premium for the subscribers to the thirty-second volume a handsome and finely-printed steel portrait of Schiller, as a companion piece to the Lessing, Wagner, and Liszt issued in previous years. The Schiller portrait was engraved after the Dannecker bust by A. Krausse, of Leipzig. This paper, by the way, unites some of the best features of German and American journalism. It contains novels and essays by leading German writers, and at the same time covers the fields of American politics, literature, science, and art. The partly humorous account of New York city life from week to week is one of its most readable departments. The editor's letters from the Far West, which began to be printed last summer, would, in book form, make a valuable addition to American tourists' literature.

We have before referred to the reports of the Norwegian "North Atlantic Expedition" on the *Voringen*, directed by Prof. H. Mohn. The last instalment, No. 8 of the Zoölogy, contains the first part of Herman Friele's valuable report on the mollusks, embracing the Buccinidæ. This forms a careful monograph of the members of the group native to the northern portion of the North Atlantic, occupying thirty-five quarto pages in parallel columns of Norwegian and English, and illustrated by six excellent plates and a map. Illustrations of the wonderful variability of these arctic forms, perhaps partly due to hybridization, are accumulated, together with a host of valuable and important biographical data on the species, of which several are described as new.

Parts 66–69 of 'Brehm's Thierleben' (chromo edition; B. Westermann & Co.) deals with rodents chiefly. The colored representation of the porcupine must be highly praised as lifelike. Among the capital wood-engravings is one of the South American bizcacha, not often represented.

No. 102 of the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society (New York: L. W. Schmidt) contains Dr. Koner's customary exhaustive classification of the geographical literature of the year 1882. The monthly *Verhandlungen* are as usual full of the latest intelligence from the field of exploration.

In No. 2 of the Naples *Esplorazione*, F. Borsari has an historical introduction to what promises to be an extended discussion of the prime meridian and universal time reckoning.

M. Em. Terquem, 15 Boulevard St.-Martin, Paris, began last month the publication by subscription of a 'Bibliographie des Bibliographies,' by M. Léon Vallée, of the National Library. The first part will be an author-catalogue, with complete titles, checked where possible by the works themselves at the compiler's command. The second part is arranged by subjects, with references from the abridged titles to the fuller. The edition will be small; the size of the book, 900 pages 8vo; and the price, 20 francs.

The Brothers Henninger, Heilbronn, Würtemberg, have in press 'Κρυπτάδια: recueil de documents pour servir à l'étude des traditions populaires.'

A farewell dinner was given on February 1 to the Danish author, George Brandes, at Berlin, where he has lived for five years, having left his country as a victim of political persecution. Among the guests and speakers were Rodenberg, Scherer, Spielhagen, Hopfen, Lindau, Gneist, Franzos, Friedrich Kapp, and many other men of letters. A poem by Paul Heyse on Brandes was also read.

In No. 2 of Vol. v. of the *American Journal of Mathematics*, Prof. Sylvester concludes his article—perhaps it would be more proper to say his treatise—"On Subinvariants; *i. e.*, Semi-Invariants to Binary Quantics of an Unlimited Order." Prof. Arthur Cayley, the great English mathematician, contributes "A Memoir on the Abelian and Theta Functions," being a revision and extension of the course of lectures which he delivered last year at the Johns Hopkins University. The scientific and personal relations of Profs. Sylvester and Cayley have been so intimate, and have extended over so long a period, they have so often worked on a subject "jointly and severally," that we presume in many cases it would be impossible for themselves to disentangle and properly assign to each the credit of many of their contributions to science. The mathematical world have come to regard them as a pair of intellectual twin brothers. Mr. W. E. Story finishes the number with a memoir "On the Non-Euclidean Geometry," more especially in its relations to spherical trigonometry. He had before treated the subject in its relations to plane trigonometry in Vol. iv. (pp. 332–335) of the *Journal*. To all except professional mathematicians, and those, too, of a high order, any attempt to convey a notion of the subjects and objects of these papers would be simply unintelligible. Doubtless they will be read by nearly every one of that not very large class whose mathematical studies have been sufficiently extensive to understand them.

—The late Dr. Leonard Bacon, of New Haven, in the early days of the slavery agitation, proposed to solve the problem through the "Colonization Society," which aimed to take the free and emancipated blacks clean out of the country. He was unable, however, to witness the success of this experiment, because the Society was killed or reduced to insignificance by a tract written by William Lloyd Garrison, and which made much stir at the time, entitled "Thoughts on Colonization." Still, Dr. Bacon did not relinquish the hope of having slavery dealt with in his own way. He attempted, by an organization which fell still-born, to withdraw the support of anti-slavery men from the genuine abolition societies. He even went so far as to oppose the formation of a political party antagonistic to slavery, which he early foresaw and deprecated as an evil, and he joined that party only at the eleventh hour. In fact, his share in the anti-slavery controversy was a portion of his career which we should think his friends or biographers would not care to recall, or at all events dwell upon with any emphasis. We have, therefore, been somewhat surprised to see it brought up in an article, by one of his sons, in the March *Century*, entitled "A Good Fight Ended." It is the more singular because it describes the "fight" as having been directed primarily rather against "the so-called abolitionists than against the advocates of slavery," and suggests that it nevertheless had the curious result of leading to the Emancipation Proclamation, thus furnishing a new key to Alcott's untitled lines—

> "*Thy* trenchant and emancipating pen
> The patriot Lincoln snatched with steady hand,
> Writing his name and *thine* on parchment white."

The object of precipitating this controversy is not apparent, unless the article is to be taken as a prospectus or foretaste of the family Memoir now in preparation. If it be this, we shall read with less interest than we now expect to do the chapters narrating Dr. Bacon's part in the good fight at Canterbury, on one side of which was Prudence Crandall and her friends; and at New Haven, over the Manual Labor School for blacks, on one side of which were Simeon Jocelyn and Arthur Tappan.

— Mr. C. F. Holder, in *Lippincott's*, gives an entertaining account of sword-fishing "down East," in which he introduces a sword-fishing captain, whose manner of conversation is too racy and natural to suggest literary invention. Captain Sam's description of his early innocence and inexperience, when he was a "regular high-tide clam-digger, always a' lookin' fur the wind to lew'ard and the like," his confidential admission, "when I ain't a' talking you'll know I'm sick," and his account of his prudent father's permitting him to take the family schooner and go sword-fishing, because she was "insured and hogged," and many other little touches, will vividly recall to readers who have any knowledge of the New England coast the local skipper. Mr. Alfred M. Williams writes entertainingly on the subject of the Cherokees, who, it seems, in addition to other white habits, have acquired that of running a political convention in the approved white manner. The convention particularly described by Mr. Williams was presided over by the Hon. Pig Smith, who opened the proceedings with the familiar appeal for "harmony and enthusiasm"; a committee was appointed to nominate another committee to "run" the party for a year, and its report was adopted without debate or division, and so on. Committees have to withdraw for consultation into the thicket, instead of a hotel parlor; but, with the exception of a few little differences like these, caused by a difference of circumstances, and which will doubtless disappear as the thicket is swept away by the tide of civilization, party "politics" among the Cherokees seem to resemble those of the rest of the country. We have no doubt that the Honorable Pig Smith has a "home" in which he "develops strength" from time to time as a candidate for one office or another, and is as gloomy when a want of harmony is displayed in the party as any statesman at Albany. The by-paths of American history occupy all the magazines more or less, and under this head "The Story of the Palatines," the colony from the Lower Palatinate of the Rhine founded on the Hudson, in Queen Anne's time, as told by Mr. Charles Burr Todd, deserves attention, and, for a queer bit of contemporary American life and manners, the account given of the "Polanders" in Texas, by R. L. Daniels, is worth reading. In "Our Monthly Gossip" C. P. W. makes a protest against the abstruse and recondite nature of the subjects to which "intellectual" women devote themselves, and complains that a woman will abandon herself with painstaking assiduity to the study of early Italian art, Eastern mythology, or the categories of Kant, and lapse into "a state of placid speechlessness" if some subject is introduced into conversation like the latest election, the defeat of Arabi, or the Irish troubles. This has been one of the peculiarities of the *femme savante* since the days of Molière, and the type of woman who will discuss matters of the same kind and in the same way that men do—that is to say, the woman from whose conversation, if put in print, you could not tell whether she was man or woman—is still to come. When it does, intersexual sarcasm and humor will be seriously lessened, whatever other effects may be produced.

—A curious tempest in a teapot is now raging in England concerning the merits and demerits of the new American school of international novelists. In the same number of the *Century* in which Mr. Warner made some humorous reflections on the British strawberry, Mr. Howells inadvertently praised the art of Mr. James at the expense of the art of Dickens and Thackeray. No sooner did this reach England than the *World*, after its fashion, and the *Saturday Review* after its fashion, not quite as unlike as might be wished, poured forth the vials of their wrath on the head of Mr. Howells. Close on the heels of the *World* and the *Saturday Review* came a Scotch reviewer in *Blackwood*. By this time very little remained of Mr. Howells and Mr. James, who were reduced to impalpable powder. But worse remained behind. After the weeklies came the monthly; after the monthly comes the *Quarterly Review*, and the dust of the pulverized American novelists is rudely scattered to the four winds of heaven. The *Quarterly* article is quite in the old style. It deals freely in invective, in innuendo, and in false statements. It defends the throne and the altar almost in the language of the taproom and the stable. There has been a languid curiosity here to know who it was that was thus annoyed by the success in England of the American novelists. The London correspondent of the New York *Tribune* tells us that the *Quarterly* article was written by Mr. L. J. Jennings, the own and only London correspondent of the New York *World*, formerly the famous vituperative editor of the New York *Times*; and this is rendered probable by the fact

that the London correspondent of the New York *World* telegraphed to that journal that the then forthcoming *Quarterly* would contain a "noteworthy" article attacking the American novelists. He makes one insinuation that is worth notice, which is more than can be said of any of his opinions, and that is, that Mr. James wrote the article on Howells which appeared in the *Century* a few months ago, and that therefore Mr. Howells's notice of James is part of a tit-for-tat arrangement. There is no truth in this whatever, as Jennings must or might have known, because that article was signed by the author, Mr. T. S. Perry.

—It is a very pretty quarrel as it stands, though, unfortunately, quite one-sided, as the American guns after the first shot have been wholly silent. But an unexpected ally has appeared. Just as France fought with us against the British a century ago, so now a French critic comes to succor the American novelist. In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 1 is begun a series of articles on "Les Nouveaux Romanciers Américains." The first is signed Th. Bentzon, and is devoted to a consideration of the writings of Mr. Howells. It opens with a consideration of the decadence of the novel in England. "It is to America, beyond all doubt, that we owe to-day the best novels written in English; England herself attests this. During the year which has just passed, no book has had the success of 'Democracy'—that brilliant and curious satire of American manners, which only the good nature of a people sure enough of its strength to be ready to learn the truth could make palatable. Translated at once into all languages, 'Democracy' has interested the Old even more than the New World." The critic then cites Mr. Bret Harte's "Flip," "in which a great talent begins to weaken," Mr. Cable's creole stories, and "the profoundly interesting studies of contemporary life in America" by Mr. Howells and Mr. James. The rest of the long essay is taken up with detailed description of Mr. Howells's stories and with highly favorable comment. The whole paper is one to be read with attention by any one anxious to see how an exact and realistic description of American life strikes a clever and highly cultivated Frenchwoman.

—While perfect comity exists to-day between the people of Rhode Island and their neighbors of Massachusetts, the scholars and antiquarians of the two States contrive to perpetuate the historical animosities that grew out of the oppression by "the Bay" of the "Providence Plantations." The two latest issues in the series of "Rhode Island Historical Tracts" (Providence: S. S. Rider) are in evidence. One is a posthumous "Defence of Samuel Gorton and the Settlers of Shawomet," by the late Chief-Justice Brayton; the other, Peter Folger's "Looking-Glass for the Times." Gorton was a man who contrived, without being vicious, to make every community uncomfortable in which he planted himself, and, in spite of his sufferings by persecution, is for the historian a rather humorous figure in the early annals of the colonies. No one can complain of the view of his character taken by such Massachusetts writers (to mention the latest) as Dr. George E. Ellis, in the 'Memorial History of Boston,' and Mr. S. H. Gay, in 'Bryant's History of the United States,' and there is perhaps a little unnecessary heat in Mr. Rider's introduction to Judge Brayton's 'Defence.' This document covers the whole ground, but the arrangement of the narrative and development of the argument are lacking in clearness, and we may suppose that the author had blocked them out for subsequent revision. They do not add much to what was already known. Mr. Rider admits that the doggerel of Franklin's estimable grandfather Folger has no proper place in his series. It is a protest against Puritan religious intolerance, however, and so far it is in harmony with the other tracts. Moreover, in the following lines we have the key to the treatment of Gorton, whose mystical interpretations of Scripture confirmed the founders of Harvard College in their insistance upon a "learned gospel"—*i. e.*, on insuring against theological vagaries by putting thoroughly trained and educated men, and these only, in the ministry:

> "And since that, many Godley Men
> have been to Prison sent;
>
> But these Men were, as I have heard,
> against our *College Men;*
> And this was out of doubt to me,
> that which was most their sin."

—M. Édouard Cuq has read before the Académie des Inscriptions a monograph on the *Consilium Principis*, the Roman Privy Council, tracing its progressive growth and the process by which it gradually absorbed all the power of the Senate and much besides. The study of inscriptions, which has done so much to refashion our knowledge of the orthography and lexicography of the Latin language, has given M. Cuq good results in regard to the Roman jurisprudence and statecraft. He has been able to trace the formal constitution of the Consilium back of Constantine, where it was previously supposed to stop, at least as far as to Hadrian. In his reign the body which started in the reign of Augustus as a mere private convenience of the Emperor—a council of war on a peace footing—appears with a complete organization and regular officers. M. Cuq refers to a number of cases submitted to its jurisdiction, and asserts that we can follow the discussions that arose among its members, and trace the motives that influenced the Emperors to this or that decision. One of the most important of its functions was that of a High Court of Justice. Under Augustus judgments were still given by private judges chosen by the parties themselves, and there was no appeal. In the third century of our era all justice was administered by delegates of the Emperor, and there was an appeal in all cases to the Consilium Principis, then called the Consistorium. How this complete and most momentous change was brought about is partly set forth in M. Cuq's memoir, and is to be explained in full in a volume which he is preparing. The memoir is chiefly concerned with one feature, the rise and extension of the right of appeal, a right which greatly increased the power of the Emperors. The original Roman law admitted appeal in one case only, that in which a judge had delegated his powers, when the decision of his subordinate was always subject to his revision. In order to be able to intervene in judicial decisions it was necessary for the Emperors to create and multiply cases in which magistrates could be considered as their delegates, and this they did so successfully that they had absorbed the whole administration of justice, as we have seen, in criminal matters by the time of Septimius Severus, and in civil matters by the third century. The originality of M. Cuq's investigation may be judged by this, that though Consilium Principis and Consistorium both appear in the Latin dictionaries, so little definite was known about the body that neither word was judged worthy of admission into Smith's 'Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities.'

—Prof. Tyrrell has collected in a sumptuous volume, under the title, 'Dublin Translations into Greek and Latin Verse,' the Greek and Latin verses that have appeared before in the *Hesperidum Susurri* and in that famous college magazine, the *Kottabos*, to which we owe, among other charming things, the application of the solar myth to Max Müller's personality. The volume is a distinct offset to the 'Arundines Cami,' 'Sabrinæ Corolla,' and similar collections made on the other side of St. George's Channel, and the Dublinity of the pieces is insisted on with unnecessary vehemence. The Celtic light cannot be hid under the bushel of English names. It is sure to burn through, and he who has been privileged to worship the *genius loci* does not need to be told that these poems come from the quick brain of Trinity College. Detailed criticism would be out of place except in a classical journal, and even there these verses ought not to be taken too seriously. Much will depend on the mood in which they are approached. If one is in a good humor and disposed to be amused, there is a certain amount of jocularity to be got out of Latin mummeries of 'Old Father William' and 'Billy Taylor,' Thackeray's "Three Sailors," and Hood's "Bachelor's Dream"; while Prof. Tyrrell's Tennyson in the manner of Theocritus, and Shakspere in the manner of Plautus, and Prof. Palmer's Catullian "Sally in our Alley" show a surer touch and give a higher pleasure. But if one should not be in a good humor, and should unluckily open the volume at page 223, where a wretched English version of Goethe's "König von Thule" has been rendered into a wretcheder cento of Homeric verses, in which ignorance of Homeric grammar is matched by ignorance of Homeric archæology—in such a case it might be possible to say harsh things about an exercise which is too apt to degenerate into parrotry and pedantry. In the true Irish spirit, some of these elegant scholars have laid sundry traps for the unwary, and evidently take a genuine delight in such classic "April fools" as dubious quantities and hard readings; but there is a Nemesis that overtakes all such jesters, and the volume is not free from hopeless grammatical blunders and versification that would not pass muster in climes far less favorable to classical study than are the banks of the Liffey. Still, the book is brimful of cleverness, as might have been expected, and point and pathos peep out of every corner. The titles alone are studies. For specimens the *Nation* has no space, and can only give Mr. Tyrrell's epigram addressed to Mr. Matthew Arnold, although that too is marred by an erratic quantity, which can only be defended by indifferent authority from the Anthology:

> 'μηδὲν ἄγαν' ὑμνεῖς· ἄγαν ὑμνεῖς· οὔ τοι λήγεις·
> ὦ 'γαθέ, μηδὲν ἄγαν, μηδὲ τὸ 'μηδὲν ἄγαν.'

DRESSER'S JAPAN.

Japan: Its Architecture, Art, and Art Manufactures. By Christopher Dresser, Ph.D., F.L.S., etc. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882.

Mr. Dresser states in his preface that his excuse for adding to the number of our books on Japan is that he writes as a specialist. He says truly that although we have heard much of the manners and customs of the Japanese, and of the aspect of their country, we have hitherto known little of their architecture, and of the relation of their minor arts to it. He therefore attempts to explain the origin and the present forms of the architecture, and how these present forms have resulted from climatic and religious influences; also, how the character of the ornamentation bears evidence of similar influences. The book is divided into two parts, in the first of which an interesting account of the curious sights, peculiar customs, and religious ceremonies which present themselves to the traveller in Japan, is coupled with observations on what pertains more strictly to the main theme; while the second treats of

the architecture and other arts of the people. In this second part the author begins with a brief consideration of the two religions which exist in Japan—the Buddhist and the Shinto; and he finds that these have supplied respectively the two fundamental impulses which have given the art its character—namely, the love of nature and the spirit of conscientiousness of workmanship. The Buddhist "will not destroy an insect or injure the smallest created thing," and he has a peculiar regard and affection for the beauty of these things, and for flowers and shrubs; while in the Shinto religion "the mirror is said to symbolize the manner in which actions and thoughts should be open and visible." Hence the constant use of natural forms in Japanese art, and the thoroughness of work and perfection of finish even in hidden members of architecture, and on the insides and the bottoms of their various objects of manufacture.

In the view of some able scholars of art it is considered that the Japanese modes of building are such as hardly to rank properly under the head of architecture, partly on account of its openness and the want of fixed foundation, and partly on account of its want of constructive character. The first of these reasons for this view seems not to occur to Mr. Dresser, and against the second he contends—showing that building in Japan affords instances of some curious and highly ingenious constructive devices, especially in the pagoda, where the enormous upright central pillar, which to the superficial eye appears to rest upon the ground and to stiffen and support the successive stories, is in reality hung from the top, the lower end being held several inches from the ground, like the clapper of a bell, so that in times of earthquake it may swing back and forth, and thus by its weight keep the centre of gravity within the base of the tower. Such devices are admirably suited to the conditions that have to be met, no doubt; but there is yet force in the objection that Japanese architecture is not generally based upon entirely sound constructive principles—that the constructive sense of the Japanese is somewhat deficient. For instance, on page 148 (Fig. 47) Mr. Dresser gives an interior view of the roof of a temple, showing a mode of construction, said to be very common, where "double king-posts" are employed. Now, if these are so framed as to depend from the rafters and uphold the sagging tendency of the tie-beam, then they are indeed true king-posts. But they have not the appearance of being so; they appear rather as pillars set upon the horizontal beam to sustain the purlins carrying arched rafters. We suspect that this last is the actual construction, and if it is so the structure must depend for its security entirely upon the massiveness of the timbers; and the fact that these timbers are very massive—especially the horizontal beams upon which the so-called king-posts rest—tends to confirm this suspicion. A further indication of the want of constructive sense is afforded by the arrangements of shelves and the manner of supporting them in many Japanese cupboards and cabinets. In these one shelf is often made to rest upon a single slender upright member rising from a shelf below, with nothing whatever to support this lower shelf and its superincumbent weight at the point, or near the point, where the weight falls (see Fig. 106). The strength of such a piece of work depends wholly upon that of the material used and upon a system of grooving and dovetailing, in which methods of joining wood the Japanese are wonderfully ingenious and skilful. But although Japanese building seems often to violate constructive principles, it is yet very curious and interesting in many ways, and especially so, as we have already seen in the case of the pagoda, in its adaptation to meet the earthquake shocks with which the country is frequently visited. Mr. Dresser shows that a house in Japan consists essentially of little more than a roof supported upon upright posts resting loosely upon flat stones; the whole structure being so framed together that in times of earthquake it may freely rock and shift about, as one may cause a chair to do upon an even floor, without harm.

As the temples of Egypt are supposed to have had their prototypes in the reed dwellings of the primitive times, so Mr. Dresser looks for the origin of Japanese forms of building among the abodes of the early Japanese people; and he finds among the present Aino inhabitants of the northern island (Yesso), a people who retain very primitive habits, forms of building which seem to lend plausibility to this theory. Upon this original prototype various outside influences have been brought to bear. The Chinese, the Coreans, and the Buddhist missionaries from Central Asia brought each some new elements of style to Japan. The form of roof seems to have been first derived from that of the rudely thatched Aino Temple, and to have been afterward modified by the Chinese tent-like form—a pole, like the ridge-pole of a tent, with rafters bent in correspondence with the sagging of tent canvas, being characteristic of many Japanese roofs. In the course of his remarks upon the ornamentation of buildings the author reiterates a theory which has found favor in some quarters—namely, that structure must not be falsified by enrichment, and that structural members should be rendered prominent by color and ornamentation. We do not consider this a true theory. We should not, indeed, contend that structure might rightly be *falsified;* but in our view it may, with perfect propriety, be concealed, as it verily is in a vast number of the noblest architectural monuments in the world. And these monuments frequently also contradict the assertion that structural members should be rendered prominent by color and ornamentation—as, notably, in the case of the Parthenon. Moreover, the theory seems wholly to conflict with the principles of decoration in nature.

From the consideration of architecture and ornament Mr. Dresser passes to the subject of drawing and painting, illustrating this portion of his work by a series of woodcuts, executed in Japan, which form a very interesting and attractive feature of the book. Attention is called to the remarkably living character of the Japanese renderings of the forms of birds, animals, and plants. With however few strokes a creature is drawn, its life is unmistakably and admirably expressed. European artists have only in exceptional cases shown the capacity of thus entering into and representing the life of the lower orders of animal being; as compared with the drawings of the Japanese, their creatures are apt to convey more or less suggestion of stuffed specimens. Japanese graphic art is, however, singularly limited. It is never more than sketching. They know nothing of chiaroscuro, and finished forms of painting do not exist in Japan. Moreover, they show a strange incapacity to draw the human figure or the figures of the higher animals with any dignity or truth. Men and horses are generally conceived by them in repulsively grotesque forms—more or less like the representation of the "God of Wisdom" (Fig. 146, in this book.

The account given of the method of drawing with the brush held at arm's length is suggestive and instructive; but some remarks upon the character of angularity in Japanese drawing lead the author into too sweeping and short-sighted generalizations respecting the value of angularity as a method. He says (p. 286), "Rounded lines, if used in a sketch, generally produce feebleness of effect; whereas, angularity in drawing gives vigor and life." Now, this is a profoundly untrue and misleading statement. Rounded lines by no means necessarily produce feebleness of effect, nor is angularity any more expressive of vigor and life than it is of the opposite of these. Indeed, a moment's attention will show, we think, that the angularity of the example (Fig. 125, which is especially praised for this quality) has a precisely opposite effect from that which our author supposes, and that what life there is in the drawing is secured wholly by the character of the curves. In the leaves of the plant represented in this figure, the curves of nature are, in many places, reduced to sharp angles, and the effect produced is really as if the leaves were broken. Of course, where any tendency to angularity occurs in living objects, the expression of life requires the due rendering of this quality as much as that of curvature. But this is very different from changing the curves themselves into angles. In nature, angles are constantly associated with curves, and if this fact is overlooked, and curves are given in place of the angles, feebleness will result in the drawing, it is true. A tendency thus to overlook the angles by which nature's curves are foiled has been common with weak draughtsmen, and this practice may well be spoken against; but, by the theory of Mr. Dresser, the fault is not corrected: another fault is simply introduced. That is, where in the one case the angles of nature are rendered by curves, in the other the curves of nature are rendered by angles.

This mistaken theory about angularity is a somewhat common one. It has grown out of a comparatively recent Continental method of elementary instruction in drawing, where curves are resolved into systems of right lines and angles as a means of making them more tangible to beginners. The method has gradually crept up into the more advanced practice of art students and artists. It is a good method if not carried too far, but it is carried too far when angularity is regarded as a permanent substitute for curvature. When the method is rightly employed, the right lines and angles are used in order that the true character of the curves may be more surely attained—that is, they are used *for the sake of the curves.* But the method is wrongly employed when the curves of nature are sacrificed to it. The fallacy of our author's dictum on this point may be further shown by a consideration of the character of delineation among the Greek and Italian designers. With them there are no instances of the slightest approach to this angular method. On the contrary, they draw everything that in nature is curved in "rounded lines," the vigor and life of nature being expressed, in the only way that they really can be, by strict attention to the varying characters of the curves (compare Fig. 125 with any photograph from a drawing of plant form by Leonardo da Vinci). An examination of the vast collection of Greek vases in the British Museum, and of the drawings by the old masters in Florence, will show that this is absolutely so. Allied to the method of reducing curved lines to angular ones in drawing, is that of reducing curved surfaces to planes in sculpture. This also may be useful during the progress of a work; but it may be instructive to consider that the example of the great sculptors of the past lends no support to it. The various unfinished marbles of Michael Angelo in Florence, for instance, show that he never "blocked out" his work in that way, but that he even roughhewed the stone in rounded masses.

Mr. Dresser has an instructive chapter on "Analogies and Symbols," in which he discusses the question of the derivation of ornamental styles, and makes some good remarks about the value of decorative forms as means of arriving at more exact knowledge respecting the affinities

of races. And there are several chapters on the manufacture of Japanese lacquer ware, pottery, metal work, and textile fabrics. The volume is a square octavo, and is handsomely printed.

MORISON'S MACAULAY.—II.

Macaulay. By J. Cotter Morison. [English Men of Letters Series.] London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros.

Mr. Morison's original, subtle, and profound criticism of Macaulay has rendered one great service to all intelligent readers: it has clearly defined the true issues which must be decided before a settled opinion can be formed on Macaulay's place in literature. These issues are, to state the matter broadly, twofold:

First. Did Macaulay succeed in carrying out his own idea of the task to be performed by an historian? His conception of his work is in the main clear. He was, above all things, a man of letters. Literature was the art to which he was devoted with passion; history was to him the grandest and most impressive branch of literature. History was, in his judgment, the narration of past events. That man was the greatest and most perfect historian who could tell the tale of the past at once with such truth and with such force of imagination as to bring the story of bygone ages actually before the eyes of modern readers. The historian was an artist engaged in painting a series of literary pictures which differed from the creations of the historical novelist in the fact that they were true, and, because of their truth, surpassed the interest of the most interesting romance. In this point of view, the passage from Macaulay's letters which has made a far too unfavorable impression upon Mr. Morison has great importance:

"I have at last begun my historical labors. . . . The materials for an amusing narrative are immense. I shall not be satisfied unless I can produce something which shall for a few days supersede the last fashionable novel on the tables of young ladies."

Remember that this language is used in the letter to a friend; it has, and is intended to have, a tone of epistolary *badinage.* You must not take a joke seriously. When these allowances are made, it is easy enough to see that Macaulay's language conveys in a light form his conviction that truth properly told was full of interest, and that he possessed the power to tell the tale of English greatness so that it should entrance others as it had throughout his life entranced himself. This was the aim of his labors. It is, we think, impossible to read either Macaulay's works or Mr. Morison's criticisms without seeing that in the main Macaulay succeeded in the attainment of his object. The worst defect which, from his own point of view, can be fairly laid to his charge is excessive diffuseness. He assuredly planned an edifice which under no possible circumstances could he have brought to completion. This want of the power duly to measure out his work is characteristic of the generation among whom Macaulay lived. It is due, no doubt, in a measure to his overweening desire that his narrative should be absolutely clear and intelligible to every reader. Still, make what excuses one will, a tendency to diffuseness is a charge from which Macaulay cannot be acquitted. But the other accusations pressed by Mr. Morison—namely, want of generalized and synthetic views and deficiency in the historical spirit—are rather charges against Macaulay's whole theory of history than just criticisms on the mode in which that view is carried into execution.

"He has not," Mr. Morison urges, "grasped and reproduced in well-weighed general propositions the import and historical meaning of the Stuart period, which was his real object; he has painted many phases of it with almost redundant fulness, but he has not traced the evolution of ideas and principles which mark its peculiar character."

These remarks are in themselves perfectly just. There is more to be learned about the "evolution of ideas and principles" from sixty pages of Gneist's 'Englisches Verwaltungsrecht' than from the whole of Macaulay's five volumes. But Macaulay's object was not the same as the object of Gneist. A picture is a good thing, and so also is a map; but it is vain to complain that a splendid picture has not the merits of a map. So, again, with regard to the censure on Macaulay for constantly comparing the past with the present. Such comparisons have in his writings a distinct aim: their object is to make the past intelligible to modern readers. There is no more effective way of achieving this end than by contrasting things as they were with things as they now are. To tell us that in Tunbridge Wells "we see a town which would a hundred and sixty years ago have ranked in population fourth or fifth among the towns of England; the brilliancy of the shops and the luxury of the private buildings far surpass anything that England could then show"—is surely to convey in a vivid manner real and valuable information. It impresses on even the most careless student the fact that the England of Cromwell and of the Stuarts was a country of what we should now call small towns and scanty population. That this was so, no one can doubt; but there is probably not one in a thousand readers who does not constantly require to have brought home to him in a form which he can neither misunderstand nor forget, how different was the England of the seventeenth century from the England of to-day. Mr. Disraeli was a man not wanting in intelligence. When an opponent asked, "Where are now the thousands of freeholders who came from Buckinghamshire at the call of Hampden?" Mr. Disraeli retorted, "They are where I should expect to find them—in Buckinghamshire"; and if the Tory leader was not imposed upon by his own smartness, his followers certainly thought the reply conclusive. They never reflected for a moment that the men who rallied round Hampden were a very different class and of very different political weight from the freeholders whom Mr. Disraeli found it convenient to treat as their representatives.

Secondly. What was the worth of Macaulay's conception of history? On the answer to this inquiry the battle between Macaulay's assailants and his admirers will ultimately have to be fought out. The reaction against Macaulay is mainly due to the growth and prevalence of two views of history which are radically opposed to, or at least essentially different from, the conception of history adhered to by the last, and all but the greatest, of historical narrators.

Carlyle and his school have (consistently enough with their general views of life) treated history as, so to speak, a branch of ethics. No doubt Carlyle's 'French Revolution' is as brilliant a piece of imaginative painting as has ever been produced. But no one can believe that Carlyle's main object was to produce a narrative of the events about which he writes. His true, one might almost say his avowed, aim was to take the Revolution as a text from which to preach the truths or dogmas of which he was the prophet. No reader can forget the time when he first read the description of Louis XV.'s death; it is, in its way, the grandest historical sermon ever preached. But it is, after all, a splendid sermon, not a chapter of history. Now, Macaulay is fond, and a good deal too fond, of certain kinds of exposition; his whole genius is that of a narrator. He tells his tale for the sake of telling it. He has no new morality, no truths, to preach; and students whose real interest in historical study is not the knowledge of facts, but the supposed lessons to be drawn from them, are indignant when an historian persists in keeping to his duty as a narrator, and does not assume the attitude of a moral teacher. Yet, can any one who really cares for the progress of knowledge doubt that Macaulay's treatment of history is, to say the least, far more sound and healthy than the mode in which it is treated by Carlyle? The first requisite for successful research, in whatever field, is, that it should be disinterested; and the author who surveys the annals of mankind in order to find texts in support of a theory will, no doubt, find texts enough. But he is very fortunate if he finds anything else, and it is all but certain that he will misunderstand the texts themselves. Carlyle's 'Cromwell' is probably the contribution of most permanent value made by him to the study of history. The collection, publication, and careful editing of a mass of neglected documents can never fail to promote knowledge. But even now the moralizing and the preaching of the editor might with great advantage be excluded from Carlyle's edition of Cromwell's speeches and letters. If there be anything really unhistorical, it is the encumbering and interlarding of original speeches and writings with editorial comment. Already a good deal of the Carlylean commentary is completely out of date, yet Carlyle was a writer of genius and imagination. One trembles to think what would become of historical study if he had produced, or was likely to produce, a large body of followers. Macaulay may be a mere narrator, but a story-teller who tells truthfully and vividly the transactions of bygone ages is, in the long run, a far more useful guide to the knowledge of the past than can be any moralist, however elevated his doctrine, who is trying to use the past for the purpose of present edification and improvement.

If the admirers of Carlyle or Froude find Macaulay deficient in moral tone, earnestness, insight, sympathy, and the like, both Macaulay and Carlyle fail to satisfy critics who look upon history as a branch rather of science than of literature. He has not traced the "evolution of those ideas and principles" which mark the period of the Stuarts with its peculiar character. We have already admitted that this charge is true; we may further admit that Macaulay would have stood in a far higher place than he will ever occupy if he had added to his extraordinary powers of narration that gift of historical analysis or capacity for tracing the evolution of ideas and principles which is exhibited by such writers as Gneist or De Tocqueville. But critics often appear to assert, as Mr. Morison's tone occasionally seems to suggest, that an author who does not trace out the growth of ideas hardly deserves to be called an historian, and certainly has neglected one, if not the chief, of an historian's duties. Now, to the truth of this assertion we distinctly demur. A writer who brings before us a true picture of the past performs a service the importance of which can hardly be exaggerated. Generalizations about the past, the evolution of ideas, the history of the growth of principles, and the like, are in their way things of great interest and importance, but they are almost unmeaning to a student who has not before his mind the facts of the age to which the generalizations refer, or in which the ideas grew up. It would, for instance, be all but impossible for any one to read with profit De Tocqueville's 'Ancien Régime' without some clear conception of the history of France. It would certainly be very unprofitable to read about the growth of ideas under the

Stuarts without some knowledge of the events, say, of the Rebellion and the Restoration. Macaulay, and writers like Macaulay, do not, it is true, explain the past, but, when successful, they do what is even more essential—they show us the past. Nor is narrative of value merely because it enables us to appreciate historical speculation. Theories about history, however ingenious and however profound, are always transitory; they represent the knowledge and ideas of the age in which they grow up. Narrative is, in so far as it is true, the very basis on which such theories of history depend. There is no need whatever to depreciate authors who undertake to analyze the causes which have produced a given state of society. The field of historical investigation has room enough for the employment of every kind of talent. We need investigators, we need critics, we need narrators; each class deserves its appropriate praise. But there is at the present moment some real danger lest the importance of narration should be underrated; and as long as the tendency to such an underestimate of one form of history exists, it is certain that ordinary readers will hardly rate at his full worth the writer whom Mr. Morison has pronounced one of the best, if not *the* best, of all historical story-tellers.

BOLLES'S FINANCIAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Financial History of the United States from 1789 to 1860. By Albert S. Bolles. D. Appleton & Co. 1883.

THE financial history of the United States possesses great interest for all who are disposed to give sober study to economic or political subjects. It is, however, a very difficult subject to treat. The material with which the historian has to deal is very hard and stubborn. If he does not go into a certain detail of dates and figures, he does not fairly state the matter; if he tries to generalize and summarize, he loses the finer traits of the history in which its chief interest and value lie; if he goes into statistical and historical detail, he becomes very dry, and he exhausts the patience of the reader. We had good hopes of Mr. Bolles's second volume. He has, indeed, studied carefully, and he gives the results of his study with fidelity; but he does not seem to us to have hit that proportion of parts of his subject which was desirable, and he has not given to his book the animation which was necessary to render its theme attractive. If we are not mistaken, there are elements of almost romantic interest in the financial history under discussion, but it would require especial tact and skill to bring them out. Mr. Bolles so arranges his essay that he goes over the same ground a number of times—a mode of treatment which must, we think, distract and tire his readers. Under it, the crises of 1819 and 1837 sink into insignificant incidents. Would it not be the true mode of making the subject interesting to hold these two periods as great centres, to and around which the course of events should be traced? We have also been astonished to notice how entirely the Bank of the United States fades into the background, and how, in general, the banking and currency history is made secondary. The story of the Bank of the United States is a drama, almost a tragedy, by itself, and the banking and currency history deserves study, and would excite interest.

Mr. Bolles takes that view of Hamilton and Gallatin which is rapidly winning the suffrages of all modern students of our history. He thinks that Jackson was a mischief-maker. He does not, however, enter into any detail of the political history. His method leads him to neglect the mutual relations of currency and tariff, and he does not take much notice of the connection of both with politics. Speaking about the most important occasion on which financial legislation reacted on politics—the nullification struggle—he says: "A force bill, as it was called, was speedily enacted; but the South Carolinians, seeing the strong arm of the Government uplifted to vindicate the laws, suddenly changed their purpose, the nullification ordinance was repealed as hastily as it had been passed, and tranquillity was restored." This cannot be allowed to pass as a correct description of the events to which it refers. It takes no account of the compromise tariff which was passed with the Force Bill, and before the nullification ordinance was repealed.

It is in the case of the history of the tariff, however, that the book has surprised and disappointed us. In the more strictly financial parts of the book we have wondered at the author's selection of topics, and have asked ourselves again and again what had become of those which we regard as of commanding interest. Also, it has seemed to us that, although he had gone over all the ground with fidelity, he had failed to master it; nor do his critical remarks appear to be strong or always correct. But when we come to the tariff, it is evident that the author has not reached a positive conclusion, or else that the limitations of a professor in the Wharton School of Finance and Economy have crippled him to the point of helplessness. To profess a science in a school which has a scientific creed has always been found incompatible with sound scholarship. There is an impression in the minds of many that in Pennsylvania the college trustees find out what is true in political economy, and then hire professors to teach it. We did not suppose that Mr. Bolles was just the kind of man for such a position, but we are shut up, for the explanation of his treatment of an important subject, either to his imperfect mastery of it or to the necessities of his position.

He correctly explains the origin of the tariff in 1789: "Home manufactures were encouraged, not solely to get them cheaper, either immediately or prospectively, but because revenge was sweet, even if purchased at considerable cost to the avenger." He, however, passes no criticism on this policy of vengeance. He takes no account of the state of the currency under the Confederation, or of the effect which the disordered currency had on trade, and the fallacies about foreign trade to which it gave encouragement. Here and elsewhere the current fallacies about "overtrading" and the balance of trade and the drain of specie are repeated by him as correct and satisfactory explanations of events. "The destruction of our credit, therefore, was a blessing to the home manufacturer." The manufacturers appear throughout Mr. Bolles's history like the English landowners in the old Corn-Law times—always prospering by the calamities of others, and never able to succeed if other people are well off. On page 86, Mr. Bolles quotes a silly old story about two machines which were bought and carried away by British craft in order to ruin American industry. We do not understand how anybody who has ever studied political economy can believe or seriously repeat such a fiction. It must be that there was no one in Philadelphia patriotic enough, or with business energy enough, to bid up the price and keep the machines. Instead, they raised a wail because there was no law as yet to enable them to raise, by taxes on somebody else, enough to buy the machines and keep them in Philadelphia.

Mr. Bolles regards the embargo and the second war as having been "salutary" in that they forced manufacturing here. How great, then, would have been our calamity if there had been peace, quiet, and prosperity from 1805 to 1815! He thinks that "auctions" were "the most powerful adverse influence to manufacturing." He speaks of them as "forcing goods into the market beyond the actual wants of the people" (p. 388). He speaks of "waves" of imports which overwhelmed the American producer in 1817 and 1818. He believes that when the home producer was crushed the foreigner immediately raised the price (p. 369). He repeats the apocryphal quotation of Lord Brougham, that American industries ought to be strangled. He quotes a foolish argumentation of Mallory on the question whether tariff taxes fall on the consumers, and also one of Rush's model sophisms on the question whether tariff taxes raise prices (p. 398). He appears to be satisfied with an argument which he quotes from Appleton to prove that the Southerners did not "exchange cotton for manufactures" (p. 421). He puts himself in the attitude of the manufacturers who pointed to decline in prices as proofs of calamity and bad legislation, although, as above stated, he appears also to side with those who hold that tariffs lower prices (p. 427). To him, therefore, decline in prices under lower taxes seems to prove that the taxes ought to be put on again, not that they never should have been put on. He speaks of the United States as "the emptying-ground for the foreign manufacturer," who made use of auctions to "push off" his goods (pp. 429, 459). We can understand that the American producer did not like that, and we can see how it was likely to ruin the Englishmen, but the American consumers must have revelled in abundance. He tells us—a fact which we had never known before—that in 1841 the cotton and woollen manufacturers conspired with the New York Custom-house officers "to check importations by increasing the prices of invoices, and seizing goods, and subjecting importers to unexpected annoyances" (p. 431). Hitherto we had heard only of "fraudulent invoices," etc., devised by importers to defeat the protective system.

Mr. Bolles regards the tariff of 1842 as a model, and boldly faces the problems which his admiration of it arouses. His solution, however, is more trenchant than adequate (p. 446). The tariff of 1846, of course, he regards as a lamentable mistake. He takes no notice of the effect of the repeal of the Corn Laws on this country, although that was undoubtedly the most important event in the history of our tariff, on account of its effect upon the profits of our agriculture, and on the comparative profits of our industries, and on the distribution of our population; but he regards the Irish famine as having been a piece of good luck for us. That, and the discovery of gold in California, which provided means to meet the "drain of specie" to pay for over-importation, saved us from the consequences of our folly in the tariff of 1846.

We can only say that all this seems to us to furnish a striking illustration, how possible it is to study history without learning anything from it.

Oddities in Southern Life and Character. Edited by Henry Watterson. With illustrations. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883.

THIS compilation from the works of Southern humorous writers has been made with judgment, and was worth making. Its historical value, both in a social and a literary point of view, is considerable, and it will be found interesting even (as in "Major Jones's Travels") where it is far from being amusing. Every one must admire the exquisite art of "Uncle Remus," and admit the cleverness of the authors of "Sut Lovingood" and the "Dukesborough Tales," while Judge Longstreet's "Georgia Scenes"

will always remain a respectable Southern classic. This is but a glimpse of the contents of Mr. Watterson's volume, which does not profess to be encyclopædic, and yet is liberal enough to include in its selections such waifs as Congressman Knott's famous Duluth speech, Prentice's Louisville-*Courier* squibs, and the anonymous "Harp of a Thousand Strings." Prefatory notices tell us something of the several writers and of the dates of their works, though less than would content the bibliographer. From these it becomes apparent, before Mr. Watterson points out the curious fact, that Georgia has been more prolific in humorists—and among them the very best—than any other part of the South.

One quickly discovers here the sources of a large share of the Americanisms in Bartlett's Dictionary, and sometimes catches a locution in the very act of forming, as when Davy Crockett says: "'Let us hear the colonel,' cried another; and so I *mounted the stump that had been cut down for the occasion*, and began to bushwhack in the most approved style." But, however curious the dialectic peculiarities thus revealed, the social conditions far surpass them in interest. No one can doubt the essential truthfulness of the portraiture of character and manners to which so many writers have contributed, with so much mutual confirmation. We have under observation an agricultural, slaveholding, frontier, land-speculating, and more or less lawless and violent community in the days before the war. The *dramatis personæ* are for the most part illiterate, coarse, and, on occasion, brutal. The book opens with the private rehearsal, as an interlude in ploughing, of "all the parts of all the characters in a Courthouse fight," by a youth who "was jist seein' how I could 'a' *fout*," and this is succeeded by a sickening account of a real encounter between neighborhood bullies. Nothing, again, is more striking than the unconscious incidental record of slaveholding commonplaces. Take, for instance, the sequel to the surreptitious game of cards between Simon Suggs and the colored boy, Bill. The scene is under a mulberry tree (p. 45):

"The old man Suggs made no remark to any one while he was seizing up Bill—a process which, though by no means novel to Simon, seemed to excite in him a sort of painful interest. He watched it closely, as if endeavoring to learn the precise fashion of his father's knot; and when at last Bill was swung up a-tiptoe to a limb, and the whipping commenced, Simon's eye followed every movement of his father's arm; and as each blow descended upon the bare shoulders of his sable friend, his own body writhed and 'wriggled' in involuntary sympathy."

Or take this camp-meeting scene (p. 63):

"'Dear soul alive! *don't* he talk sweet?' cried an old lady in black silk. 'Whar's John Dobbs? You Sukey!' screaming at a negro woman on the other side of the square, 'ef you don't hunt up your Mass John in a minute, and have him here to listen to his 'sperience, I'll tuck you up when I git home and give you a hundred and fifty lashes, madam! see ef I don't! Blessed Lord!' referring again to the Captain's relation, 'aint it a *precious* 'scourse?'"

The South has moved away from this condition—legally, if not altogether spiritually; and absolutely from the point of view contained in the following extract:

"'No! but,' ses the old man, 'they 've got plenty of white servants at the North, what you can hire for little or nothing.'

"'Goodness gracious!' ses old Miss Stallins; 'white servants! Well, the Lord knows I wouldn't have none of 'em 'bout me.'

"'Nor me, neither,' ses Mary. 'It may do well enuff for people what don't know the difference between niggers and white folks; but I could never bear to see a white gall toatin' my child about, and waitin' on me like a nigger. It would hurt my conscience to keep anybody 'bout me in that condition who was as white and good as me.'

. . . . . .

"'But,' ses Mr. Mountgomery, 'they're brung up to it.'

"'Well,' ses Mary, 'the more sin to them that brings 'em up to be servants. A servant, to be any account as a servant, has got to have a different kind of a spirit from other people: and anybody that would make a nigger of a white child because it was pore, hain't no Christian principles in 'em.'"

The survivals at the South of the social life depicted in this book are probably more numerous than any one imagines, though their range is constantly narrowing. We shall point to one which has been much discussed of late in our columns, and for which many explanations have been offered, "the war" and "reconstruction" included. The Southern testimony about to be cited is taken from the chapter on "Flush Times," the period in question being about the year 1836. The statement is general for the Southwest, and the italics are the author's (p. 104):

"Occasionally the scene was diversified by a murder or two, which, though perpetrated from behind a corner, or behind the back of the deceased, whenever the accused *chose* to stand his trial, was always found to be committed in self-defence, securing the homicide an honorable acquittal *at the hands of his peers*."

We should be misrepresenting 'Oddities in Southern Life' if we conveyed the impression that its seriousness was greater than its drollery. The reverse is the case.

How to Succeed: In Public Life, as a Minister, as a Physician, as a Musician, as an Engineer, as an Artist, in Mercantile Life, as a Farmer, as an Inventor, and in Literature. A Series of Essays by Senators Bayard and Edmunds; Drs. John Hall, Willard Parker, and Leopold Damrosch; Gen. Wm. Sooy Smith, W. Hamilton Gibson, Lawson Valentine, Commissioner Geo. B. Loring, Thomas Edison, E. P. Roe, and Lyman Abbott. Edited, with an Introduction, by the Rev. Lyman Abbott, D.D. [Handy-Book Series, No. 26.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1882.

THE title of this handbook, on the subject of success in life, gives a fair idea of its contents. Considering, however, the interest of the subject, the volume is rather disappointing. A great deal of it consists of moral advice, of a sort which children get in the nursery and in church (many of the articles first appeared in the *Christian Union*); and a critic may fairly suggest that success in life is not usually among moralists regarded as a safe motive for compliance with the moral law. The world is full of successful men who are by no means examples of a strict attention to duty, but, on the contrary, neglect many plain duties altogether. Dr. Abbott and many of his contributors do not seem to be aware that in each profession or occupation there are special virtues which lead to success, and, at the same time, vices which do not seriously interfere with, or which even aid, it. A man may make a great success as an advocate, for instance, and be a complete spendthrift: Webster and many other lawyers are instances of this. Again, a man may succeed in the dry-goods business, and yet be mean, ignorant, and unjust to his family. A man may succeed as a quack through the aid of stupendous lying. The only reply that can be made to this is that these are not cases of "true success," or "Christian success"; and Dr. Abbott seems to vacillate between this view of the matter and a belief that a real Christian will always obtain a complete worldly success. To show that we do him no injustice in saying this, we may quote one or two of his remarks: "The precepts of the New Testament are good as social, business, and political principles"; "There is no chart of sailing directions so good to steer by for the port of success as those to be gathered from the instructions of Jesus of Nazareth"; "The golden rule is a good rule to do business by." In other words, worldly prudence teaches us the same lesson as the Gospel. This is queer doctrine to hear from a minister, and it is not surprising to find Mr. Bayard, in his contribution on public life, insisting that obedience to "duty," rather than the attainment of success, is what ought to be held up to young Americans. Christianity was certainly not preached by Christ as a good "paying" or "business" faith; indeed, from a worldly point of view, the career of the founder of the faith and his immediate disciples cannot be regarded as successful at all.

An Illustrated Dictionary of Words Used in Art and Archæology. By J. W. Mollett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883. Pp. 350.

THIS is a handy and useful but badly edited book. Its genesis reminds one of the jack-knife which first had its blades replaced and then its handle. It was begun as an amended edition of the dictionary composed by a French architect, M. Ernest Bosc; but, while his 450 engravings have been retained and added to, "little or nothing of the text has been left standing." Terms of architecture, painting, engraving, military science, and antiquities; the names of garments, of ceramic wares, of woods, of stones, of musical instruments, of heraldry, etc., etc., constitute the bulk of the present work. Sometimes, as under *Etching* and *Wood-engraving*, there is, besides the mere definition, some account of processes. In general, however, the notices are very brief.

The want of consistency is the most striking feature of this dictionary, which could not, of course, be exhaustive. Typography is not ostensibly included in the editor's scheme; then why insert *Pica* type, and omit bourgeois, brevier, nonpareil, and the rest? Music is likewise not professedly regarded; yet we find *Largo*, with the definition: "a slow movement, one degree quicker than *adagio*." But what does adagio mean? It will be sought for in vain under A, as will also andante and allegro, and we have discovered no other corresponding term. So we have *Clef*, but no staff. Astronomy, again, is out of range; still, here is *Perigee* without apogee, and *Perihelion* without aphelion. Similarly, *Heliochromy* is admitted, but not heliotype, and but a small and arbitrary number of the various photo-engraving processes. *Millstone-grit*, "the name of a good building-stone, plentiful in the north of England," is thought worthy of a place beside marble, porphyry, etc., but granite and sandstone are overlooked. A different sort of partiality is shown in giving a separate entry to *Victoria Cross*, and to but one other of the varieties mentioned under the general title, *Cross*.

The vagueness of the "archæology" contemplated by the editor gives rise to many ludicrous surprises as well as unaccountable omissions. We can easily count on our two hands all the vulgar names of flowers we have encountered in searching these pages. The field is one which, in our opinion, should have been avoided; but having strayed into it, ought Mr. Mollett to have slighted, say, jack-in-the-pulpit or dead-men's-fingers in order to explain *Love-lies-bleeding* and a very few others? The climax is perhaps reached in "*Dog's-nose:* a cordial used in low life," which no one in the wide world, we venture to say, would have dreamed of looking for in a 'Dictionary of Art and Archæology.' Sack, by the way, is not recognized. It seems, on the

other hand, a poor tribute to the intelligence of the reader that he should need a definition of *Bower* in its older sense. But what, then, shall be said of volunteering information about *Epoch*, *Knapsack*, *Oasis*, *Opacity*, or of inserting *Figure-paintings* only to define them as "paintings of the human figure"?

These defects in plan and execution are far from depriving this dictionary of all utility. They will as often amuse as disappoint. The illustrations are numerous and extremely good, but space would have been gained by not repeating them, though this practice has its convenience. That the common frog, apart from any artistic or archæological association, should have been depicted (p. 147), is only another instance of the freakishness which we have already exemplified.

The Life and Letters of Elizabeth Prentiss, author of 'Stepping Heavenward.' New York: Anson D. F. Randolph & Co.

No one can read with indifference the story of a life so singularly fortunate in its opportunities as that of Mrs. Prentiss, and no one can read without profit the record of her beautiful and untiring use of those opportunities. The letters and journals have something of the exquisite sweetness of Eugénie de Guérin's. And why should they not? 'The City of God' and the 'Imitation' were daily food alike to Calvinist and Romanist. Both read long and often from Fénelon, and what the one found in the 'Sacra Privata' and the 'Christian Year,' the other sought in the 'Lives of the Saints' and the 'Month of Mary.' Each life, in its piety, bears witness to the essential oneness of Christian faith—the living as seeing the invisible.

Mrs. Prentiss's books are not likely to be forgotten. Their simplicity and their truth to the types she chose to portray place them far above the majority of the Sunday-school books among which they belong. She had a reality about her, a sense of the fitness of things, which kept her safe alike from platitudes and from morbid exaggerations. She might have succeeded in other fields of literature, though her own single-eyed, religious, yet always most humble, purpose could never have admitted them as higher or wider. The little book, 'The Story that Lizzie Told,' a sketch of the flower-fête of the poor children in the Dean's garden at Westminster, shows what her power could have been.

A smaller volume than the present biography might have reached a greater number of general readers, but in the circles for which it was especially intended there will not be a page too many. As to plan and execution, it is not too much to say that it is faultless.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Mary. An Honorable Surrender. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
A Kempis, Thomas. Of the Imitation of Christ. Parchment edition. D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.
Amos, Prof. S. The Science of Politics. D. Appleton & Co. $1 75.
Baring-Gould, S. The Vicar of Morwenstow. Fourth Am. edition. T. Whittaker. $1 25.
Bolles, Prof. A. S. The Financial History of the United States from 1789 to 1860. D. Appleton & Co. $3 50.
Butt, Beatrice May. Geraldine Hawthorne. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Cooke, J. E. The Virginia Comedians; or, Old Days in the Old Dominion. D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.
Cooper, Peter. Ideas for a Science of Good Government: Addresses, Letters, and Articles. Trow's Printing Co.
Correspondence of Thomas Carlyle and Ralph Waldo Emerson. 1834-1872. 2 vols. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Davis, I. P. Hygiene for Girls. D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.
"Dex Ale." Revised and Reprinted from the Paris edition of 1881. New York.
Eaton, D. C. Greek Culture. Selections from Friedrich's Bausteine. Parts 1, 2, 3. New Haven.
Field, H. M. On the Desert: with a Brief Review of Recent Events in Egypt. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Graham, H. G. Rousseau. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Haweis, Rev. H. R. American Humorists. Funk & Wagnalls. 15 cents.
Hawthorne, N. A Wonder Book. Tanglewood Tales and Grandfather's Chair. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hawthorne, N. The House of the Seven Gables, and the Snow Image, and Twice-Told Tales. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hawthorne, J. Dust: a Novel. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1 25.
Hay, Mary Cecil. Bid Me Discourse. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
Hutton, J. James and Philip Van Arteveld. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
James, W. P. Guesses at Purpose in Nature, with Especial Reference to Plants. E. & J. B. Young. 60 cents.
James, H., Jr. The Siege of London, the Pension Beaurepas, and the Point of View. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Lowell Birthday Book. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Martin and Moale. Handbook of Vertebrate Dissection. Part 2. How to Dissect a Bird. Macmillan & Co. 60 cts.
Muzzey, A. B. Reminiscences and Memorials of Men of the Revolution and their Families. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

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For Interest and Rents, less taxes	784,678 83	
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Total		$18,758,020 10
DISBURSEMENTS.		
Death Claims	$1,004,869 00	
Matured and Discounted Endowments	333,914 00	
Cancelled and Surrendered Policies	134,500 67	
Distribution of Surplus	516,903 99	
Total paid to Policy Holders	$1,990,187 66	
Commissions to Agents	130,305 66	
Salaries, Medical Fees, and Advertising	103,162 67	
Printing, Stationery, and all other incidental expenses at Home Office and Agencies	99,782 41	
Interest paid or Premium on Investments and accrued interest thereon	2,399 85	2,325,838 25
		$16,432,181 85
LIABILITIES.		
Reserve at 4 per cent., Mass. standard	$13,645,165 56	
Balance Distributions unpaid	78,765 06	
Death and Endowment Claims unpaid	140,959 00	13,864,889 62
Surplus, Mass. standard, 4 per cent.		$2,567,292 23

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 8, 1883.

The Week.

THAT the Tariff Bill was a game of grab played on a large scale, is made apparent by the cries of those participants who lost more than they gained by it. There is a knot of iron and steel-mongers in Pittsburgh who appear to be in a state of extreme exasperation toward Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, and Senator Morrill, of Vermont, who, they say, sacrificed their principles. This appears to be the view also of Mr. Henry Carey Baird, of Philadelphia, who is reported as saying "that the bill is a surrender on the part of men professing to be protectionists; a sort of peace offering to the free foreign traders; a surrender of the outworks which those people have refused to accept." The meaning of all this is that genuine protection, of the simon-pure brand, is the highest rate of duty, on every article, that anybody wants; and that anything short of this is a surrender of one's principles to the "free foreign traders." The hoop-iron, cotton-tie, and tin-plate makers wanted something which they did not get; therefore the outworks of our national defences are gone. We must say that, while there is something ludicrous in the spectacle of Mr. H. C. Baird assailing Mr. Kelley for unfaithfulness to the doctrines of protection, there is nevertheless some logical force in Mr. Baird's position. Protection means keeping the hated foreign thing out of our markets. If it does not do this, it is only half-protection, quarter-protection, fractional protection. But if we leave it to an ignorant or ill-informed Congress to fix and determine what these fractions shall be, how can we expect anything better than these blundering bills?

The general aspects of trade in the United States have improved somewhat in several respects in the last ten days. One of the principal items is a greatly increased movement of grain, cattle, and hogs into the principal Western primary markets. This indicates an increase in the volume of all other mercantile and industrial business at the West. The adjournment of Congress has also removed one cause of uneasiness, especially in the iron trade. The anticipations of reductions in the tariff do not seem to have had a very depressing effect on the importations of foreign goods, as we find that the amounts of imports at the port of New York in the week ending February 24 were $4,502,568, against only $2,149,123 in the preceding week, and that the amounts withdrawn from warehouse and thrown upon the market showed an equal increase. Exports of breadstuffs keep up well, and by the latest report of the Bureau of Statistics it is shown that in the four months ending January 31 the value of our exports was $92,749,136 in excess of the value of our imports. It now begins to appear that, in consequence of this large trade balance in our favor, the movement of specie from London to New York in the near future is not improbable. On Monday and Tuesday, March 5 and 6, £200,000 of gold were withdrawn from the Bank of England for export to America; and though rates of foreign exchange were not down to the figures generally assumed as the "gold-importing point," it is asserted by some of the most prominent drawers of foreign bills that, in view of the low rates of interest in London and the higher rates here, the specie could be imported, even at Tuesday's rates for exchange, without loss. The rates of interest for money in all American markets have been hardening for the last ten days. The rates for discount of mercantile paper in New York have advanced 1 per cent. in the last week, and are now 6½ and 7½ per cent. for discounts of prime single-name paper, against 5½ and 6½ a week ago. The advance in rates for money has had a depressing effect on the stock market; but on the other hand, the probable imports of specie, which will be influenced by the higher rates for money, will probably have the effect to advance prices ere long. As compared with a week ago, the general list of active stocks on the market has advanced an average of 3 per cent.

For some time it had been rumored that the Mikes, and Barneys, and Clints, and John F. Smyths were determined that so impracticable a civil-service reformer as Mr. Burt, of the Naval Office, must no longer be permitted to hold an important place in the Custom-house. But it was supposed that the President, who professes to be a civil-service reformer himself, would easily see the desirability of having a man of Mr. Burt's stamp in just such a position of practical administration to serve as a model and a guiding influence, and that the urgency of the Mikes and Barneys would be harmless. But, in fact, Mr. Burt's position has been given to Mr. Graham, who, without disrespect be it said, does not equal, far less excel, him in official efficiency. Mr. Burt was at the same time nominated for the Chief Examinership under the Civil-Service Commission. This is an honorable place, and Mr. Burt was unquestionably well fitted for it. But the President himself must have doubted very much whether Mr. Burt would be able to take it. The salary of the Naval Officer is $8,000; that of the Chief Examiner is $3,000. Mr. Burt has a family, but no fortune. To accept an office which involves a reduction of income from $8,000 to $3,000, and at the same time a change of residence, without permitting the making of an additional income by outside activity, is to such a man a difficult if not an impossible thing. The President ought to have known that. If he did not, a simple telegraphic despatch would have brought him the information in half an hour. The upshot is, that while Mr. Benedict, Mr. Graham, and Mr. Wickham are promoted to higher places, and others, such as Mr. Tate and Mr. Smart and Mr. Root, to honorable positions from private life, Mr. Burt, the best, and in fact the only true civil-service reformer of them all, is "promoted" out of the service. The offer of the Chief Examinership is so thin a disguise of the determination to get rid of him that it rather aggravates than mitigates the discreditable character of the act. The sincerity of the President's civil-service reform professions has been very seriously put in question by himself.

Speaker Keifer was determined to make his mark once more before he left the scene. Just before the expiration of Congress and of his power as Speaker he asked one of the shorthand reporters, Mr. Tyson, to resign, so that he (Mr. Keifer) might put his own nephew into his place. Considering that the period of very severe work was just closing, and that the shorthand reporters of Congress would now have a somewhat comfortable time until next December, Mr. Tyson thought it hard that he should give up his place for the time when the salary would be easily earned, for no other purpose than that Mr. Keifer's nephew might enjoy it as a sinecure. But Speaker Keifer insisted, and threatened to remove him if the resignation did not come forth. Then Mr. Tyson resigned under duress, and Mr. Keifer's nephew was put in, to get during the summer a handsome salary for doing little or nothing. This is about as scandalous a thing as can well be imagined. But, after all, it must be recognized that Mr. Keifer went about it in the bluff, frankly brutal manner of a man who has nothing to conceal. And in this respect we rather prefer his straightforward, highwayman-like style of accomplishing his purpose to the circuitous, hypocritical trick by which Mr. Burt was eliminated from the service. Mr. Keifer did not know that he ought to have been ashamed of what he was doing. But the manner in which, in obedience to the "boys," Mr. Burt was ejected from his place, showed that the President actually was ashamed of what he was doing, though he still did it.

We pay close attention to all Stalwart gatherings, club-meetings, dinners, "banquets," reunions, and the like, and read all Stalwart letters, speeches, and addresses carefully, for the purpose of finding out what a Stalwart is, and what he thinks or desires, but thus far in vain. We pay special heed for this reason to the utterances of the Rev. Dr. Newman, the Stalwart chaplain, including even his sermons, knowing him to be an effusive and genial divine, who is apt to blurt things out when he feels in good spirits; but on this point he is dumb as a tombstone. At the dinner of the Lincoln Club, the other day, we felt sure the secret would slip out, but it did not. The speakers all avoided it, though there were numerous obscure allusions to it. The "Grant Club," an Albany Stalwart institution maintained by the estimable John F. Smyth, had a dinner last week, at which many letters from distinguished absentees were read, but they were all absolutely discreet. Mr. J. Howard King called on the Stalwarts to "close up their record, inscribe 'forgive and forget' on their banners," and "turn attention

to the old-time enemy," but gave no reason for recommending this truly mysterious behavior. Mr. George Bliss—*the* George Bliss—hoped "the occasion would lead in some manner to the reuniting of the Republican party," but did not say in what manner. Mr. Martin I. Townsend said "his heart would be with them," but did not say what about. Mr. Roscoe Conkling was more hidden and mysterious than any of them. He said it was pleasant to know that they were "tried and true, and steadfast in the faith," but did not say what "the faith" was. It may, for aught we can tell, be faith in John F. Smyth. He also remarked that the Grant Club can say: "We abode in the ship; we tried to hold her in her course." But why did they abide in the ship? What ship was it? What was her course? Where is she now, and who is navigating her?

A correspondent, apropos of the warrant issued for Sheridan's arrest, asks: "Has the Secretary of State a right to issue a warrant of arrest under *any* circumstances? If so, can such warrant be placed in the hands of a foreign Minister for service? In times of peace, can warrants of arrest be issued by any but magistrates and judges, on affidavits?" The Revised Statutes provide that persons charged with crimes under an extradition treaty may be arrested "upon complaint made under oath," and brought before a Judge or Commissioner, who certifies all the proceedings to the Secretary of State; and the Secretary, if a treaty crime is made out, issues his warrant for the surrender (U. S. R. S., Sec. 5,270). Warrants are served, as a general thing, by marshals. Our laws do not permit the British Minister to serve warrants, either in time of peace or war, nor would his official and social duties leave him time for such work. Our correspondent wishes that Mr. Frelinghuysen would recollect that "Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty." We sincerely hope it is not necessary to remind him of this. An American statesman who forgets what the price of liberty is, or shows signs of believing that it is "marked down," to suit the times, to occasional vigilance or casual vigilance, is not the man to be intrusted with such a place as that of Secretary of State. Only the one-price system is compatible with the perpetuity of free institutions.

Mr. West, the British Minister, was asked on Sunday about the Sheridan extradition, and frankly stated that he knew nothing whatever about the strength or weakness of the Government's case; the depositions of the witnesses, or, in other words, the evidence, not having reached him. It appears from his statement, however, that he believes that if he can get a favorable decision from the Commissioner here, and no objection is raised by the State Department, he will secure Sheridan's surrender without further trouble. But there can be little doubt that Sheridan will, if things look badly for him, do his utmost to bring the matter before the courts. Under the recent decisions of our courts, to which we have more than once referred, extradition is not simply a matter between the two Governments, but, at least in this country, the prisoner may himself call for the aid of the courts if the treaty is violated. In the cases which have arisen, the prisoners, having been surrendered by England to this country for trial, secured their release by showing that they were being prosecuted for an offence other than that for which they had been surrendered—an offence outside the treaty. For instance, a fugitive from this country to England, surrendered for murder and proceeded against here for treason (a political offence outside the treaty), could get himself set free at once, provided these decisions were followed. Now, suppose the case reversed, and that Sheridan, having asylum here, and being in danger of being surrendered by the United States to England for "murder," under the treaty, wishes to show that the murder was really a political crime, and therefore not covered by the treaty, can the judges refuse to hear him? Must they vindicate the right of asylum in one case and wash their hands of it in the other?

According to a cable despatch, the London *Law Times* makes the suggestion with regard to the Sheridan extradition case that the Ashburton Treaty contains no proviso preventing the surrender of political refugees. Its idea seems to be that Sheridan's case is outside the treaty, and that the State Department can surrender him if it chooses. This is law with a vengeance. When the treaty of 1842 was sent to the Senate President Tyler said: "In this careful and specific enumeration of crimes, the object has been to exclude all political offences, or criminal charges arising from wars or intestine commotions." Even Mr. Fish, in the Winslow correspondence, in which he endeavored to show that a man who was extradited for a treaty crime could not object if he were tried for an offence outside the treaty, expressly disclaimed all idea that political refugees were to be regarded as criminals by either country. He referred to it as a thing "inherently impossible," and as "beyond the possibility of contemplation." Since that time, too, two very important decisions have been rendered, one by the Kentucky Court of Appeals (Com. v. Hawes, 13 Kentucky Rep.), and the other by the United States District Court in California (U. S. v. Watts, 14 Federal Reporter, No. 3), in which the treaty has been thoroughly examined, and it has been expressly held that it excludes political and all other offences not expressly included in it. Sheridan must be extradited, if at all, for the crime of common murder, "upon such evidence of criminality," to follow the language of the treaty, "as, according to the laws of the place" where he is found, "would justify his apprehension and commitment for trial if the crime or offence had there been committed."

It appears as if Englishmen were beginning to see the bearing on the extradition of Sheridan, and, it may be, of other Irish conspirators, of the attempt, in which Mr. Forster has been the most prominent actor, to make the Dublin assassinations the work, not of a small band of conspirators, but of the Land League, headed by Mr. Parnell and his Parliamentary followers. This attempt was really begun immediately after the murders in Phœnix Park. It was, perhaps, not unnatural, in the excitement and anger of the moment, that many Englishmen should be disposed to lay on the promoters of the Irish agitation the blame of all the crimes which anybody who shared in it had committed. But it was very bad politics to allow this feeling to find formal or frequent expression. Mr. Gladstone, it is but just to say, avoided it. He refused to regard the Phœnix Park assassinations as the crime either of the Irish people or any considerable part of it, as the Tories and a very large body of his own followers would undoubtedly have wished him to do. He refused to lay aside on account of it his scheme of relief and conciliation, and passed the Arrears Bill just as if nothing had occurred to throw doubt on the utility of conciliation. This was the part of wisdom, even if he supposed that every man in Ireland was an assassin. Burke said that you cannot draw an indictment against a whole people. He might have added that even if you could, it would not be sound policy to do it. Large masses of men cannot be punished. They have to be won over. No matter how low your opinion of them may be, if you have to govern them you must conceal it, and act as if you thought well of them. If invective and sweeping generalization, directed against whole races and creeds, were of any use as reformatory agencies, the Irish ought now to be the happiest and most virtuous people on the globe.

It would have been well if Mr. Gladstone could have imposed his own statesmanlike reserve on all his followers. He was not able to do so. Mr. Forster committed the great folly the other day of charging complicity in or connivance at the assassinations not only on Parnell and his Parliamentary followers, but on the Land League, an association which we have no doubt included the vast majority of the Irish farmers and small shop-keepers. This was unfortunate, even with reference to domestic politics alone, because it could not do any good. It exasperated the Land Leaguers, and made, we venture to say, not one human being think ill of them who had previously thought well. Since then Lord Hartington has had the extreme imprudence—to use a mild term—to declare that although Ireland ought to have representative county government, it would be dangerous to give it now; which is a roundabout way of saying that the bulk of the people are animated by designs dangerous to the public peace and security. This was mere exasperation, and for no apparent practical result. But now comes from this unfortunate freedom of speech an immediate inconvenience. If it were generally agreed that the "Invincibles" were a small body of conspirators, without popular support or connivance, like most other murderers, there would probably be little difficulty in obtaining Sheridan's extradition. His chance of safety lies in making it clear that the Invincibles—if he was one of them—were a political body, fairly representing the feelings and aims of a large body of his countrymen; or, in other words, that their doings have one of the characteristics of a po-

pular revolt. Mr. Forster, and several other English politicians, as well as the London *Times* and others of the London press, have, by magnifying the Invincibles into a very widespread organization, been actually helping him to make his crime—if he be guilty—appear a political one, and to furnish our Government with solid reasons for refusing to deliver him. In fact, nearly everything that has been said in England, in the anti-Irish sense, including Mr. Forster's speech, since Carey's confession, has helped to make any Irish fugitive criminals there may be in this country feel safer. It puts them in the category of the Nihilists, and the Carbonari, and the French Reds, and divers other tyrant-killers whom England in times past has been proud to shelter, and makes easy work for our State Department in declining their extradition.

The reply of the select committee appointed by the Trustees of Columbia College to the petitioners who asked for higher educational advantages for women in connection with the college, is not as gracious as it might be. There is something like a lofty assumption of superior intelligence, not to say something like a desire to administer a snub, in the language in which the Committee speaks of the petitioners, who in fact represent the very best class of our citizens. The Committee also inveighs with great vigor against the idea of a co-education of the two sexes as a revolutionary thing, while the petitioners had repeatedly protested that co-education in the ordinary sense was not at all the thing they were asking for. The emphasis with which the Committee dwells upon this point, reminds us of the time when the anti-slavery men were insisting upon the exclusion of slavery from the Territories, and when the slaveholders met them with this knock-down argument: "Do you want your daughter to marry a nigger?" Finally, the Committee recommend that a plan be drawn up for a course of studies outside of the college, but aided by it; for reviews and examinations by the faculty of the college at which any young woman who has "diligently pursued the course prescribed," may present herself, and for the award to each young woman sustaining such examination a suitable diploma or testimonial attesting her success. This is something at least; perhaps more than the opening of the report encouraged us to expect. As chairman of the Committee, Dr. Dix's name heads the signatures to this report.

The return of Mr. Gladstone to England is said to have been unduly hastened—unduly as far as his health is concerned—by the growing dissensions in the Cabinet between the Radicals and Whigs, or rather between Mr. Chamberlain and the Whigs, for Mr. Chamberlain now seems to be the only representative the Radicals have in the Cabinet. Sir Charles Dilke has very distinctly announced his withdrawal into the ranks, if not of the Whigs, of the Moderates or "Opportunists," as they are called in France; and between Lord Hartington and Mr. Chamberlain there is a breach which nothing less potent than Mr. Gladstone's influence can bridge over. The latest collision in their speeches out of doors is over Irish county government. Mr. Chamberlain says it ought to be reformed at once. Lord Hartington says it would be dangerous to reform it until the Irish begin to behave better, and that it is, therefore, not to be thought of at present. He is afraid that a representative county government, elected by the rate-payers or by manhood suffrage, would be used as a means of attacking property and preaching sedition. If this view should prevail generally in England, it would open up a very dismal future for what is called the Irish question. The Irish say that they do not behave well because they have grievances, and will not behave well until these are redressed. To which the Hartington branch of the Whigs make answer that they must behave well before the grievances can be redressed. As the Irish can evidently display fully as much persistence in behaving badly as the English in refusing to redress grievances, this Whig view appears to keep the Irish question in the vicious circle in which it has been revolving for two hundred years; and the Radicals are able to oppose to it the fact that if it had uninterruptedly prevailed in all cases, the English would never have got their Reform Bill and the Irish their Catholic Emancipation.

Mr. Chamberlain, who is very obnoxious to the Whigs, as well as to the Tories, on the ground that he is the originator and promoter of that detestable thing the caucus, is weighted heavily as a Cabinet officer by the fact that he is the only one who has no social backing in London. The others are all members of what is called London Society, and have at least a fair share of such countenance (which is, to be sure, not much) as London Society gives to Mr. Gladstone and his followers. Mr. Chamberlain is, however, distinctively a manufacturer from the provinces, and especially from that most odious bit of the provinces, Birmingham, and has little or no "show," as the pugilists call it, in the Metropolitan world. He is, in the eyes of the clubs and dinner parties, an even more odious enemy to the established social order than Gladstone himself. His admission to the Ministry was largely due to Gladstone's recognition of the strength in Scotland and the great towns of the way of looking at politics which Mr. Chamberlain represents. None of the other members of the Cabinet perceive it so clearly, and they are really only sustained in their toleration of these opinions, or in their support of them, in the teeth of the hostility of the wealthier classes in London, by the dominating influence of Mr. Gladstone. It must not be forgotten, too, in witnessing or wondering over the dissensions in Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet which have led to the withdrawal of the Duke of Argyll, Mr. Forster, and Mr. Bright in succession, that hardly one of the questions now before the country came up in the canvass of 1880. That canvass consisted in the main of a very brilliant assault on the policy of the Tories, which was entirely a foreign policy. They had no domestic measures to be condemned or resisted. The principal reason given for turning them out of office was that they were involving the country in disastrous wars all over the globe. About home matters the Liberals had nothing to say except that Mr. Gladstone might be trusted to do what was right. Consequently, Ireland, as well as Egypt, is a new question, upon which the Ministers had never compared views till it came upon them after taking office, and it has been made more grave by the fact that it has lost the religious character which it possessed for over a century and taken on a social and agrarian character, which is full of suggestion touching their own condition for Englishmen. The attitude of the Cabinet toward it, in fact, is very much like that of the Republican party toward the tariff—that is, a slightly bewildered and puzzled one, which makes a man with clear and decided views on it, like Chamberlain, seem a little odious.

The conference recently assembled at London for the purpose of settling anew the status and conditions of the European Commission of the Danube has renewed that international institution, as the cable reports, for twenty-one years from next month, when its present term of twelve years expires. The Commission was created by the Treaty of Paris in 1856, its existence prolonged for twelve years by an agreement in March, 1871, and its authority enlarged by the Congress of Berlin in 1878. It consists of representatives of the seven signatory powers of the Treaty of Berlin, and of Rumania. Its seat is Galatz, and it possesses certain sovereign rights over the portions of the Danube below that Rumanian city, which entitle it to regulate the navigation, guard its freedom and security, improve its facilities by the construction of new works, levy imposts, and contract loans. Before the convocation of the London Conference the claims of Austria-Hungary to have a disproportionate share in the management of the Commission, and the demand of Rumania—which had risen to the dignity of a kingdom—to be admitted to the Conference on a footing of equality with the Powers, had led to very acrimonious discussions in the press, to a lively exchange of diplomatic notes, and to vehement manifestations of national pride and resolution in the Parliament of Bucharest. The Vienna Cabinet was, however, strengthened by its alliance with Germany, by the disinclination of France to place herself in a state of antagonism to the interests of that alliance, and by the readiness of Russia, in her present position of uncomfortable isolation, to sacrifice the interests of Rumania for the sake of a much-needed reconciliation with the two neighboring Empires. M. Giers's visit to Vienna smoothed the way for an arrangement altogether favorable, as it appears, to the demands of Austria-Hungary. In regard to her leadership in the Commission a friendly compromise proposal of French origin was adopted, and Rumania was granted no more than Servia, another new riparian kingdom—that is, merely a consultative voice in the Conference. Rumania spurned this offer, and instructed her representative in London to abstain from participation in the deliberations and to enter a most emphatic protest, declaring that resolutions adopted without her consent, and with such flagrant disregard of vital national interests and rights, would not be binding on her. This protest remained unheeded.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, February 28, to TUESDAY, March 6, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON Wednesday the Senate passed the bill to increase the pensions of one-armed and one-legged soldiers, and showed a disposition to reconsider the motion by which they had agreed to a conference with the House on a tariff bill, but no action was taken. Messrs. Bayard and Beck withdrew from the conference which met that evening, and on Thursday much time was spent in the appointment of their successors. Messrs. Mahone and McDill finally accepted the positions. Several amendments to the Sundry Civil-Service Bill, including one appropriating $40,000 for the protection and improvement of the Yellowstone National Park, and providing for a Superintendent and ten assistants to live in the Park and take care of it, were adopted, and the bill was passed. On Friday the conference reports on the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bills, and on the Tariff Bill, were received and adopted—the latter by a vote of 32 to 31. On Saturday a motion to lay on the table the House River and Harbor Appropriation Bill was carried. Mr. Davis resigned the Presidency of the Senate, and a resolution declaring Mr. Edmunds President was adopted. The Senate remained in session until 5 o'clock Sunday morning, when a recess was taken till 9 o'clock. The Tariff Bill was received from the House, was signed by the President of the Senate, and sent to President Arthur, who at once signed it. Several of the general appropriation bills were received from the House and passed. At 12 o'clock on Sunday Mr. Edmunds declared the Forty-seventh Congress adjourned *sine die*.

In the House on Wednesday Mr. Randall declined to serve as member of the Tariff Conference Committee, and Mr. Speer was appointed in his place. The River and Harbor Bill was discussed in the evening. On Thursday the River and Harbor Bill was passed by a vote of 112 to 90 after a stormy scene. On Friday the Senate Pension Bill, the Naval Bill, and the Legislative and Army Appropriation Bills were passed; and on Saturday, the Conference Tariff Bill, by a vote of 152 to 116. In the night the last of the contested-election cases were disposed of by the seating of Mr. Cook (Greenbacker), of Iowa, and adopting the minority report of the Committee, declaring Mr. Lee (colored, Republican), of South Carolina, elected; but the Democrats filibustered, and refused to reject the majority report, so that Mr. Lee was not seated. The Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill was passed, thus disposing of all the appropriation bills. A strenuous attempt was made to take up the Bonded Whiskey Bill, but in vain. The House met at 9 o'clock Sunday morning, and the customary resolution tendering a vote of thanks to the Speaker was offered. It was of course passed, but eight members deliberately voted against it. The death of Alexander H. Stephens was announced, and resolutions of respect adopted. The Speaker then made his closing address, containing the usual congratulations, and the session ended.

One of Speaker Keifer's last official acts was to dismiss, without cause, Mr. Tyson, one of the stenographers of the House appointed last winter, and appoint his (Mr. Keifer's) nephew in his place. The conclusion drawn is that the Speaker dismissed Mr. Tyson in order that his nephew might draw the salary during the vacation, when there will be no work. This act has excited much adverse comment.

The President on Thursday nominated S. W. Burt, the Naval Officer in the New York Custom-house, for Chief Examiner under the Civil-Service Commission, and Elihu Root for District Attorney of the Southern District of New York, to succeed Mr. Woodford. Mr. Burt declined the nomination, on the ground that he could not afford to take the place on account of the smallness of the salary, and on Friday, Edward O. Graves, Superintendent of the National Bank Redemption Agency of the Treasury Department, was nominated in his stead. Mr. Graves also declined the nomination. Charles K. Graham was nominated for Mr. Burt's place as Naval Officer. These nominations, which were confirmed by the Senate, have been generally approved by the press, with the exception of that of Mr. Burt, which is regarded as a plan to get him out of the Custom-house, since it was tolerably well known that he would decline the position of Chief Examiner under the Civil-Service Commission.

Some important decisions in cases involving the efforts of creditors to hold States to their contracts in the issue of bonds, were handed down by the Federal Supreme Court on Monday. In 1874 the Legislature of the State of Louisiana passed an act consolidating the bonds of the State in a new loan, and a special tax levy was provided to meet the requirements of the loan. In 1879 a new State Constitution was adopted, containing a debt ordinance making a new adjustment of the debt of the State, and changing the tax levy so as to make it impossible for the Board of Liquidation of the State to meet the requirements of the act of 1874 in case it should be held binding. Certain bondholders, citizens of the State, brought suit and asked for a mandamus compelling the officers of the Board of Liquidation to carry out the provisions of the law of 1874. The Supreme Court holds that the Executive officers of the State constituting the Board of Liquidation are subject to the Constitution and laws of the State, and that the judiciary of the United States cannot intervene between the State and its officers and take control of the action of the latter. Another decision holds that a citizen of one State cannot collect his claims against the government of another State by the assignment of his claims to the government of his own State and the bringing of a suit by the latter. The main ground of the decision is that such a proceeding is in the nature of an attempt to evade the restrictions of the Eleventh Amendment to the Constitution, and that citizens of a State can maintain no action through and in the name of a State, which they could not maintain of their own right and in their own name.

The decrease of the national debt in the month of February amounted to a little more than $7,500,000, or only a little more than half the average monthly reduction for the seven months ending January 31. The total reduction since June 30, 1882, or for two-thirds of the current fiscal year, is a little more than $102,500,000. The Secretary estimated the surplus for the year at $120,000,000, to which $15,000,000 may be added because of an excessive appropriation for pensions. These figures indicate an average monthly reduction of about $8,000,000 for the remaining four months of the fiscal year.

Mr. James Gilfillan, Treasurer of the United States, has handed in his resignation, to take effect on the 1st of April.

The Chief of the Bureau of Statistics reports that the excess of the value of exports of merchandise for the month of January, 1883, was $23,397,430; for the seven months ended January 31, 1883, $77,972,899. The imports of merchandise for the twelve months ended January 31, 1883, were $752,727,367, and for the twelve months ended January 31, 1882, $681,880,814, showing an increase of $70,846,553. The exports for the same period were $783,298,409 and $824,391,216, respectively, showing a decrease of $41,092,807.

Alexander H. Stephens, Governor of Georgia and ex-Vice-President of the Confederate States, died in Atlanta, Ga., on Sunday morning. He was born in Taliaferro County, Ga., in 1812. He served in the House of Representatives from 1843 to the close of the Thirty-fifth Congress. When Georgia seceded from the Union, he went with his State. He was elected Vice-President of the Confederacy to conciliate the moderate Secessionists in the South, and was never fully in accord with Jefferson Davis. After the close of the war he accepted the situation, and made many conciliatory speeches. He was elected a member of the Forty-third Congress and served till the end of the session of 1882. He was elected Governor of Georgia by a large majority last fall.

James S. Boynton, President of the State Senate, was sworn in as Governor of Georgia on Monday. He has ordered an election to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. Stephens, to take place on April 24.

On Thursday the long contest, said to be unprecedented in the history of the State, for the election of a United States Senator from Michigan, was terminated by the election of Thomas W. Palmer, of Detroit, to succeed Senator Ferry.

The Republican State Convention of Michigan convened in East Saginaw on Wednesday. Austin Blair was nominated for Justice of the Supreme Court, for the long term, and Thos. J. O'Brien for the short term. Henry B. Hutchins was nominated for Regent of the University, for the full term, and Joseph C. Jones, of Saginaw, for the short term. The Convention broke up amid confusion.

The Republican State Committee of Connecticut on Monday night elected Senator Orville H. Platt a member of the Republican National Committee in place of Marshall Jewell.

The Fusion-Greenback State Central Committee of Maine held a meeting Wednesday night, in which every county was represented. It was decided to act with the Democratic party in 1884, and to ignore totally the Solon Chase Greenbackers.

The Grand Jury at Milwaukee, in their final report on the Newhall House disaster, held the owners blameless and mildly censured the landlord. They said, in regard to the hotel building: "We find that the Newhall House was constructed in as substantial a manner as such buildings usually are; that there was scarcely a hotel in the country as easy of egress as the Newhall House; and that the owners had done all that was reasonable for protection and escape in case of accident."

The latest news from the lower Mississippi River is that the water at Helena is rising at the rate of about half an inch per hour, and it is now thought that the highest mark of last year will be reached. Accounts from the section between Friar's Point and Vicksburg on the Mississippi side of the river are that the levees there are still unbroken and no danger is apprehended, the planters being busy ploughing and putting in their crops. A Helena despatch says: "The Fitzhugh Levee, five miles south of this city, gave way last night. This morning the crevasse was over one hundred yards wide, and was becoming rapidly wider. The rush of water through the opening was terrific. The whole country around Old Town is believed to be inundated."

FOREIGN.

The British Government has made demands upon the Governments of the United States and France, for the extradition of Sheridan and Byrne respectively, for complicity in the Phœnix Park murders. The warrant of arrest for Sheridan was granted by Secretary Frelinghuysen, but no further steps have been taken by the English Government. It is believed that they are waiting to obtain such evidence as to establish a clear legal presumption against him. Meanwhile the question of whether Sheridan is subject to extradition is exciting discussion both here and in England.

Byrne, on the other hand, has been arrested in Paris on the direct charge of assassination, and on Wednesday he appeared before the Public Prosecutor. He denied that he was

guilty of assassination, and refused to reply to further questioning. He is kept a close prisoner. The Council of Ministers will finally decide whether he shall be surrendered or not, and are awaiting the arrival of documents from England before passing upon the question. The friends of Byrne have sent for evidence to prove an alibi for him on the 6th of May last, the day upon which the Phœnix Park murders were committed. On Monday it was stated that two Irish members of Parliament had made affidavits that they saw Byrne in London on the above-mentioned date. If an alibi is proved, it is expected that the French Government will at once set him at liberty. His arrest has caused violent attacks upon the Government in the French Radical newspapers.

Fifty suspicious persons are said to have left Ireland since the inquiry at the Castle was begun. A Dublin despatch to the *Daily News* on Saturday said: "The police have made startling discoveries at Rochdale. Lists of the names of the chief members of various secret societies, and documents disclosing their extent, have been seized at the lodgings, in Rochdale, of Walsh, who has been arrested at Havre, and who has been organizing a secret society in the North of England. Correspondence with Byrne regarding the organization, and a photograph of 'Number One,' clearly establishing his identity, were also found." The extradition of Walsh has been demanded from France. The letters seized at his house are said to reveal the fact that 6,000 men, amply provided with funds and revolvers, were enrolled in a secret society, which he was organizing in the North of England. Arrests continue to be made in Ireland.

A despatch from Loughrea, Ireland, says that the distress among the people there is alarming. Crowds besiege the houses of the priests, clamoring for food. Mr. Childers, Chancellor of the Exchequer, discussing the distress in Ireland in the House of Commons, on Wednesday, said that the Government would not shrink from taking strong measures if they were likely to have permanent effect. He pointed out that wages were high, and that the distress only affected overcrowded districts. He hoped that the Irish members would do what they could to restore confidence in Ireland, so that promoters of public works would be able to obtain loans from private sources instead of from the Government.

In the House of Commons on Thursday Mr. Parnell complained of the seeming intention of the Government to relieve the distress in Ireland by poorhouses and emigration. The Right Hon. Lyon Playfair announced that his resignation as Deputy Speaker was caused by ill health, and the Marquis of Hartington gave notice that he would on Friday move the appointment of Sir Arthur J. Otway to the office, and on Friday the latter was unanimously elected. A motion offered by Mr. Richard O'Shaughnessy, member for the city of Limerick, declaring it expedient to introduce in Ireland the principle of compulsory education, was agreed to. On Monday Mr. Gladstone entered the House for the first time since his return from Cannes. He was received with loud cheers from all sides. The Under Foreign Secretary, in reply to a question, said the surrender of P. J. Sheridan had been asked of the United States Government, but that he was unable to say anything further in regard to the matter. Mr. Parnell having asked a question touching "the starving condition of the people of Ireland," Mr. Trevelyan in reply denied the existence of such distress as was alluded to by Mr. Parnell. Mr. Gladstone stated that the Government intended to withdraw the troops from Egypt as soon as the aims of the occupation had been obtained. These were the establishment of order and liberty and the security of the passage of the Suez Canal. On Monday night he said the recent surmise of Lord Hartington, that the evacuation of Egypt might be completed in six months, was merely an expression of hope founded on circumstances as far as they had gone.

The House of Lords on Tuesday again appointed a committee of inquiry into the effect of the Irish Land Act. Lord Carlingford, Lord Privy Seal, adhered to his former opinion that such an inquiry would do no good, but he did not oppose it.

A despatch from Dublin says: It is expected that Messrs. Brennan and Egan and several of Mr. Parnell's followers in the House of Commons will accompany the latter to America. Their intention is to give a full account to the Irish in America of the way in which the funds of the Land League were disposed of.

It is stated that Mr. Gladstone, in an interview on Tuesday, February 27, with President Grévy and M. Challemel-Lacour, Minister of Foreign Affairs, appeared to be desirous to end the present tension between France and England. It is believed that fresh negotiations relative to Egypt are impending, not, as hitherto, on the basis of a *condominium*, but on an arrangement that will place France in a more favorable position than she now occupies.

A despatch from Cairo says that Abd-el-Kader Pasha has arrived at Senaar, after severely defeating the False Prophet, who lost 2,000 men.

A general meeting of the National Rifle Association was held in London on Wednesday. The Duke of Cambridge, who presided, referred to the American team in the last international match. He said that nothing could exceed the kindness and hospitality which the Americans showed to the British team during the visit of the latter to the United States. The Council of the Association, he said, looked forward with pleasure to giving an American team a most hearty welcome at Wimbledon.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Monday, on the question of taking into consideration the proposals for a revision of the Constitution, M. Ferry, the Prime Minister, formally refused to court a repulse by presenting any such proposal to the Senate. The Government, he said, would energetically bring the matter before the Chambers, when it believed that a revision was possible; the present moment was inopportune. The people would withdraw their support from the Republic if they saw it meant instability and agitation. The question was one for friendly compromise, and should not be raised as a means of revenge against the Senate. An attempt might be made before the elections in 1885 to induce the Senate to accept a revision.

The question of the revision of the Constitution came up again in the French Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday. The President of the Chamber read a motion declaring that the Chamber, having confidence in the Government, rejected the proposal to consider the matter of a revision. M. Ferry accepted the motion, and it was adopted by a vote of 307 to 182.

In the French Senate on Thursday General Thibaudin, Minister of War, replying to an interpellation, said that the presence of Princes in the Army was unconstitutional. The Duc d'Audiffret-Pasquier, Orléanist, reproached General Thibaudin with having committed an act which nobody else could be found to perform. On Saturday the Senate adopted a bill organizing French jurisdiction in Tunis.

A Legitimist meeting was held at Lille, France, on Sunday, at which five thousand persons were present. MM. Baudry-d'Asson, Deputy, and Barbès delivered addresses in which they violently attacked the Republic. A resolution was unanimously adopted pledging all persons present to support the royalist cause in the coming struggle.

A band of masked and armed men, supposed to be members of a secret society, entered a farm at Puerto Serrano, Andalusia, Spain, and murdered the men, assaulted the women, and destroyed everything on the place. Several plantations in Andalusia have been partially destroyed by similar bands. Some emissaries of a secret society who have been arrested were found furnished with fresh orders from their chief, a schoolmaster, who has also been arrested.

In the Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday, Señor Candam declared that a society called the "Black Hand," similar to the Internationale, existed in Spain, which aimed at collective instead of individual rights of property. The Minister of the Interior replied that he had known for a year of the existence of such a society, and had placed the affair in the hands of the authorities. He said the Prefects in Andalusia had been directed to protect the farmers.

The Chamber of Deputies on Thursday rejected, by a vote of 126 to 45, the motion introduced by the Republicans, asking for a Parliamentary inquiry with regard to the arrests that have been made in Andalusia. The Minister of the Interior said that the troubles were of ancient date; a Parliamentary inquiry was unnecessary.

It is stated that the Anarchists intend to stir up laborers to a general strike for the purpose of preventing the crops from being gathered. On Saturday the President, Secretary, and twelve members of a branch of the society were arrested in Seville, and letters and statutes of the society were seized. On Sunday more important arrests were made. The judges who are conducting the investigation in regard to the secret societies are in constant receipt of threatening letters.

General von Kameke has resigned the office of Minister of War of Germany because of difference of opinion in regard to important military principles which were discussed at a recent conference under the presidency of the Emperor. His resignation has been accepted by the Emperor, and General Blumenthal, commander of the Fourth Army Corps, appointed to succeed him.

The German Government has decided to reintroduce into the Reichstag the budget for 1884–'85.

The silver-wedding festivities of the Crown Prince and Princess of Germany, which were postponed at the time of the anniversary of the wedding on account of the death of Prince Charles, took place in Berlin on Wednesday. The streets were thronged with people. Busts of the Crown Prince and Crown Princess were exhibited at various points in the city. The city was illuminated at night.

The revenue of Russia from imports during the year 1882 exceeded that of 1881 by 13,000,000 rubles, but was less than that of 1880 by 5,500,000 rubles.

It is announced from Norway that the committee which is considering the conflict between the Crown and the Storthing has resolved, by a vote of six to three, to propose the impeachment of the Ministry.

The memorial tablet in front of the house, in Rome, formerly occupied by Prof. Samuel F. B. Morse was unveiled at 2 o'clock on Monday. Mr. Astor and the whole American Legation, Signor D'Amico, Director-General of Telegraphs, many prominent members of the American colony, and other well-known persons were present. After speeches appropriate to the occasion had been made, Mr. Astor thanked the municipality in behalf of the United States, the American colony in Rome, and all Americans, for their action in causing the erection of the tablet. Signor D'Amico, in reply, paid a high eulogy to Professor Morse. In conclusion, he said: "Rome, the mother of civilized nations, honors in Professor Morse a young nation which is splendidly paying her debt to antiquity."

Calcutta advices state that the most intense excitement is felt among Europeans because of the proposed law giving native magistrates criminal jurisdiction over whites in certain cases.

THE ADJOURNMENT OF CONGRESS.

THE Forty-seventh Congress, which expired on Sunday, will not be "pointed at with pride" by either party, for it has given less evidence of ability among its members in either branch, and it has excited more adverse criticism, than most of its predecessors. Its debates have been exhibitions of the dreariest kind of mediocrity, and its acts were the result of a helpless obedience to pushing or restraining outside forces of various kinds. It has brought forth some good legislation, but some of the best of it the majority was driven into against its own liking. On the whole, it may be said that the Congress just expired furnished a fair example of what poor material the spoils system in politics, and the kind of party management born of it, will bring to the front in ordinary times. It will be admitted that Mr. Keifer was a sorry apparition in the Speaker's chair; but it cannot be denied that in point of ability, as well as moral tone, he fairly represented the House over which he presided. Neither political party in it was under strong intellectual leadership, and neither showed any signs of being conscious of great common purposes. Evidently in this Congress the American people were, intellectually and morally, very much under-represented, if we may use such an expression.

There has been some sensible legislation with regard to the public lands and the Indian policy. Postage on ordinary letters was reduced from three to two cents. A civil-service reform bill was passed, and also a bill reducing internal-revenue taxation, and making certain changes in the tariff. On the whole, it must be said that in many respects the second session of this Congress was a decided improvement upon the first. At the first session it threatened to become the most reckless in expenditures and the most defiant in its adherence to vicious political methods that we have seen for many years. A change of tone if not of heart was brought about by the elections of last November. The same Congress which passed the most lavish River and Harbor Bill in 1882, adjourned in 1883 without appropriating a cent for such objects. The same Congress which in 1882 would have had scarcely anything but scorn and mockery for a real reform of the civil service, rolled up in 1883 enormous majorities in each house for a reform bill which scarcely a dozen members in either house could look at without secret detestation. It was an astonishing spectacle of virtue under the schoolmaster's rod. But the lack of ability and moral force was especially conspicuous in the treatment of the Tariff Bill. Congress was notoriously under the influence of the "protected industries," with the "wool interest" insisting upon this, and the "iron interest" threatening to defeat the bill if it could not have that, and so on. Nor could there be a more pitiable exhibition of readiness to bargain away principles which formerly had been treated as important, than when the House instructed its members of the Conference Committee on the Tariff Bill to bring up in that Committee the great constitutional question whether the Senate could originate revenue legislation, and then threw the question entirely aside as soon as the rates on steel and some other articles were raised.

The Republican party, being constrained to pass some kind of bill to reduce taxation, passed the only one which, under the stress of parliamentary law, could be put in shape for enactment before the 4th of March. Nothing but hard necessity could have forced the House to swallow its pride and pass a tariff bill which it had never considered in detail. Not to have passed some bill would have exposed the party to the charge of glaring incompetency, and to a summary reckoning at the polls. It is no wonder if a bill thus passed, and not so much to relieve the taxpayer as to "choke a surplus," should be at variance with sound principles of taxation. There was no decent excuse for meddling with the tobacco tax. The gross revenue from this source ought not to have been lessened. Being strictly an article of luxury, the tax upon it is a voluntary contribution to the treasury. It answers all the requirements of an unobjectionable source of public income. Next to alcoholic liquors, tobacco is the most fitting of all articles of general use to be retained as a subject of taxation. The consumers had not asked for a reduction. To throw away ten or twelve millions of revenue under such circumstances was a fiscal blunder of the first magnitude. As the Republican party can no longer subsist upon Kuklux outrages and Southern wickedness, but must maintain itself hereafter upon the less stimulating diet of taxes, tariffs, currency, public debt, and public economy, it is amazing that it should have commenced paring the revenue in the interest of chewers and smokers, who had not even petitioned for such a favor.

Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, estimates the reduction of the internal revenue provided for in the bill at $35,000,000 to $40,000,000, and the total reduction at $65,000,000 to $70,000,000. This allows $30,000,000 of reduction in the tariff—an estimate altogether without foundation, as we think. Aside from the reduction on sugar, which is supposed to be about $11,000,000, there is no reason to suppose that the customs revenue will be lessened at all. The reductions of duties are trivial in any case, and are balanced by higher rates on several important articles, such as iron ore and common earthenware. Moreover, as Mr. Morrill intimated while explaining the bill in the Senate, there is the chance that the lower duties adopted in some cases may lead to larger importations, and therefore to an increased revenue. Very much depends upon the prosperity of the country and the ability of the people to buy; but supposing these factors to remain about as heretofore, there is no reason to suppose that the aggregate revenue from customs will be diminished one cent by the tariff changes, except by the slight reduction on sugar. Nor will the reduction of the internal revenue be perceived in the returns of the present fiscal year, since the new rates do not go into effect until May 1. In the next fiscal year we may look for a shrinkage of $40,000,000, and this is perhaps all that it is prudent to throw off until we know more definitely how much is wanted by the Pension Bureau.

The effect of the tariff changes upon the industries of the country, as a whole, will be trifling, because the changes are trifling. The kaleidoscope has been turned a hair's breadth and the colors transposed a little, but the component parts are the same. As Mr. Abram S. Hewitt says, the bill "will fail of its intended effect for the reason that the industries of the country are suffering, not from foreign competition, but from the domestic competition arising out of the protection we have had for the last twenty years." How absurd to imagine that trade is to be benefited by taking a shaving off the duty on iron wire, and adding it to the duty on glue! The whole bill is made up of such piddling trivialities, excepting solely the reduction of the sugar tax. The changes are generally made upon the old-fashioned principle of robbing Peter to pay Paul—a process not likely to increase the aggregate wealth of the community.

It cannot be supposed that this bill is a finality upon the questions involved in it. Fortunately there is nothing now pressing upon the public mind with greater weight than questions of fiscal policy. The debate in Congress and the struggle of special interests in the lobby have arrested public attention more fixedly than any or all things written or said upon the subject since the close of the war. The seed sown will not fail to bear its fruit.

FEMALE SUFFRAGE.

MASSACHUSETTS appears to be the only old State in which woman suffrage continues to be a serious question. In two of the undeveloped Territories of the West we believe it is in full operation, one of them being Utah. But in the East, as in England, the interest in it has either died out or ceased to manifest itself with any fulness or vigor. Even in Massachusetts, however, where the cause has a body of unusually able and persistent advocates, it seems to be losing ground, after sixteen years of very steady agitation. In the present Legislature in that State it has just been defeated by a vote, including twenty pairs, of 147 to 80. There is some dispute as to whether this shows gain or loss; but all the gain that is claimed by one of the most ardent champions is eleven votes, which is hardly worth mention, in view of the fact that the suffragists, as well as a great many of their opponents, thought that this time, with the aid of a little encouragement from the new Governor, they would carry their point. This result was helped by a remonstrance against the measure signed by a large number of women belonging to the best circles. They maintained that those women whose influence in politics would make female suffrage in any way advantageous to the State, were already so sore beset in trying to deal with the purely social problems which American life presents, that any addition to their burdens would be cruel and useless. Children, servants, charities, housekeeping, are as much as most of them, and more than many of them, can cope with already. To impose on them the duty of mastering the merits of candidates, and counteracting the schemes of wirepullers, under our system of frequent elections and complicated nominating ma-

chinery, would be, they hold, either to compel them to neglect things much more essential to the public welfare, or to intensify that sense of unfitness for their work which is already the curse of so many women's lives. This view of the subject, too, has been strengthened by the failure of the law giving female taxpayers the right to vote at the election of school boards. It was supposed that, owing to the well-known interest of women in education, they would eagerly avail themselves of this opportunity of exerting their influence on public-school management. Nothing of the kind has happened. A few hundreds only ever registered, and the number is declining every year; and it is, moreover, alleged that one great reason for the refusal of the women to use their right is the fear that if they register they will have to pay taxes which they now escape.

In and about Boston the bill suffered from one other very potent consideration, and that is that its passage would "play into the hands of the Democrats," which is a figurative way of saying that it would in Boston, as in all other large cities in the East, work the final ruin of municipal government by adding to the votes of the corrupt and ignorant males those of their sisters and cousins and aunts. Boston is undergoing an unusually painful experience this year in having the city government taken possession of by Irish citizens, whose political education in this particular field has somehow been neglected. The change is, however, not considered irretrievable. It is ascribed to the supineness of the "better element," and to the very curious condition of parties which enabled Butler to reach the Governorship. Another year the natives hope to get back the control of the city and the taxes; but they see plainly enough that with female suffrage they would have to make up their minds to Boston's sharing the fate of New York, and passing permanently under the rule of a boss to whom the servant girls and factory girls would furnish a powerful contingent, whose devotion neither the stump nor the newspaper could shake. This is true, in spite of the fact that the Catholic Church is opposed to female suffrage, and holds strictly to the Paulist view of woman's place and functions in the Church and in society. But the Catholic Church is wise in its generation. It accepts the inevitable always, and, if possible, turns it to account. It opposes female suffrage, as it has always opposed manhood suffrage and popular government generally; but if female suffrage were established, it would undoubtedly try to extract from the evil some good for the Church and the faith. It would see that the servant girls voted right about public schools and charities, and any other little matters in which its clergy took a strong interest; and certainly no reasonable man could find fault with it for so doing. The most serious obstacle which the suffragists have to face everywhere is, however, the indifference or hostility of the great body of the women, including, too, the most earnest, thoughtful, and conscientious. This can be disposed of in debate only in one of two ways: it must either be admitted that they are too ignorant, benighted, and unreflecting to see the advantage which their voting would be both to themselves and to the community—which would ruin the argument that their appearance in the political arena would improve the politics; or it must be admitted that wise, virtuous, and reflecting as they are, they are satisfied that giving them the franchise would be injurious both to themselves and the State.

The friends of the suffrage do not seem to be agreed as to the way in which the very puzzling dilemma is to be approached. The majority, including the Rev. James Freeman Clarke, resort to the very hazardous expedient of comparing the women who do not wish to vote to the negro slaves who did not wish for their freedom. This might be effective if the men on whose minds it is intended to operate, were as far removed from the women whom it is proposed to enfranchise, as those who emancipated the negro were from the objects of their humanity. Moreover, even if the suffrage were, like liberty, one of the natural rights, those who propose to bestow it on unwilling women set before themselves a very formidable task when they try to persuade men that they need not mind what their wives and sisters say about it, and that they will do well to give them the ballot in spite of their screams. That the suffragists should expect to make progress in this way, strikes us as proof of extraordinary ignorance as to the influence women now exert on men's opinions touching all matters of politics which peculiarly affect women's condition. On a question like the bestowal of the suffrage, there are probably very few men who are not tenfold more affected by what the women of their own household say than by anything which they hear from the stump or the newspapers. If his wife or sister is foolish, ignorant, or thoughtless, this fact alone constitutes for every man an argument against female suffrage which besets him at every turn of his life, and which arms him in triple brass against the ablest *à priori* efforts of its prophets and evangelists. If, on the other hand, they are women whose judgment he respects, whose character he admires, and in whose counsels he has often found salvation at great and trying crises in his life, their unwillingness to vote is to him conclusive proof that they ought not to be asked to vote. In fact, we can recall no agitation of ancient or modern times which seems to us to be surrounded by so many difficulties as that which our woman suffragists have on their hands; for they are the only champions of the oppressed who have incurred the deep hostility and suspicion of the objects of their devotion.

THE BOND CASES.

THREE very important cases were this week decided by the Supreme Court at Washington, all involving the rights of creditors of defaulting States.

In the first of these, the States of New Hampshire and New York brought suit against the State of Louisiana, to enforce payment of repudiated bonds, held by citizens of the two former States. The Eleventh Amendment to the Constitution forbids suits against one State by citizens of another, and to meet this difficulty New York and New Hampshire passed acts authorizing the transfer to them of claims against defaulting States, and suits were then brought in the names of the respective States. The Supreme Court has decided that these suits cannot be maintained, mainly because the result would be nothing more nor less than an evasion of the Eleventh Amendment, and would practically legalize suits of private claimants against States. This decision will surprise no one, for the attempt to compel States to meet their obligations in this way was generally regarded as a desperate one not only among lawyers, but by the creditors themselves. On the whole, we think the decision is fortunate, for a practical nullification of a plain provision of the Constitution by means of a device of the kind proposed, though it might have caused a temporary satisfaction among creditors, would have tended to impair confidence in the Supreme Court. A decision the other way would have amounted to the repeal of a part of the Constitution by the resort to a legal fiction—something that, in the development of constitutional law in this country, self-respecting judges have always carefully avoided. If suits against States by private creditors in the Federal courts are a desirable thing, the true way to confer the jurisdiction upon them is that by which it was originally given, and subsequently taken away—the adoption, after proper debate and discussion, of a new rule of constitutional law for the guidance of the courts.

The decision in the Elliott cases is fully as important as the foregoing, but there was room for a difference of opinion upon one of the points involved, which is reflected in the dissenting opinions of Judges Field and Harlan. Both cases grew out of proceedings of the Louisiana Legislature, which in 1874 passed an act providing for an issue of "consolidated" bonds bearing interest at seven per cent. A Board of Liquidation was created to issue these bonds and to exchange them for the old bonds of the State, and a State tax of five and one-half mills on all property was provided for to meet the interest and principal of the debt. In 1880, by means of a new Constitution, the State passed what is known as the "debt ordinance," and "scaled" the interest to two per cent., fixed the maximum rate of taxation *for all purposes* at six mills, made the consolidated bonds exchangeable for new obligations at the rate of seventy-five cents for one dollar, the new bonds to bear interest at four per cent. In the same year Elliott and other holders of the consolidated bonds brought two suits to have the debt ordinance declared void as a violation of the contract made in 1874, and to have the provisions of the act passed in that year carried out. One was a mandamus suit brought against the Auditor, Treasurer, and Board of Liquidation, to compel them to do their duty under the act of 1874; the other was an equity suit against various State officers comprising the Board and having authority over the taxes, founded upon the idea that the proceeds of the tax of 1879 in the treasury constituted a trust fund, of which the defendants individually must be regarded as trustees, applicable to the pay-

ment of the claims of the holders of consolidated bonds.

The Supreme Court decides that, while there is no doubt that a valid contract was made with the creditors in 1874, nor that it was violated in 1880, neither remedy is open to the holders of bonds; that the contract cannot be enforced by coercing the agents and officers of the State to violate the express commands of its Constitution; to raise taxes that they are not required by State law to raise; to "use the public money in the Treasury and under their control in one way, when the supreme power has directed them to use it in another." With regard to the supposed trust, the Court says that if there is any trust, it is the State that is trustee, not the individual officers, and the State cannot be proceeded against. On the whole, neither remedy could be applied for without ousting the political power of the State and substituting the Federal judiciary in its stead.

The case of Antoni against Greenhow, the Treasurer of the city of Richmond, the last on the list, seems to us to be open to much more criticism than either of the others. This grew out of the so-called Riddleberger bill, framed by the Virginia repudiators for the purpose of preventing bondholders getting their coupons received for taxes, as under the law they were allowed to do. Before the passage of the bill, in case the coupons were not received, they had a very simple remedy in the Court of Appeals by mandamus, by which the court compelled collectors to take them. The Riddleberger bill, passed ostensibly for the purpose of preventing spurious coupons being palmed off upon the State, provided that the tax due must be paid in money, and that the coupons must be filed in the Court of Appeals, and must be sent to a local court to have the fact of their genuineness and receivability determined, subject to appeal to the Circuit Court and the Court of Appeals.

Now, the Supreme Court holds that, the coupons being receivable for taxes under the law, the State is bound to provide "an adequate and efficacious remedy" to compel a tax collector to receive them; but, at the same time, it holds that the Riddleberger remedy is "substantially equivalent" to that by mandamus. How a remedy which first compels the taxpayer to provide not only the coupon, which the law says shall be taken *instead* of the tax, but the money itself, and then enables the State to contest the matter through three courts, with the certainty of long delay and expense, can be the equivalent of a summary remedy by mandamus, we do not understand. Of course, assuming that it is so, the Court could reach no other decision than that it now announces; but the decision as it stands will certainly be a surprise to most lawyers. At the time of its passage the Riddleberger bill struck almost everybody as a good illustration of the destruction of a right by means which nominally affect only the remedy. It will apparently give repudiating States, cities, and counties, as pointed out by Judge Field in his dissenting opinion, a new and dangerous legal weapon.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE DUDE.

When a foreign term is suddenly naturalized we may be sure that there is something in the atmosphere of the place of adoption which makes it convenient and useful. Dude is said to be originally a London music-hall term, but it has been transplanted here, and its constant use shows that it is for some reason well fitted to take a permanent place in the vocabulary of fashion. Many of our readers may not know what a dude is, and some of them, perhaps, do not even suspect his existence. The allusions to him in the press are of that sort which seem to imply contempt—as in the case of the story, bearing evident marks of "reportorial" invention, of a dude pursued up Fifth Avenue by a cat—and yet are, at the same time, obscure. We shall, therefore, to guard against all misconception and suspicion of unfairness, describe what we understand a dude to be.

A dude, then, is a young man, not over twenty-five, who may be seen on Fifth Avenue between the hours of three and six, and may be recognized by the following distinguishing marks and signs. He is dressed in clothes which are not calculated to attract much attention, because they are fashionable without being ostentatious. It is, in fact, only to the close observer that the completeness and care of the costume of the dude reveals itself. His trousers are very tight; his shirt-collar, which must be clerical in cut, encircles his neck so as to suggest that a sudden motion of the head in any direction will cause pain; he wears a tall black hat, pointed shoes, and a cane (not a "stick"), which should, we believe, properly have a silver handle, is carried by him under his right arm, projecting forward at an acute angle, somewhat in the manner that a sword is carried by a general at a review, but with a civilian mildness that never suggests a military origin for the custom. When the dude takes off his hat, or when he is seen in the evening at the theatre, it appears that he parts his hair in the middle and "bangs" it. There is believed to be a difference of opinion among dudes as to whether they ought to wear white gaiters. For reasons we shall presently give, the better opinion is that it is wiser and safer not to do so.

The dude must not be confounded with the Anglomaniac, for though a dude may be an Anglomaniac, an Anglomaniac is not necessarily a dude. It must be admitted, however, that there is in any adolescent Anglomaniac the germ of a dude. A dude cannot be recognized by his conversation, for he has none; and in society, as at present organized, this negative mark is not distinguishing, because the number of people of any kind who have any is admitted to be small and steadily decreasing. The dude is evidently the social successor of the swell, the fop, and the dandy, but the type is a very different one, and it is in this fact that the social interest in him mainly centres. The fashionable types which preceded him—the fops and dandies of our fathers' and grandfathers' time, and the swells of our own—were evolved in an "environment" which does not any longer exist. They devoted themselves to fashion, but it was in a different spirit from that shown by the dude. They regarded exaggeration and extravagance as a legitimate fashionable aim; they brought buoyant animal spirits to the task. Any one who looks at a picture of a fop or dandy of fifty years ago, will see that overdoing the fashions was his ambition. If clothes were important, the more display they made, the brighter the colors, the more numerous the jewels, the more picturesque the whole, the better. Their successor, the swell, at any rate down to a short period since, inherited these traditions, though he did not improve upon them. He struggled against his fate. Pegtop trousers helped him for a time, and so did the fashion of wearing clothes of many colors, and that of swinging a huge bludgeon in walking, while they lasted. But his tale, too, is told, and he has been succeeded by the dude, who actually reverses all this.

The dude's object is not to exaggerate fashions, but to make them less and less noticeable. He acts as if his desire was not to attract attention to himself by any of the peculiarities we have described. His grave, tight costume, his clerical collar, and his general demeanor produce almost the impression of a protest against fashionable folly. He never laughs aloud, or looks gay, as his predecessors used to do. A high-spirited, hilarious dude would be a contradiction in terms. The old race of fops, dandies, and swells enjoyed life, though perhaps in a misdirected way. There is no evidence that the dude enjoys life at all. His manner is that of a young man who has a mission of some kind, from which he is determined that the frivolity of the world shall not turn him aside.

There is something very pathetic and at the same time interesting about the development of a social type of this kind in our busy, noisy, pushing civilization. Society is, as everybody knows, in a highly critical state. Its exclusiveness, its etiquette, its decorum, is threatened on every side. New people, who know nothing about the traditions of good taste in dress and manners, are crowding into it by means of money; the newspapers invade the privacy of home, and, worse than all, a large portion of society encourages them to do so, because newspaper notice has become one of the avenues to social success. Society, which hitherto has preserved and handed down from one generation to another the traditions of refinement, has developed a distaste for refinement and an appetite for vulgarity, which is the explanation, of course, of the fact that no satisfactory answer has ever been returned to the question: "What is society coming to?"

Under these circumstances it is easy to see why the fop, the dandy, and the swell no longer propagate their kind. In our period extravagances such as they perpetrated would lead to their being confounded with their enemy, the cad. This was impossible so long as society excluded the cad. He could prowl round outside and imitate the extravagances of his betters, but he belonged to the vulgar world. With the great headway that vulgarity is making in good society, the cad is procuring his admission to it in large numbers; and in extravagance, hilariousness, loudness, and noise, the cad can always "give points" to the man of refined taste. Had the type which we are considering gone on de-

veloping in the old way, there would soon have been no means of distinguishing between a cad and any one else. Probably in time "cad" would have been used as a term of approval or endearment, just as "fellow" is now. But Nature, in her usual beneficent manner, has provided a way out of the difficulty. As animals sometimes protect themselves against the attacks of their enemies, not aggressively, or by developing new and formidable weapons of attack, but by developing means of escape and obscurity, so, in the struggle to save refined taste and to escape the cad, society may develop a type which the cad cannot overwhelm or vanquish. The dude seems to be such a type. The cad may appear to have been completely successful, but, lo! while he is apparently victorious, the meek, silent, quiet, and refined dude appears by his side, and we see that he it is who is handing down the traditions of "good form" to future generations. The cad may gnash his teeth, but he cannot be a dude, for it is not in his vulgar nature. Verily, the race is not to the swift, nor the battle to the strong; but if our view of the subject is correct, the self-respecting dude, who cares more for the cause than for the lusts of the eye, will never overdo the part, and consequently should not wear white gaiters.

THE OPENING OF THE PARLIAMENTARY SESSION.

LONDON, February 22, 1883.

TILL within the last few years the debate on the Address, in which, according to ancient custom, each house of Parliament replies to the speech from the throne, was an affair of one or two nights' debate, and bore an almost formal character. Occasionally, but very rarely, a strong Opposition moved an amendment, and made the division on this amendment a serious trial of party strength; but even on these occasions the discussion seldom overstepped the third night. Now all this has been changed, and, as has happened in other instances, a change which Irish members began has been followed up and used by the English Opposition. In 1881 and 1882 the debates on the Address, which outlasted the week, were protracted by Mr. Parnell and his friends, who impeached the Irish policy of the Ministry. This year a similar Irish debate was expected. It was known that Mr. Parnell would move an amendment to the Address, and that the opportunity would be taken of complaining of the administration of the Prevention of Crime Act. Most people in England, even those who are more disposed to sympathize with the Nationalists, approve Lord Spencer's conduct, which has been accompanied by a large diminution in the number and gravity of agrarian outrages, and which has been carried out without any recourse to some of the more severe and exceptional provisions of the Crimes Act. However, there are loud complaints in Ireland, where minor errors, which are scarcely noticed in England, attract notice; and even had these complaints been fewer, the Nationalist leaders in Parliament would have been obliged, in order to show their activity, to criticise sharply the conduct of the Ministry and repeat the demand for Home Rule or separation.

However, an unexpected event has completely upset their calculations and the expectations of English politicians. The disclosures in Dublin, obtained from the persons arrested there for complicity in the murders of the last eight months, culminated a few days ago in the confession of Carey, who had been described by Kavanagh, the man who drove the car on which the Phœnix Park assassins came to and escaped from the scene of that crime, as the prime concoctor and manager of the murder conspiracy. A profound impression was made by his revelations, an impression only second to that produced by the event itself of last May. For three days, as his depositions extended over that time, no one in London talked of anything else. The predominant feeling was that of horror and surprise at the existence of so large and well-organized a band of conspirators, at the audacity and recklessness of their schemes, at the bitter hatred which they evidently bore to England. It was a painful surprise, to those who did not know Ireland (and the English generally do know very little about Ireland), to find that these plots had been hatched in Dublin itself, apparently with little assistance from American Fenians, and that the persons who took part in them, and were found ready to carry out the murders, were not professional desperadoes, but ordinary laboring men, or persons belonging to the lower middle class, some of whom, like Carey himself, were not deficient in education or intelligence, and had no special reason for hatred to the Irish Government. However, besides this first and main impression which the disclosures made, there were two other feelings stirred, both of them unfavorable to the Government. The first was of sympathy not only with Mr. Forster personally, as having narrowly escaped the dagger of the assassins, but also with the general view of the Irish situation which he took when he quitted the Ministry, and which was a darker one than they seemed to have held until the fatal evening of the Phœnix Park murders. Many people said that it was now plain that Mr. Forster was right, and the rest of the Ministry wrong.

To this it was answered that these plots had all been formed while he was in power, and under the operation of his own Coercion Act, and that there was therefore no reason to believe anything could have been gained by maintaining it or by keeping Mr. Parnell and Mr. Dillon in prison any longer. However, such an answer produced little effect. People are moved more by feelings than by logic. So the impression remained that Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues had underrated the gravity of the situation, and had got rid of Mr. Forster when, in fact, he was diagnosing the disease more truly than they had done. This tendency was strengthened by the mention made in Carey's revelations of a man named Sheridan as one of the most active conspirators, who moved about in disguise under the name of Father Murphy. Sheridan had been referred to by Mr. Parnell as one of the people by whose assistance he hoped to be able, if released from Kilmainham Prison, to be able to pacify Ireland and discourage outrages. Though it is plain enough to any one who calmly considers the matter, that such a reference proves Mr. Parnell to have been ignorant of Sheridan's real character and conduct, this seemed to many people to be another instance of what they think the blindness of the Government in laying weight on Mr. Parnell's declarations. Here, it was said, was a man whose hands were steeped in blood, scheming a murder at the very moment when he is represented to the Government as an agent who will serve to restore order; and the Government trust the account of him they get, and release the person who vouches for him.

Thus there arose for the Tory Opposition an occasion for damaging the Government too seductive to be resisted. They had not originally intended to protract unduly the debate on the Address. But now the question of the conduct of Mr. Gladstone when the suspects were released in May last, under what the Tories call the "Treaty of Kilmainham," was again opened up, permitting that conduct to be impeached with more effect. The assault was led by the unofficial members of the Opposition, those who may be called its skirmishers, and who claim for themselves the title of the Fourth Party; but it has been taken up to some extent by the recognized Tory leaders, and is not concluded at the date of these lines. So far, it has proved less successful than might have been expected, partly because the events happened so long ago, and no one charges the Government with too much slackness or gentleness in their recent Irish administration; partly, also, because the language and tone of the Opposition speakers have not been judicious. With one or two exceptions they have seemed more anxious to make political capital out of the affair than to treat it seriously as a lesson or warning for the future, or to make it an occasion for inquiring into the real causes of sedition and crime in Ireland. Hence they have repelled that moderate or Whiggish section of the Liberals who were disposed to agree with them in approving Mr. Forster's views and condemning Mr. Gladstone's hopefulness. And there seems no likelihood that the Government will be weakened by these events, although they certainly might have been if all had been known in June last which is known now.

Another result of the disclosures has been to avert the threatened attack on the Government by the Nationalists, and to put the latter practically on their defence. The sentiment of the House of Commons and of the country runs for the moment so strongly against them, and people are so ready to believe, on the scantiest grounds, that they or some among them have been cognizant of the doings and designs of the "Irish Invincibles," that complaints of the Crimes Act or of Lord Spencer's administration generally would produce no effect—would rather move fresh indignation. Hence Mr. Parnell has not yet moved the amendment to the Address of which he gave notice, nor is it known if he will do so. However, he and several of his friends have brought in bills for the amendment of the Land Act, for the establishment of a popular county government in Ireland, and for other parts of the Nationalist programme, which will secure an ample discussion of Irish grievances during the present session. But the time is not auspicious for dealing with them. True as it may be that the best way of permanently pacifying Ireland is to go steadily on in the path of local reforms while maintaining a vigorous administration of the law, the opinion expressed by Lord Hartington that order must be completely restored and crime rooted out before local representative institutions, which might be misused, are conceded, is the opinion now in the ascendant. "What sort of an administration," people ask, "could you expect from local municipal or county bodies, when a man like Carey was chosen a town councillor in Dublin, just because he was known to be hostile to the Government and had been arrested under the Coercion Act?" There is, however, a section of the Liberal party which is prepared to try the experiment; and the question is one of those which may perhaps produce, sooner or later, a split in that party.

Although everything else has been thr[own] into the shade by the startling new[s] poured in from Dublin, while Ke[ogh] Carey were denouncing their [own] two parties which, from diff[erent] condemn the Egyptia[n] which took the opportu[nity] Kavanagh and gave them o[ver] accomplices, the position [of] different points of view, st[ate] policy of the Ministry by which the Address debate arraigning it. From the Tory Opcame the charge that in the earlier ges of the question the Government had been weak and dilatory, while the extreme Liberals

alleged that there ought never to have been any interference in Egypt at all. Both sets of criticisms excited little interest. The result of the matter has been to show how little control Parliament or the country can really exercise upon foreign affairs. The Government declined to answer questions or to declare their intentions during May and June last, when the difficulties were thickening, and when it was not yet clear how they ought to be met—when, therefore, there was still time for Parliament and the nation to express its opinion. They practically made up their minds without having obtained any instructions from Parliament, and asked its approval only when irrevocable steps had been taken. The reason given was the usual reason, that the publication of their intentions would have made action more difficult by showing the enemy what to expect. The Liberal party, supposing they would do what was right, acquiesced in their silence; the Conservative party was not strong enough to compel answers to the questions with which they plied the Foreign Office. Thus the Ministry had it their own way, and now, when the expedition is over and Egypt resettled, criticisms come too late. Probably, in this instance, the result would have been much the same if the Government policy had been known by the people at each of its stages, for Mr. Gladstone's authority would have made his supporters take it to be right. But that does not prevent the case from being an illustrative one, likely to be followed when any similar conjuncture arrives. Foreign policy remains, in fact, the one department of government in which the Executive is not really guided or checked by the Legislature; and this sets people asking whether it is desirable to have so complicated and active a foreign policy. Some have suggested a secret committee of both houses of Parliament, similar to the Foreign Affairs Committee of your Senate, which should be kept informed of what is passing and have a right to express its opinion on the course proposed by Government before it is finally determined. But this is too great a departure from our practice to be likely to be adopted. Apparently we shall have to take the chance, when difficulties abroad arise, of being wisely led by the Government of the day. Some occasion may arrive before long when, as in Lord Beaconsfield's time, the policy of the Government is not really in accord with the feelings of the people, and will lead them where they do not want to go.

Y.

MARIVAUX.

PARIS, February 15, 1883.

IT seems almost incongruous to write a heavy octavo volume on 'Marivaux: his Life and his Works'—640 pages seem like the heavy stone which the boar throws on the man's head in Lafontaine's fable. Is there an author more airy, more subtle, more immaterial, in one sense, than Marivaux? His plays still charm us, because they place us between heaven and earth, in a world of delicate sentiment, of half-expressed emotions, where love is ideal and seems afraid of itself, where all human passion seems to be transformed—more volatile, more mysterious and transcendental. I confess a partiality for Marivaux, and for what has great[ly] "marivaudage"—a form of speech [ha]s been called very different from what [Mo]lière's "précieuses." While it [is] conversation [a]lmost of nothing, [th]ere of the [re]al human and [o]f made [a]n[y] [pe]rieties was the langu[a]ge is always simple, flu[id], this thin veil nevertheless covers [a]n beings, and is somewhat like the Greek d[ra]. on noble and almost divine forms. There [can] be no more delicate pleasure than to see "Le Jeu de l'Amour et du Hasard," or "Les Fausses Confidences," or "Le Legs," well played, as the actors and actresses of the Théâtre-Français can play them. It is a pleasure *sui generis*, which has nothing in common with any other; it is a sensation. It seems delightful to live for a moment with people who can give such an ingenious expression to such refined sentiments, who can feel so keenly and yet be such masters of themselves, who are so *nice*—I cannot find a better term than this, which, alas! has been in our day applied to almost everything. But there was something besides a dramatist in Marivaux—there was a novelist and a philosopher.

Monsieur Larroumet, the author of the volume just published, whose title I have cited, gives us the whole Marivaux. Let us begin with his biography, which is generally unknown. Pierre Carlet de Chamblain de Marivaux was born in Paris, the 4th of February, 1688. His father was a Norman and a financier, and belonged to the *noblesse de robe*. At the age of eighteen, the young Marivaux already felt comedy to be his vocation: he wrote in eight days the "Père prudent et équitable; ou Crispin l'heureux fourbe"—a short act. Private theatricals were the fashion, and this comedy, full of reminiscences of Regnard and of Molière, almost infantine, was played only before a few friends. Marivaux spent the first years of his youth in the salons of the Marquise de Lambert and of the Marquise de Tencin; he was formed in the most charming society. He describes well in his novel, 'Marianne,' the tone of these salons:

"This tone of conversation, so excellent, so exquisite, though so simple, struck me. They said nothing which was not just and proper, nothing which did not belong to a mild, easy, and cheerful intercourse. . . . What I said only imperfectly, they ended by thinking and saying for me, almost unconsciously, and they left me all the honor of it. In fact, they put me at ease; and I, who thought that there were so many mysteries in the politeness of people of the world, and who looked on it as an unknown science—I was quite surprised to find that there was nothing strange in theirs, nothing peculiar, only something obliging, engaging, and amiable."

This is the true "marivaudage"; everything is said without effort; it seems so natural that you feel that you have said it yourself. There is a constant *finesse* in the thoughts and in the expression, but the reader or the spectator feels that this *finesse* has become his own nature; what is objective becomes by degrees subjective.

Marivaux composed a parody on Cervantes, called 'Pharamond, ou les Folies romanesques,' which ridicules the exaggerations of the *précieuses* and of Mlle. de Scudéry; it had no merit, and came rather late after Molière and Boileau. We will say nothing of another novel, 'La Voiture embourbée': Marivaux's talent was not yet developed. He entered on the staff of the *Nouveau Mercure*, and won his spurs in little essays on the manners of his time, on the comparison between ancient and modern writers. He was a partisan of the modern school, and had the bad taste to write a "Homère Travesti" and a "Télémaque Travesti." In these parodies he is much inferior to Scarron; the works are "péchés de jeunesse." D'Alembert, who was also a modern, called the parody on Homer a "literary crime." Speaking later of Marivaux, he says: "It is the shameful part of his life."

Marivaux was already thirty-two years old when he made his début at the Italian Theatre with a play called "L'Amour et la Vérité." The piece was a failure, and has not been printed. "The play bored me more than anybody," said Marivaux after the first representation, "for I am its author." D'Alembert cites this in order to prove the philosophy of Marivaux. He did not learn much from experience; he had a tranquil belief in himself, and often returned to a subject though it had not pleased the public. A short time afterward, he again came before the public with a colossal tragedy in five acts, and in verse—"Annibal." This is the rarest of the plays of Marivaux. I have been collecting them for fifteen years, and I have never found a copy of "Annibal." A tragedy seemed a necessary sacrifice to the muse; every young man made one after college, as he now writes an essay on political economy or on Darwinism. M. Larroumet seems to us very indulgent when he finds a Cornelian accent in some of the ejaculations of "Annibal." Still, he confesses that all this greatness is pure imitation; Marivaux is only himself when he places soft whisperings about love in the mouth of a certain Princess of Bithynia:

"Mon cœur tâcha du moins de se rendre le maître
De cet amour qu'il plut au sort d'y faire naître.
Mais d'un tel ennemi penses-tu que le cœur
Puisse avec fermeté vouloir être vainqueur?
Il croit qu'autant qu'il peut il combat, il s'efforce;
Mais il a peur de vaincre et de marquer sa force;
Et souvent sa défaite a pour lui tant d'appas
Que, pour aimer son trouble, il feint de n'aimer pas."

This is very delicate and very graceful, and this Princess of Bithynia speaks already like all the heroines of Marivaux. "Annibal" had a "succès d'estime": it was played four times. Returning from the French Theatre to the Italian Theatre, Marivaux gave a farce called "Arlequin poli par l'amour." Marmontel justly remarks that Marivaux made much use of the old character of Harlequin, and modified him by showing him in love. The scenes between Harlequin and the fairy and the shepherdess are charming and original. Many of Marivaux's plays were represented at the Italian Theatre. The Italians had established themselves in France in the time of Henri III. They had developed their *commedia dell' arte;* the old types, which were originated by Cæcilius and Plautus, had been gradually modified. They had in Paris mixed French and Italian. Regnard, Lesage had worked for them; they had become the fashion. Henri IV. and Louis XIII. had confirmed their privileges; under the Regent, Riccoboni, an actor famous in Italy under the name of Lelio, had selected a troupe from among the best actors of Antonio Farnese, the prince of Parma; and he had had much success with it in the ancient Hôtel de Bourgogne. Marivaux became a great favorite in this theatre; he assured its fortune, and found in it a liberty which he would not have had at the French Theatre. This liberty allowed full play to his caprice, to his love of fairy-land, of mythological scenes, to his curious analyses of the society of his own time. His interpreters were foreign to all the traditions of the classical school; they were docile, clever; they were admirable mimes. "There are," it has been said, "manners which are worth words; one says 'I love you' with a look, and says it well." The star of Riccoboni's troupe was the famous Sylvia; she was the ideal actress of Marivaux, as "her character was all naïveté, and her grace was all her art." The "Surprise de l'Amour" was a great triumph for Marivaux and for Sylvia; the tone of the "marivaudage" was found, as well as its natural interpreter. From that moment Marivaux kept writing plays till 1746. His repertory contains thirty-two plays, of very unequal value. Some of them bear the trace of too great rapidity of composition. The public of the eighteenth century was more difficult and capricious than our modern public, which swallows everything. "Le Legs," one of Marivaux's best plays, was hissed on the first evening. The success was as complete as it was just with "Le Jeu de l'Amour et du Hasard," "L'Épreuve," "La Mère confidente," "Les

Fausses Confidences." Marivaux had a great partiality for the Italian Theatre, but he felt obliged at times to give a piece to the King's comedians. He was afraid of them, of their severity, of their traditions; his dear Italians were much more indifferent and obedient. He liked the classical types of Lelio and Sylvia, of Harlequin and Columbine, of Lisette and Frontin, of Ergaste and Lucile; they were like familiar masks, like uniforms which he found convenient. It was with a sort of alarm that he composed great pieces in five acts, in the manner of Regnard, like the "Serments indiscrets."

Till the year 1722 Marivaux could write leisurely, in his own time; he had a respectable fortune left him by his father. But, alas! he allowed himself to be tempted by the great schemes of John Law; his fortune was first doubled, and then he was completely ruined. He bore his misfortune with the greatest philosophy, though he had been married a short time before. He lost his wife after two years of a very happy union; she left him a daughter, whom he educated with great care. She took vows, and, as she was poor, the Duc d'Orléans gave her a sum of money which allowed her to enter the fashionable abbey of the *Trésor*. Marivaux was then living on a pension of three thousand livres, which the King had given to him. He tried in vain to increase his resources by publishing a weekly paper, under the title of the *French Spectator*. Marivaux could not well conduct a weekly paper; he did not like this new work; he could not torture his brains and draw thoughts from his barren mind. After two years the publication was stopped. He attempted twice more to issue weekly papers, under the odd names of *L'Indigent Philosophe* and the *Cabinet du Philosophe*, but failed each time. He was not more successful as a novel-writer; his 'Vie de Marianne' is, however, a masterpiece—that is to say, in some senses. Unfortunately, it appeared in separate parts, and the publication lasted sixteen years. How could the attention of the public be captivated during so long a period? He did not even finish this extraordinary novel; he allowed Madame Riccoboni to finish it. Richardson had certainly read the 'Vie de Marianne,' for Marianne is a handsome girl, persecuted by bad and dangerous people, who escapes by her energy and uprightness from all the dangers which surround her. Marianne, however, is very different from Pamela; she is more proud, more *spirituelle*, more sure of the power of her charms, while Pamela is unconscious of her beauty, modest, timid, and triumphs only by her softness and by her humility. 'Marianne' might be called the code of seduction; it describes a society and a time when seduction seemed the first, the only object of life. It is impossible, I believe, to form a perfect conception of French society of the time of Marivaux without reading 'Marianne.' Another novel of Marivaux's, the 'Paysan parvenu,' is not without some analogy with 'Joseph Andrews' and with 'Tom Jones'; but it is very inferior to the 'Vie de Marianne.' I will not speak of certain other novels; 'Marianne' is really the only one which has survived, and which has gained and is gaining every day in reputation.

In another letter I shall have something to say of Marivaux's relations with the philosophers; it is a serious chapter of the literary history of the eighteenth century.

GNEISENAU.

BERLIN, January, 1883.

THERE is hardly a prominent German general who more deserves to be known everywhere and who is so little noticed abroad as Gneisenau. I have asked English and American, French and Italian learned officers, gentlemen who had studied the wars of all ages, but none of them had ever heard of Gneisenau. To foreign observers, all the merits of this noble soldier were overshadowed by the great fame of old Blücher. They were evidently satisfied with the study of his campaigns and victories, without troubling themselves much about the great genius who prepared them. I do not reproach these gentlemen for their neglect of Gneisenau—the less so, as this great planner of battles was not much known by his own army, and seldom appeared at the front. Even in the campaign of 1813, his wife asked him what kind of general he was, as his name never appeared in public. Thus, the memory of his real standing and of his immortal merits was confined for a long time to a small circle of historical students, to military academies and schools, and to incidental remarks of military critics.

Finally, German historiography has rescued Gneisenau from oblivion, and has assigned to him the honorable and enduring place he deserves in the history and in the hearts of his people. Pertz's great 'Life of Gneisenau,' in five large octavo volumes—of which the first three were compiled by him, while the last two were finished by the author of the work named below—is a book which excels by its rich materials, but is in all other respects an awkward and clumsy publication. Besides, Pertz's mind is too narrow fully to do justice to his hero; he flatters those who are or were in power, or detracts from those whom he does not like. Pertz has not written a book, but has carelessly accumulated a heap of raw materials. Thus his work is the worst kind of biography. Unfortunately, Mr. Delbrück, without destroying the unity of the plan, could not do much to correct the tone of the two last volumes. But, just as Professor Seeley, in his 'Life of Stein,' has written a very readable book—chiefly drawn from the seven large volumes of Pertz's 'Life of Stein' and other materials—so Mr. Delbrück has now worked over Pertz's materials about Gneisenau into a very creditable shape.* The author is a young historian of great promise, well versed in the literature of the Napoleonic age, and in the rich German contributions to the more intimate knowledge of its character. Besides, he is a fluent and able writer and a sound critic. He has thus enriched German literature with the first good and comprehensive life of Gneisenau, the translation of which I would most heartily recommend to an enterprising American publisher.

Little is known about Gneisenau's early life, and that little is so much interwoven with fables and fiction that it rather reads like a romantic tale. Whether his name was Neithardt or Gneisenau, or whether both names composed the whole, is uncertain; where he came from is rather mythical. The family is said to have been driven out of Austria for its Protestantism. Gneisenau's father, who first called himself simply Neithardt, was a lieutenant of artillery in the contingent army of the imperial circles (*Reichsarmee*) which, during the Seven Years' War, made itself ridiculous by its behavior and exploits. He married, at Würzburg on the Main, against the will of the father, the daughter of a Lieutenant-Colonel Müller, a well-to-do man and strict Catholic. The young wife followed her husband into the field. It was a few days before the battle of Torgau that, in the little town of Schilda, on October 28, 1760, she was delivered of a boy, who was baptized Augustus, and who is the subject of this sketch. When a few days later, in consequence of the Prussian victory, the Austrian army hastily retreated by way of Schilda, the young mother, with her infant, was put on a baggage-cart. The boy glided from her arms and fell on to the road. A soldier accompanying the train picked him up, carried him till daylight under his cloak, and gave him back to his fainting mother, who soon after died from exhaustion. In after life, Gneisenau jestingly remarked that he even did not know whether he was himself, as on that night he might have been exchanged with another baby. The father, a thriftless adventurer, who had to march off with the retreating army, left his boy with a peasant of the neighborhood. Here the later field-marshal was roughly treated, learned little or nothing, had, it is said, to mind the geese on the common, and was happy when he got enough black bread to eat. Finally, his grandfather, still living at Würzburg, in some way or other was informed of the whereabouts of his grandson, and sent for him. He now was nine years old, and entered into a house of ease and comfort. From this time we have a real historical basis for Gneisenau's life.

He remained with his grandfather, who died as Colonel in 1772, and quickly made up his deficiency in his early education. The father had in the meantime married again, and established himself as an architect at Erfurt, to which city the son soon followed him. On October 1, 1777, young Gneisenau was, as "Anthonius Neithardt Torgaviensis," and as "stud. philosophiæ," matriculated in the album of the Erfurt university. Here he led the happy life of a student, spent in a very short time the grandpaternal inheritance, and was nearly penniless, when in 1779 he left the university and joined the Austrian Army, a regiment of which, the "Wurmser Hussars," was then stationed at Erfurt. Why he left it a year later is not known. Recommended, however, by Dalberg, who was then deputy-governor of Erfurt, Gneisenau, in the winter of 1780–81, took service with the Margrave of Ansbach-Bayreuth in a regiment of chasseurs which this prince, in 1782, hired to the English Government to fight against American independence. Second-Lieutenant Neithardt von Gneisenau—for such is now his name in the regimental lists—was the next youngest officer of his regiment. Toward the end of April, 1782, it left the Weser and sailed for Halifax, from which place it was sent to Quebec, where it remained several months.

The war having practically been ended, Gneisenau never saw the enemy, and spent his time in studying and observing the character of the American war, and in daily intercourse with experienced and able officers. Here he first became convinced of the great importance of the skirmishing and sharpshooting mode of fighting, which formed one of the characteristics of the American war. It was the method best adapted to the colonists, and consequently developed by them into the formation of light infantry battalions, in opposition to the close lines and masses which were still in vogue during the Seven Years' War. By their engagements with the Indians they were accustomed to isolated and scattering fighting, and in the Revolutionary war, availing themselves of every advantage of ground, they gained final success over the close masses of the English. Burgoyne's surrender at Saratoga was caused in a great degree by this system of fighting, the masses of skirmishers having decided the fate of the day. To guard against similar disasters in future, the English increased the number of their light troops, and exercised their light infantry in skirmishing and fighting in extended lines. On the American side, Steuben picked out the best and most tried soldiers, and, as light infantry, made them the model corps of the entire Army. Foreign observers and masters of the art of war at once appreciated the great value of this improve-

* *Das Leben des Feldmarschalls Grafen Neithardt von Gneisenau.* In zwei Bänden. Von Hans Delbrück. 8vo, v.-378, vi.-359. Berlin: Georg Reimer. 1882.

ment, and transplanted it from American to European soil. Frederic the Great first in Europe laid the foundation of light infantry in the last years of his reign, by the creation of three light-infantry regiments, and the employment of several Brunswick, Hessian, and Ansbach officers who had taken part in the American war. His successor extended the new formation in 1787 to twenty battalions, under the name of "Fusileer Battalions," and gave them, in 1788–1789, the first written regulations on rifle-practising and skirmishing, for which the examples of the American war served as a basis.

Gneisenau was one of those officers, and on January 1, 1786, on his application, was appointed first lieutenant in a newly-formed Silesian light infantry regiment, although he would have preferred to be attached to the quartermaster-general's department. It is an interesting fact that the greatest of the men to whom Prussia is indebted for resurrection from a low but well-deserved fall were not native Prussians. Attracted by the fame of Frederic the Great, they offered him their services. Baron Stein came from Nassau, Prince Hardenberg from Hanover, glorious old Blücher from Mecklenburg, Scharnhorst (a modest yeoman's son) from Hanover, and Gneisenau from Franconia. During the twenty years of peace which now follow in his life he studied mathematics and history, or spent his free hours in agricultural pursuits near his garrisons—small towns like Jauer and Löwenberg, in Silesia. The war of 1806 was of short duration. Gneisenau, since 1803 a major, was present at Saalfeld, and received a bullet in the leg; he was likewise present at the ignominious Prussian defeat of Jena. He distinguished himself on the retreat, carried out several royal orders with great credit, and first began to attract the attention of prominent generals and leading statesmen, and even that of King Frederic Wilhelm III. Called to headquarters, Gneisenau made plans for a new campaign, was sent to Poland to organize the armed resistance against the French, and a little later, with two battalions, to Danzig, to reinforce the garrison of that place. In April, 1807, he was ordered to replace a stiff old martinet, Colonel Lucadon, the commander of Colberg, and to proceed at once to that most important fortress on the Baltic, which alone kept open the communication of Prussia with Sweden and England. From February till July, 1807, it was besieged by the French generals Teulié and Marshal Mortier with from ten to sixteen thousand men. Gneisenau kept the place valiantly till July, when the peace of Tilsit put an end to hostilities. He was the first Prussian commander who appealed to the patriotism, the unselfishness, and devotion of the citizens, and found in them enthusiastic coöperators in reaching his end. By doing away with the old system of flogging and cruelly drilling the soldiers, he soon gained their confidence, and was thus enabled to ask the most heroic efforts and patient endurance from them.

In short, Gneisenau was the first citizen-soldier in Prussia, and won a national reputation by his successful defence. It made Blücher his friend, and secured him the confidence of the generally distrustful King, who made him one of the members of the commission appointed for the reorganization of the Army, and at the same time (with the rank of colonel) inspector of the corps of engineers and of the fortresses. As such, he was the most efficient coöperator of Scharnhorst, and, in company with him and Clausewitz, laid down the firm basis for the first and greatest national army of Europe. He made the people a people in arms, not enlisted by bounties paid to the scum of society or to the dupes of recruiting sergeants, but consisting of the youth of the nation, without distinction of rank. Gneisenau, although contributing his full share to the great reform, modestly called himself a pigmy beside Scharnhorst. When, in 1809, yielding to necessity, Prussia remained neutral in the war between Napoleon and Austria, Gneisenau asked his discharge, and obtained it for the duration of peace. With the secret pecuniary assistance of the King, he went to England, and thence to Sweden and Russia, to concert means to shake off the yoke of Napoleon; but on account of the Austrian defeat and the failure of the English expedition to Walcheren, his efforts were everywhere futile, so that the indefatigable man, after a year's absence, had to return home.

In February, 1811, Gneisenau was again invited by Hardenberg to reënter the service, the war between Napoleon and Russia being imminent. Scharnhorst had been sent to St. Petersburg to propose an alliance with Russia, and Gneisenau was ordered to draw a plan of common defence, which he finished in August, 1811. He advocated a war to the knife: "Better die beaten with arms in hands than live in voluntary servitude," was his motto. The King, however, averse to all decisive steps, rejected Gneisenau's aggressive plan, and even entered into an alliance with France, after Russia had haughtily rejected Prussia's offers. Patriotic officers like Scharnhorst and Clausewitz refused to serve as French vassals, tendered their resignation, and went to Russia. Gneisenau, too, in March, 1812, obtained his discharge from the Army, but went on a secret mission to Austria, Russia, Sweden, and England, trying once more to prepare treaties for common attack of and defence against Napoleon. He was just on the eve of concluding a treaty of subsidies with England when the news of the rising of the people called him home. On February 25, 1813, he landed at Colberg, the cradle of his fame. On March 16, the date of the declaration of war against Napoleon, the King appointed him major-general and second quartermaster-general to Blücher. In this capacity he acted at Lützen and Bautzen, while, during the armistice, he organized in Silesia sixty-eight battalions of Landwehr infantry and forty companies of cavalry. After Scharnhorst's untimely death, Gneisenau was promoted to be chief of staff of the Silesian Army. From this time to the Peace of Paris his deeds form part of the history of the world.

It would lead me too far were I, even in relation to Gneisenau only, to specify here the particulars of the campaigns of 1813, 1814, and 1815. The most daring and audacious of all generals, he was the soul of that army which, although the smallest of the allied forces, by assuming the offensive, became the originator and leader of concentrated action against Napoleon. Blücher performed to the letter what Gneisenau planned; they were one soul and one head. The enthusiastic confidence, the most cheerful and heroic fatalism, united the two generals, who, even in the darkest hours of the war, acted with the most implicit faith in its ultimate result. "A lasting peace can only be concluded in Paris," was the parole given out by Gneisenau while still in Silesia. "Forward to Paris!" was the war-cry with which Blücher inspired his troops. They never were jealous of each other; the one formed the complement of the other. When, in 1814, they both visited England, Blücher was made Honorary Doctor by the University of Oxford. "Well," said the old hussar, who from hearsay only knew doctors of medicine, "I will make it all right, as long as I have an apothecary who makes as good and efficient pills as Gneisenau." When, at about the same time, the city of London gave a public dinner to their celebrated guests, Blücher, in answering a toast, asked the party present: "Who of you, gentlemen, can kiss his head?" As he received no answer, the fine old fellow went to the other side of the table and kissed his friend Gneisenau.

Mr. Delbrück gives a plain and exhaustive narrative of the several campaigns, and illustrates them with little maps, so that the general reader can easily follow and understand the march of events. The war, it is known, ended with the battle of Waterloo. It was here again Gneisenau, who, by his intuition and energy, prepared the final victory. He advised Blücher, who had just been beaten at Ligny (June 16) not to fall back upon his natural line of retreat on the Maas, but, in the teeth of the enemy, to unite the whole Prussian Army with that of Wellington. He thus correctly appreciated the character of Napoleon. "I know my man," he explained to Blücher; "he will and must concentrate all his forces in an attack on the English, in order to beat them before our arrival." "Old Marshal 'Forward'" carried out his friend's advice with the vigor of a young man, and just in time effected his junction with Wellington — an operation which Napoleon had thought impossible, and which decided the war against him. After the battle, Gneisenau persistently followed the beaten enemy with such energy that he made his flight a still more crushing defeat, and sealed the doom of the Empire long before Napoleon arrived near Paris. "The tyrant will be delivered up to me," wrote Blücher on June 27, 1815; "I shall render a great service to humanity by having the wretch shot. It will be the most useful for him, too." The Marshal would have kept his word if Wellington had not interfered on Napoleon's behalf.

Ten years later, in commemoration of the great Waterloo victory—viz., on June 18, 1825—Gneisenau was made a field-marshal, the King, in 1815, having made him a count and bestowed a large estate on him. He afterward held several high offices of trust, and died in 1831 of cholera as Governor of Posen. Gneisenau was a noble character, an earnest scholar, and a humane soldier. Only once in his life did he shed tears. It was when he rode over the battle-field of Leipzig and saw the poor victims of war in their blood and last agony. History has few characters of such purity of mind, of such noble aspirations, and of such modest but effective devotion to their country. He was a self-made man, who, by following the intuitions of his genius, achieved immortality. † † †

Correspondence.

THE TARIFF ON FOREIGN IDEAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In view of the perils to which American morals are exposed from foreign books and foreign ideas, as represented by the petitioners referred to in your editorial of February 22, it does not seem a sufficiently radical measure to merely impose a duty of twenty-five per cent. on foreign literature. Men who are wicked enough to pervert their own and other people's minds by such means will not hesitate to pay this duty. If we have no use for the thought and experience of the civilized nations of Europe, or if, as some claim, we are better without, Congress ought not only to absolutely prohibit the importation of foreign books, but also to interdict the teaching of all foreign languages. When a man can read French, or German, or Italian, you can never be sure that he will not read something in one or another of these languages for which he and the community may be the worse. There is a good deal in English literature that is not conducive to mo-

rality, and most of this has been produced by foreigners; but it would perhaps not be wise to try to exclude this too, or prevent people by legislation from reading it. In the matter of literature and art, a large number of Americans seem to be of opinion that a new thing is to be judged, not by its intrinsic merit, but by its paternity. They must be greatly pained at the strong influence exercised by French, and especially German, thought in some of our foremost writers, past and present. Possibly the influence was not wholly bad, but that it was foreign is enough to condemn it. Let Congress by all means at once come to the relief of these sensitive souls. C. W. S.

ATHENS, O., Feb. 28, 1883.

FARMER AND CITIZEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is quite evident to all your readers that the writer of the article entitled "The Press and Agriculture," which appears in your last issue, has no taste for rural pursuits. While every sensible man will doubtless admit that an undue glamour of sentiment has been drawn around the farm by the poets and literary men generally, yet he will as surely combat many of the positions taken by the writer referred to. The picture drawn by the "Tennessee Farmer's Wife" may be true in the main as to farm-life as followed by the farmer of one hundred years ago, and his descendants of the present day who refuse to learn, or place themselves among the progressive producers of the age. The man who farms to-day on the old grinding plan; who scrapes all he can get off the land; who turns up his nose at "book farmers"; who sneers at "artificial fertilizers" and drainage and blooded stock; who would rather raise the commonest grades than Jerseys; who would sooner feed the gross Asiatic fowl than the more profitable Leghorn or Houdan, will surely and certainly grow poorer every day, and, especially if his tastes are foreign to his employment, he will not "have a pleasant or easy life at all."

There are, however, plenty of men engaged in agricultural pursuits at the present day (and their number is daily increasing) who find an ever-increasing pleasure and enjoyment in farm-life, because they have an absorbing interest in their work, and are enabled to interest their families and friends in the same. There are plenty of women (and their number is daily increasing) whose ideal of existence is anything but "concert and opera and unlimited magazine reading," who are striving to make their homes centres of light and refinement, and who manage to make life to themselves and all who are around them anything but a flat, vapid existence.

I do not mean to deny that there are many who are dissatisfied with their mode of life; neither will it be denied, I presume, that there are many women, and men too, in the cities pining for some other way of living. Every one in the world at times imagines any other mode of living more pleasant than his own. Man is a restless, discontented being naturally, and will never find paradise this side the grave; but that condition will be the nearest to it in which he finds his greatest comfort and happiness. Moreover, there is no occupation in this life, that holds out any hope of success, in which there is not plenty of hard work; and those you speak of—"the middleman, speculator, and monopolist"—"who build up colossal fortunes," are few and far between when compared to the great mass. Farmers will hold their own, in comparison, as well as other avocations. As to the malaria, better food, and higher spirits, there is also a large margin for argument. One might suppose that your writer was picturing a period one hundred years ago, or describing the agricultural life in Ireland of the present day.

As to advice for young men, no one (and I believe newspapers, as a rule, are careful in this respect) should presume to counsel a young man as to his future without knowing something about his tastes, habits, and abilities; and the care (as to city or country) should be as much on one side as the other. Any one who advises young men to come to the city for professional study, for example, in our day assumes a grave responsibility. In Philadelphia, it is said, there are about 1,500 members of the bar; about 250 of these are in active practice, and probably not more than twenty have more than a local reputation. The same could doubtless be said of doctors, dentists, and engineers. The professions are overcrowded; land is plenty, "but the harvesters are few." The great progress made in the past few years in manures, fruit-raising, dairy products, and machinery, and labor-saving machinery of all kinds, and in all the departments of the farmer's labor, have wrought a great change in agriculture. The man who is alive to the present, who reads the agricultural papers (in which there has been a wonderful advancement), and systematizes his business, and gives it the thought and earnest care that he would bestow in other trades or professions, will as surely succeed, and, if he does not build up a colossal fortune, like the monopolist or speculator, will have the consciousness of a life well and rationally spent, and time usefully employed. FARMER.

PHILADELPHIA, Feb. 20, 1883.

THE SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some statements about Maryland in the article on "Migrations of American Colonists," in the *Century Magazine* for March, could hardly have been made if the article had been written since the publication of Doyle's 'English Colonies' and Bancroft's "Last Revision." Let me contrast a few of the magazine statements with those of these histories on the same points:

"In its motive and mainspring, the first Maryland settlement was Roman Catholic. The non-Catholics in Calvert's company were for the most part people of no great consequence, and without strong religious convictions" (*Century*, p. 730).

"Baltimore does not seem to have been reduced, like almost every other colonizer who had gone before him, to stock his community with the scum and offscouring of the old country. In this respect, we cannot doubt that he gained by following in the footsteps of the Virginia Company, and, in a less degree, of the New England Puritans" (Doyle, 'Eng. Col.,' p. 283).

"Upon the 27th, the emigrants, of whom by far the larger number were Protestants, took quiet possession of the land" (Bancroft, "Last Rev.," p. 161).

"Our fathers were not only Christians; they were, even in Maryland, by a vast majority, Protestants" (*ib.*, p. 610).

The colonization took place in February, 1634 (N. S.), and in 1635 the Protestants had religious convictions strong enough to protest to the English authorities against the celebration of Mass in public. It was one of these "people of no consequence" who made protest to the King, in the presence of Archbishop Laud—viz., Jerome Hawley, one of the first commissioners, who shared responsibility with the Governor. Another (Protestant) first commissioner, Thomas Cornwallis, was the most influential planter in the colony. Others of the same grade of influence were Justinian Snow, the "Factor," and Henry Fleet, the Interpreter. The gentry have been overstated as to numbers, and especially the Catholic proportion of them. Hildreth was the first to reduce the over-statement to this: "Several Catholic gentlemen, with their indented servants." Bozman, in his 'History of Maryland,' gives the names of thirteen, besides the commissioners, and adds: "The most, if not all of them, were Roman Catholics." But of these, five soon died, and so much Catholic influence died with them, and another went to Virginia. A letter before me, from one who knows Maryland history from the original sources, says: "Besides the two Jesuits, the number is narrowed down to about a dozen, and the most influential were Protestants." The whole number of "the few persons above the condition of laboring men" is given in Neill's 'Founders of Maryland' as twenty, including the Protestant gentry and the six Catholics who disappeared in from one to three years.

Besides making their religious convictions known at court, the following facts show how strongly the Protestants expressed them at home:

"Notwithstanding there was no Church of England minister in the Province, the Snow family and other Protestant Catholics appear to have held religious services. Surgeon Thomas Gerard [son of a Catholic planter], whose wife and son-in-law were decided Protestant Catholics, had legal difficulties in 1642 relative to the use of a chapel, probably growing out of his position as acting administrator of the estate of Justinian Snow.

"David Wickliff in March complained to the Assembly, in behalf of the Protestant Catholics, that Gerard had taken away the key of their chapel and removed the books. The case was heard, and he was ordered to relinquish all title to the chapel, to restore the books, and pay a fine of five hundred pounds of tobacco for the support of the first Protestant Catholic minister [*i. e.*, English Churchman] who should settle in the Province" ('Founders of Maryland,' pp. 99, 100).

Bozman says: "This exaggerated fine upon him demonstrates that the Protestants—supposing them to be of the Church of England only—must have possessed, at this early period of the settlement of the Province, a very great influence therein" (vol. ii., p. 200).

The article in the *Century* is plainly correct in saying that "the Catholics were at length but a small minority"; but from the most recent and trustworthy investigations, it is plainly incorrect in following the old exaggerations about their original preponderance. And the assertion that, "in about twenty years after Governor Calvert's landing at St. Mary's, the ultra-Protestant element, inflamed by the bitter conflict of parties in England, became sufficiently powerful to . . . expel the priests from the Province," overlooks the fact that Father Andrew White, one of the first two Jesuits, was sent a prisoner to London nearly ten years before, when as yet all Protestant elements were combined against the King; and earlier still men were fined in Maryland for speaking disrespectfully of the Church of England. This certainly was not due to the ultra-Protestants.

Until within a few years, the historians have not recognized, as their authorities do, the influence of Protestants, and especially Churchmen, in Maryland from the first.—Yours,

GEO. F. MAGOUN.

IOWA COLLEGE, March 2, 1883.

FENIMORE COOPER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish to call your attention to an article in your paper on Mr. Lounsbury's biography of Fenimore Cooper. The writer says: "Cooper's life was one prolonged and furious quarrel with his critics and neighbors"; and again, that "it is undisputed that Cooper had a hot temper and liked to quarrel." Both these remarks tend to give a wrong impression of the man, and are

therefore unjust. It is true that for a few years he was engaged in lawsuits with certain newspapers, because their reviews of his books took the form of personal abuse. He attempted to restrain the license of the press. He threw himself, with manly courage and energy, into that terrible vortex that always surrounds a reformer. What some might call a "hot temper" was only righteous indignation against all meanness and wrong-doing. He was a true American and proud of his country. Though he freely spoke out its faults when he returned to it, yet, while living abroad, he never heard a word against it without a manly and patriotic protest—which cannot be said of all our countrymen abroad. In his private relations he was to his friends always frank, honest, and true, to his family a tender and considerate husband and father; and it is a pity that this side of his character cannot be more fully known. These few lines are written by one who knew him only in the later years of his life, who, though admiring his genius, thought far more highly of his honest, manly, independent character. A.

NEW YORK, February 28, 1883.

PROHIBITION AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You do not deny, in your issue of February 22, that prohibition in Iowa means only the prohibition of keeping a saloon, or running a brewery or distillery to supply a saloon with intoxicants for sale as a beverage. The temperance people who had the measure for submission to popular vote passed through the Legislature, had sense enough to strike out the words, "or to be used," although the journal of our House failed to record it, and thus gave the Supreme Court technical ground to declare the amendment void. They knew that they had no right to forbid the use of intoxicants, because that would be an outrage of personal liberty; but they knew that they had the right to ostracise by law all traffic in intoxicants, and decided to do so by thirty thousand majority.

The "tendency to be uncandid and sophistical" is not limited to temperance agitators. For instance, when you draw a comparison between the prohibition of intoxicating liquors and the prohibition of potatoes, you lay yourself liable to criticism. The former are luxuries, the latter a necessity. You make the same mistake that Lord Palmerston did, who could never understand why ale and gin should not be free articles of commerce, like treacle and vinegar. But, even in conservative England, Lord Palmerston's sophistic reasoning upon this important subject was exploded and repudiated.

Prohibition in some form or other is the aim of the American people of Iowa. Why? Because the liquor traffic is a glaring, unmanageable wrong. The State cannot undertake the education of the morals, appetites, and passions of its people, to say nothing of the foreigners who seek our shores and leave their moderation behind. The American people are a realistic people, and want to strike the evil right on the head; and its head is the saloon—the rest are only accessories. ERNST HOFER.

MCGREGOR, IOWA, Feb. 26, 1883.

[This letter gives us a feeling of despair. But we will try again before resorting to a chisel and hammer. We said "potatoes," by way of illustration, in the hope that by using this familiar vegetable we should make the argument easier to Mr. Hofer's comprehension, and without the smallest reference to the place they occupy as an article of human food. We now inform him that their nature or use or name has absolutely no connection whatever with our point. Anything else—sawdust or cat's-meat—will do as well. If he knows anything of algebra, the letter *a* will do. We now vary the illustration by saying, that if it were *a* which was under discussion, he would never indulge in the sophistry in which he indulges with regard to *b*, that a prohibition against the sale or importation of the article within the State was not an interference with the liberty of the person wishing to use it. What we sought to convey was, that his mind was so twisted on the liquor question that he was more liable to fall into fallacies and sophistries about liquor than about any other article of human desire or use.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: By the courtesy of the *Nation*, I should be glad to add this much to my former communication. When men's thoughts are earnest and forceful, they easily become narrow and extreme. The difficulty inheres in the feebleness of our rational and moral faculties, and belongs hardly more to those who push reform than to those who oppose it. It follows from this fact that no cause is to be held responsible for any methods or conclusions save those which logically inhere in it; and no person is chargeable with any opinion save those he has expressed or clearly implied. If we were to wait till a wise thing could be done wisely, a good thing prosperously, we should be found standing on the shores of an old world, casting wistful eyes over a waste of waters in search of a new world.

It is difficult to understand how any one should suppose that any other force than a moral one must be first and last in the temperance reform. All that the prohibitionist need claim is, that when society in its progress encounters appetite and avarice which are not open to moral truth, which are acting, under the sanction of law, to debase society, society has both the right and the duty to put its own laws on its own side.

It is plain that prohibition necessarily restricts in a very considerable degree the indulgences of persons—indulgences which, in themselves considered, offer no occasion for the intervention of law. For one, I should neither cherish the purpose nor the wish to restrain a strictly temperate use of intoxicants by law. This fact, that prohibition goes further than the evil involved, must be fully admitted by the prohibitionist. The necessity of the case is his justification. The appetitive enjoyments of a few are not, to his mind, comparable gains with the innumerable losses and dangers which accompany them. It is equally true, however, that this restriction is not the object of prohibition, but only its incident. It is not fair to speak of it as the end in view. The criminal who is imprisoned may leave parents or children without support: he is not imprisoned for that very purpose. The deterring consideration to the wise prohibitionist is this very thing, the private and social pleasures of many worthy citizens; that with which he weighs down this objection is the unmeasured gain of all men by temperance—temperance enforced by public sentiment, and in due time fortified by law. He no more here than elsewhere expects to win great good without some evil.

JOHN BASCOM.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, MADISON, Feb. 28, 1883.

Notes.

S. E. CASSINO & Co., Boston, announce a "Standard Library of Natural History," or popular encyclopædia of the animal kingdom, of which the editorship will be in the competent hands of Dr. Elliott Coues and Mr. J. Kingsley.

The 'Life of Bishop Wilberforce,' which has made so great a stir in England on account of the editor's indiscretions, will be shortly published here by E. P. Dutton & Co., in one volume.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press the 'Odes' of Horace, translated by Henry Hubbard Pierce, U. S. A.; a 'History of the Union League Club of Philadelphia'; 'Miracles of the Saints,' by E. Cobham Brewer, author of the 'Readers' Handbook'; and 'Insects Injurious to Fruit,' by Prof. William Saunders.

Mr. Louis Kempner, 5 Clinton Place, New York, has compiled from the *Nation* a pamphlet of forty pages, including the principal contributions to the discussion over 'Unpunished Homicide at the South.' It is well calculated to be of service to those earnestly desirous of abolishing the scandal in question. Mr. Kempner advertises that he will publish this month the first number of a new weekly journal devoted to political culture and the interest of American students, called the *Student and Statesman*.

Forestry Bulletin No. 25, Tenth Census, is devoted to the forests of West Virginia, which are principally composed of broad-leaved trees, with white and chestnut oaks as the most important. The white-pine area exceeds 300 square miles.

The annual report of the Connecticut Agricultural Experiment Station for 1882 possesses the usual interest for farmers, particularly in the section on the comparative analysis of ensilage and fresh fodder. The new and stringent Connecticut legislation as to the sale and declaration of fertilizers will attract the attention of law-makers in States which have not yet established experiment stations. Last year (the sixth in its existence) the Connecticut Station was provided with independent buildings and grounds in a New Haven suburb at the State's expense.

Boston University, of which the President's Annual Report lies before us, is to be congratulated on having acquired its first permanent hall, well built and equipped in every way, as appears, and on Beacon Hill. The report, like its predecessors, has much irrelevant fine writing.

The *Chrysanthemum* (Yokohama: Kelly & Co.; London: Trübner & Co.) began its third volume in January with a change of form and style, both for the better. This number is an excellent one. Mr. T. W. Blakiston continues his valuable "Ornithological Notes"; Captain Brinkley contributes the first chapter of a "History of Japanese Ceramics"; and there is a first instalment of a translation from a paper by Dr. Adolf Groth, of the Medical Department of the University of Tokio, on (*pace* Dr. Dix) the "Higher Education in Japan." In addition to the foregoing, the reader is treated to fiction, history, and literary reviews of good quality; and finally, a native retrospect of the course of events in Japan, "The Old Year," is compiled from the summaries of the *Nichi Nichi Shimbun* and other vernacular journals.

In the January *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* published by the French School at Athens, will be found an article by Mr. W. J. Stillman, describing a remarkable engraved cuirass found in the bed of the river Alphæus some fifteen or twenty years ago. It was so covered with a chalky deposit that its value had escaped observation till Mr. Stillman saw it and with infinite pains removed the preserving crust. Three heliogravures of this interesting piece of armor, which bears the marks not only of elegant workmanship, but of hard service in battle, accompany the description. The incised decoration consists in part of figures of Apollo, Latona, and Artemis, with a counterbalancing group,

in part of bulls and lions facing each other ; and finally of two rampant and opposing sphinxes and two leopards in the same attitude. A lotus forms the centre of an ornamental border, and the general effect of the design is Eastern. Mr. Stillman regards the work as of purely Greek origin, however, and assigns it to the sixth century B. C., and, on account of the rampant beasts, associates it as to its source with the lions of Mycenæ. The composition of the bronze is excellent in a high degree. The rims of the armholes were rounded upon iron wire now completely oxidized, and only discoverable by chemical analysis.

Bulletin No. 1 of the "Société Historique et Cercle Saint-Simon" contains, in President Monod's retrospective address in November last, a clear account of the origin of this promising club of men of letters, whose chief but not exclusive bond is a fondness for historic studies. The *Cercle* is now well and commodiously lodged in a building on the Boulevard Saint-Germain, No. 215, and Rue Saint-Simon, No. 2—this latter circumstance suggesting the name which has been adopted, and which, as M. Monod says, will please both the friends of Old France and the adversaries of the *ancien régime*. On the 31st of October the Society offered a "punch d'honneur" to M. Savorgnan de Brazza, and the toasts and speeches on that occasion are reported in the Bulletin. So is a lecture by Prof. Albert Sorel, delivered November 25, on French Influence in Europe on the Eve of the Revolution. Finally, the constitution and by-laws of the Society, with lists of its officers and extensive membership, and of the periodicals in its reading-room, complete this interesting publication. The Bulletin will, we believe, appear ten times per annum.

In the *Réforme Sociale* for February 15 (the fortnightly organ of the school of the late M. P. F. Le Play) M. Maurice Firmin-Didot makes a weighty arraignment of the monopoly of the Imprimerie Nationale. This establishment, whose privileges and pretensions, like its equipment, far exceed those of our Government Printing-Office, makes a nominal annual return to the state, but in reality is a heavy burden upon the budget, and is in constant conflict with ministers and departments anxious to economize their expenses by getting their printing done through the competition of private establishments. The National Printing-Office's charges are high, and are only lowered to market rates as the result of controversies which confirm the monopoly but make the lowering seem imperative. Already the Office produces the blanks of the Government telegraphs, and will assuredly contend for the printing of the railways which the Government contemplates purchasing. The article aims to show by a striking example the evil effects of Government socialism.

The London *Musical Review* of February 17 is almost entirely devoted to Wagner. There is a well-written biography of seven columns, followed by copious extracts of opinion from the principal London papers, as well as all the details that could be collected concerning Wagner's last days and the manner in which the news of his death was received in Munich, Vienna, Berlin, etc. Every admirer of Wagner should possess this paper, copies of which can be obtained at Ditson's.

In Paris an exhibition is in preparation of all the portraits, works, documents, and personal souvenirs of Jean Jacques Rousseau.

Rouquette, Paris, has published a 'Bibliographie et Iconographie des Œuvres d'Alfred de Musset.'

In Florence next month will be sold the Toscanelli fine-art collection, including some two hundred pictures on wood with gold backgrounds, specimens of the Italian and Flemish masters of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, about thirty of which are signed by the painters or described by Vasari; and also the remarkable Rusca collection of majolica, sculptured marbles, sixteenth-century armor, embroideries in silk and gold, bronzes and stuffs of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, ancient furniture, etc. Prof. G. Milanesi, who has had the arrangement and cataloguing of it, pronounces the Toscanelli collection "marvellous," and "the richest and most precious private collection in Italy"; and regrets that he was not familiar with it when preparing his last edition of Vasari. The catalogue of the Rusca collection is a work of art in itself, being beautifully printed, and freely illustrated with photographs of the several classes of objects. Both sales will be made through Giulio Sambon.

In the *Roman News* for February 14—a weekly illustrated paper in English begun last month—we find a memorial prepared by the American artists resident in Rome in behalf of a removal of the duties on works of art imported into this country. This memorial was drawn up, the *News* says, as a communication intended, with its signatures, for the *Nation*. "But before the time for mailing it had arrived, the *Century Magazine* for February was received, in which, under the 'Topics of the Time,' was printed a forcible article to the same effect, together with a resolution by the Society of American Artists that the attention of the Tariff Commission should be called to this important matter." Two sentences from this document will indicate the spirit of it : "We can think of no single good effect following from the charging of a custom-tax upon works of art. If it be supposed that thereby the interests of American artists are protected, it is a palpable mistake."

—The December number of the *Antiquary* (J. W. Bouton) contains the last of a series of papers, four in number, by J. H. Round, upon "The Domesday of Colchester." There is no better way of getting instruction from Domesday Book than the minute study of one locality, with the assistance derived from the later history and present condition of the place ; and Colchester, the Roman Camulodunum, affords a very good field for this kind of work. Perhaps the most important contribution made by Mr. Round is in the first article (June), in which, with the assistance of a map, he examines the relation of the *burgus* to the *civitas*—Colchester bearing both names, and also being classed as a *hundred* (it is well known that English boroughs regularly, or frequently, were, "for official and administrative purposes," hundreds). Mr. Round shows that the *burgus*, the walled enclosure, "formed less than a thirtieth part of the *tota civitas*," and proceeds to develop the theory that the town was "not a *walled town* with lands belonging to it, but an *urban district*, of which a small fraction was comprised within walls." It does not seem to occur to him that the *civitas*, as he defines it here, was precisely the Greek and Roman "city," and that there may have been a survival of the ancient type in this old Roman colony. The theory presented by him is, in brief, "that the old English towns were originally, in name and organization, rural and not urban, hundreds and not boroughs," and we incline to accept its general correctness, although it is not possible, in the limits of a note, to discuss his arguments in full. The other papers are of less importance, but they deserve to be studied in detail by all who are interested in the development of early English institutions.

—"We earnestly hope Mr. Parkman will continue the history of the progress of Christian civilization in Canada, and that Mme. de Clermont-Tonnerre will make it accessible to French readers." So says, in the January *Polybiblion*, a reviewer of that lady's translation, 'Les Jésuites dans l'Amérique du Nord.' The Countess had previously translated the 'Pioneers of France,' and on the ground of priority has some sort of a title to continue her reproductions. That Mr. Parkman is probably indisposed to wish for or to grant her a monopoly, or to approve her performances thus far, will be the conclusion of any one who carefully compares her latest version with the original. 'The Jesuits' has reached a fourteenth edition, and the more popular a work becomes, the more objectionable and injurious is any mutilation of it. The Countess begins by leaving out the introduction (89 pp.), which, as it relates to the native tribes among whom the Jesuits were to labor, must be considered an integral and a very important part of the narrative. She likewise, and again without any hint of it to her French readers, omits Chapters ii. ("Loyola and the Jesuits") and xiii. ("Quebec and its Tenants"). Not without some excuse, yet without proper respect for her author's arrangement, she transposes Chapter xviii. and makes it xv. Finally, the footnotes are preserved or discarded at pleasure. Probable reasons for omitting Chap. ii. may be found in the passage on p. 13: "No religious order has ever united in itself so much to be admired and so much to be detested [as the Society of Jesus]" ; and, for omitting Chapter xiii., in a number of similar stumbling-blocks to a good Catholic like the Countess; *e. g.* (p. 152), "In his eyes, the vicious imbecile who sat on the throne of France was the anointed champion of the Faith, and the cruel and ambitious priest who ruled King and nation alike was the chosen instrument of Heaven"; or (p. 158), "In 1639, deputies were covertly sent to beg relief in France, and 'to represent the hell in which the consciences of the colony were kept by the union of the temporal and spiritual authority in the same hands'" ; or (p. 160), "The unchecked sway of priests has always been the most mischievous of tyrannies; and even were they all well-meaning and sincere, it would be so still."

—Thanks to these hiatuses and to a more or less wilful perversion of parts of what is retained, Mme. de Clermont-Tonnerre succeeds in transforming Mr. Parkman into a very pious and acceptable historian for Catholics. We have not space to exhibit her method fully, but will give some examples from Chap. xiv.—"Devotees and Nuns." The simple statement, "but a remedy was at hand," becomes "Dieu allait y pourvoir," although Mr. Parkman's view of the Providence in the matter is misrepresented by such a phrase. The historian's possibly heretical but perfectly plain intimation that Madame de la Peltrie owed a higher obedience to her progenitor than to "those who held charge of her conscience" ("ses supérieurs spirituels"), is prefaced in the French by the apologetic "Notre humble opinion sera que," etc. A page or two further on, Mr. Parkman cites in a foot note the Catholic authorities who condone the sham marriage (to circumvent her father) of the pious missionary just named, and adds what his *traduttore* carefully omits: "Surprising as it may appear, the book from which the above is taken was written a few years since, in so-called English, for the instruction of the pupils in the Ursuline Convent at Quebec." By the expedient of suppressing Mr. Parkman's ironical "It is scarcely necessary to say that," he is made a believer in the miracle—"they were saved by a vow to the Virgin and St. Joseph." The following addition to the story of the chaste little girl who washed her hands that had been innocently touched by a man, is a pure and un-

warrantable insertion of Mme. de Clermont-Tonnerre's: "Mais laissons ces minuties qui, même dans leur exagération, tendaient au moins à préserver ces jeunes filles du contact de la licence sans bornes que nous avons pu constater parmi les sauvages." And so is the following in the closing paragraph of the chapter: "Le but au moins en était trop louable pour ne pas racheter ces imperfections inhérentes à la nature humaine et peut-être féminine, nous permettra-t-on d'ajouter." This sentiment has a genuine jesuitical ring, but it is none of Mr. Parkman's.

—In one of the papyri of the Turin Museum, M. Maspero has found a fragment of a debate, which he refers to the Twentieth Dynasty, the oldest known instance of that form of literary composition which flourished so much in the Middle Ages, and was not unknown in the earlier days of our own literature. It is as follows (as communicated to the Académie des Inscriptions):

"Trial of the Stomach and the Head, in which are published the pleas made before the Supreme Judges.

"While their President watched over the unveiling of falsehood, his eye did not cease to weep.

"When the required rites were accomplished for the god who detests iniquities, after the Stomach had made his complaint, the Head spoke at length:

"It is I, I, the main beam of the whole house, from whom the beams start out, and who join the beams. All the members [rest] on me, and are in joy. My forehead is joyous; my members are vigorous; the neck holds itself firm under the head; my eye sees far; the nostrils dilate and breathe the air; the ear opens and hears; the mouth emits sounds and converses; the two arms are vigorous and do so well that the man acquires respect, walks with head erect, looks the great in the face as well as the small.

. . .

"It is I who am their queen; it is I, the Head of my consorts, who will punish him who has held this language (is it not false?). Call me the Head! It is I who give life."

This is but a fragment, but it is more intelligible than many Egyptian documents. In the second sentence, one may note a facility of weeping which reminds one of the Arabian Nights, or, to go further off, of the heroes of the ancient Homeric and modern French poems. M. Maspero considers the debate to be an early Egyptian form of the fable of the Belly and the Members. If it is, Menenius Agrippa has paraded in borrowed plumes for many centuries. Now he may well say: "Pereant qui ante nos nostra dixere." It is pleasant to see how the world is growing larger in time as well as in space. Formerly, it was thought enough when Mr. Bartlett traced some familiar quotation from Talleyrand or Metternich back to Cicero or Agesilaus. As things are going now, he will soon be little thought of, and not even his eight editions will save him from being superseded, if he does not occasionally refer to books saved from the library of Assurbanipal, and find the originals of some of our American humor in the tombs of the Pharaohs.

—That Immanuel Kant, though the very embodiment of metaphysics and logic, was yet a fond reader of general literature and of works of fiction, is well known; but that he was also capable, and could be guilty, of writing verses, is a surprising fact recently made known by the *Altpreussische Monatschrift*, a journal published in the great thinker's native city, Königsberg. If it was ever before spoken of in a biography of Kant, we, at least, have either not read or have forgotten it. In a literary article on occasional productions, oratorical or poetical, to which interesting events in Königsberg life gave rise about the middle of the last century, the *Monatschrift* communicates two memorial poems by the philosopher, each consisting of a few lines only. They were composed in compliance with the then customary demand on the professors of the Königsberg University to devote to the memory of deceased colleagues some verses in Latin or German. Kant commemorated the deaths of Christiani, Professor of Law, and Lilienthal, Professor of Theology. The four lines devoted to the latter were composed shortly after the publication of the 'Critique of Pure Reason.' They are characteristic of the author, as a man and a philosopher, and not unworthy of him. Here they follow:

"Das was auf Erden folgt, deckt tiefe Finsterniss;
Was uns zu thun gebührt, des sind wir nur gewiss.
Dem kann, wie Lilienthal, kein Tod die Hoffnung rauben,
Der glaubt, um recht zu thun, recht thut, um froh zu glauben."

—Germany has lately lost two eminent philologists, both renowned as Hebraists and equally as students in other fields. We refer to Justus Olshausen, who died at the close of last year, at the age of eighty-two, and to Franz Dietrich, who died in the beginning of this year, aged seventy-two. The former, a younger brother of the well-known Protestant theologian, Hermann Olshausen, and older brother of the Holstein journalist, Theodor Olshausen—who, after the defeat of the German party in the Duchy, lived fourteen years in this country, returning to Germany in 1865—was born in Holstein, studied in Berlin and Paris, became professor at Kiel, was active with Theodor as a defender of the autonomy of Schleswig-Holstein against the Danish Government, lost his professorship in 1852, was appointed professor at the Königsberg University, and subsequently became Councillor in the Prussian Ministry of Worship and Education—a position which he held till 1874. His fame rests on his writings on the 'Vendidad' (1829) and kindred Iranian subjects, on his 'Erklärung der Psalmen' (1853)—a work of radical criticism—and on his excellent 'Lehrbuch der hebräischen Sprache' (1861). Dietrich was a native of Saxony, studied in Halle and Berlin, and from 1844 till his death was professor at the Marburg University. His activity was almost equally divided between Semitic and Teutonic philology and antiquities, his writings embracing studies on Hebrew, Chaldee, Syriac, Phœnician, Gothic, and Scandinavian topics. He repeatedly edited Gesenius's Hebrew Dictionary, the standard lexicographical authority on the language. In this editorship he was succeeded, in 1878, by Mühlau and Volck, who then issued the eighth edition, and are now publishing the ninth.

—Robert Franz, who is not only one of the greatest song writers of all times, but has done much for the cause of music by making many of the works of Bach and Handel more palatable to modern audiences, was so prostrated by a nervous disorder in 1868 that he had to give up his position as organist and director at Halle. He was saved, with his family, from penury through the generosity of Liszt, Joachim, and Frau Magnus (who made a concert tour in his behalf which netted him 90,000 marks), and the munificence of other friends. From a letter written by Franz to Mr. Sebastian B. Schlesinger, German Consul in Boston, and dated Halle, February 7, 1883, it seems that the condition of his health is poorer than ever. He says: "Day before yesterday I received your songs and was truly delighted with them. Unfortunately, I am no longer in a condition to derive material enjoyment from musical things, for my sense of hearing is *completely* gone. To this loss in the meantime has been added the paralysis of five fingers—three on the right hand and two on the left—a loss which for some time has deprived me of the power to play on the piano-forte. It is only with great pains that I am still able to take cognizance of our beautiful art through the medium of my eyes—a poor reparation, indeed, for what I have lost. But what my eyes can read redounds very much to the honor of your songs. Your melody is remote from triviality, and is agreeably supported by freely chosen harmonies which are developed in interesting forms of accompaniment. Although I can fancy a slight alteration in this or that passage, this signifies little in face of the general merits of the songs. What gave me most pleasure was the naturalness of your expression, for the want of naturalness in most compositions of the period is so great as to make one almost lose all interest in music. Endeavor to keep such monstrosities far away from you, however much the great crowd may applaud them. Art must always preserve an aristocratic dignity—at least, that is the principle I have always endeavored to follow earnestly with my own humble powers."

—Louis Sigismond complains, in the London *Musical Review*, that musical education in France is almost non-existent, music being generally looked upon as a mere recreation, and an indifference maintained toward its artistic significance, except by some hundreds of amateurs. The concerts of the Paris Conservatoire do little to advance the cause of the art or enlist public enthusiasm. Although in their sphere without a superior in the world, they are feebly directed by a man too old for that difficult duty, M. Deldevez, and address themselves to a public that is hostile in principle to all that is not Haydn, Mozart, or Beethoven, and is "more likely to hear one of Haydn's symphonies three times a year than Schumann's in B flat once in three years." At the popular concerts of Pasdeloup, Colonne, and Lamoureux a more liberal spirit prevails. Pasdeloup will always be remembered as the courageous leader who first acclimated Wagner on the Parisian concert stage, in the face of the most violent opposition. His later rivals, who have better orchestras, are now reaping the good fruit of his enterprise, and draw full houses by their programmes, on which Wagner occupies a conspicuous place. Outside of Paris, however, nothing of the kind is to be found, except at Angers, which has an admirable orchestra. "In spite of innumerable concerts and theatres; in spite of official schools, where music is taught in a more or less narrow-minded spirit, the modern progress of the art among us is far behind Germany, Belgium, and even Italy, and yet there are elements of much that is hopeful and good."

—Patriotism as a general national trait is probably as well developed in Germany as in France, but there can be no doubt that the intellectual leaders among the French are much more addicted to chauvinism than German men of genius. No greater contrast could be conceived than that, for instance, between Hugo and Michelet on the one hand, and on the other Heine, Boerne, and Schopenhauer, one of whose chief delights was to abuse their own countrymen. Richard Wagner was in this, as in some other things, a disciple of Schopenhauer; and if the French had known he had said a great many more severe things against the Germans than against themselves, they would not, probably, have abused him so much during his lifetime, and even exulted over his death. The *Revue Politique et Littéraire* of February 17 contains a hitherto unpublished letter by Wagner describing his sentiments towards the French, and containing several dabs at his own countrymen. It was addressed to M. M. G. Monod, editor of the *Revue Historique*, who had written to Wagner to express his admiration of the Nibelung performances given at Bayreuth in 1876, as well as his regrets that

the little anti-French farce which Wagner had written in January, 1871, should have made it so difficult for his music to be impartially judged in France. Wagner's reply is dated Sorrento, October 25, 1876, and contains several points of biographic interest. He explains that the farce referred to ("A Capitulation") has been misjudged. "Is there nobody who can read with care?" he asks. "Or rather, who among the journalists of the time will display sufficient intelligence and acuteness to understand that in the work for which I have been most reproached, written at the worst period of the war, in a spirit of bitter irony, the end I had in view was, above all, to ridicule the condition of the German stage? Recall to your memory the conclusion of this farce. The intendants and directors of the German theatres hasten into besieged Paris in order to carry away for their theatres all the novelties in the shape of plays and ballets." As regards his opinion of the French public, he refers to the remarks made in his account of the notorious "Tannhäuser" performances in Paris, written for a German paper and reprinted in the seventh volume of his collected works. There he attributes to this public a bright receptivity and really magnanimous sense of justice. The opposition, he could easily see, came from certain cliques, the Jockey Club and the critics, while the real public actually defended him by demonstrative applause kept up for fifteen minutes against these cliques. At the banquet given after the Bayreuth performances, he fully explained that the remarks made by him, on various occasions, against French art were not directed against that art in its proper place, as he recognized that it gave to French life and thought a precise and elegant form; it was rather directed against the servile imitation and caricature of that art by which the Germans made themselves ridiculous. This art was not adapted to German habits, and he therefore had aimed throughout his life at creating a new art of a national, German character, and typical of an original civilization. The Germans, however, seemed to prefer their mixed international art to anything new, and he found accordingly that his performances at Bayreuth "were better appreciated and judged with more intelligence by the English and the French than by the greater part of the German press." "I have," he continues, "remained further removed from the sphere which embraces the intellectual movement of contemporary Germany than from the regions where I meet serious spirits of foreign birth, so different from this so-called German culture."

A BRITISH OFFICER.

A Soldier's Life and Work in South Africa, 1872 to 1879. A Memoir of the late Colonel A. W. Durnford, Royal Engineers. Edited by his Brother, Lieut.-Colonel E. Durnford. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1882.

Colonel A. W. Durnford, the subject of this admirably-written memoir, was one of the many officers who lost their lives when the Zulus annihilated the British troops encamped at the hill of Isandhlwana. Being the senior officer present in the engagement, the responsibility of the disaster was fastened upon him by Lord Chelmsford, the General in command of the whole Army, and this explanation of the matter was tacitly acquiesced in both by the Duke of Cambridge and by the Secretary of State for War. Actually, the conduct of Colonel Durnford upon that disastrous occasion was worthy not of censure either direct or implied, but of the highest honor; and his brother, Colonel E. Durnford, feeling this, strove in every possible way to obtain a formal acknowledgment of it from the highest official authorities. His endeavors were futile. It was in vain that he produced evidence of a wholly unanswerable character. High official personages, having first closed their eyes and their minds, protested that they could "see no reason" for reopening the question; and so Colonel E. Durnford has published this memoir of his brother, in which he makes appeal to the nation against the indifference and injustice of commanders-in-chief and secretaries of state.

The interest, however, of such biographies as this is not to be measured by that of the particular incident or controversy which produced them. Their value consists in the fact that they remind us of an obvious truism, indeed, but one which we are very apt to forget, that it is not the few men who are most prominently before the world that can do much for the nation they are supposed to govern. The greatness of a people will be in a state of decadence or otherwise, according as the number is small or great of men who ask for no higher reward than consists in unstintingly devoting themselves to the duties, small or great, which are actually imposed upon them. These are the men who are most truly to be called "the salt of the earth." Wordsworth has described them in his poem on "The Happy Warrior," and such a character was the late Colonel A. W. Durnford. Among living Englishmen, there is not to be found a more striking personality than General Gordon, commonly known as "Chinese" Gordon. In him we have a man who appears to be altogether impervious to the inducements of ambition or public applause, who cares nothing for distinction or any other of the prizes on which men generally set so excessive a value; who is, in short, careful for nothing, except the consciousness of duty done. Between "Chinese" Gordon and Colonel Durnford there existed an intimate friendship, and in character also there were many striking points of similarity. The special fault charged against Durnford at Isandhlwana was that he disobeyed the orders of the General in command, and that to this disobedience the disaster was due. The charge has since then been refuted by the recovery from the field of the orders given to Durnford; but even without such clear proof, it would be hardly possible for a reader of this memoir not to feel that this charge, at any rate, could not be true. The character of the man as disclosed in these pages is a sufficient refutation.

His first military service in South Africa was in command of a small force sent in pursuit of Langalibalele and his tribe. His orders were to press on by forced marches, so as to reach a certain pass in the mountains—the Bushman's River Pass—in advance of the flying Kaffirs.

"The approach to the Giant's Castle Pass lay through the wildest, most broken country imaginable, and the difficulties of the way often seemed well-nigh insurmountable. Many of the men became exhausted and fell out, returning to camp; others might perhaps have done the like but for the example set them by Major Durnford. . . . During the day's march he met with a severe accident, being dragged backward over a precipice by the horse which he was leading up some difficult incline, and which lost its footing and fell a considerable distance, strangely enough receiving no injury from the fall. His master, however, was not so fortunate: after striking the rock several times, his fall was broken by a limb of a tree, which caught him under the left arm, dislocating the shoulder, two ribs also being injured, and his face and head severely cut. Here was an end, apparently, of all projects for reaching the Bushman's River Pass. But those who thought so, little knew the man they had to deal with. They dragged him up again, set the dislocated shoulder as well as they could manage it, and in a little while all present were electrified by the remark, in a quiet, cheerful tone, from their prostrate and injured commander, 'I'm all right now; we must push on. Elijah' (addressing the native interpreter), 'where is my horse?' 'Here it is, Inkos (*i. e.*, chief), close beside you,' was the answer. 'Then help me up'; and presently he was mounted again, and ready to proceed."

The pass, however, could not be reached that night, and when darkness fell Durnford and his party bivouacked without food or shelter on the hillside. The moon rose about eleven o'clock, and Durnford then ordered an immediate advance. But his injuries had had time to stiffen, and it was only by the stern endurance of the greatest pain that he was able to proceed.

"At first, it appears, they carried him in a blanket; but after a while it became impossible to advance any further in this manner, on account of the intense pain which this mode of progression inflicted upon his dislocated shoulder and shattered frame. . . . He got over the rest of the way on foot, by means of a blanket passed round his body, with two men holding on to either end and slowly pulling forward, while two others supported him from behind as well as they could. They were obliged to halt every two or three steps and lay him down on the ground to give him rest, yet his spirit was undaunted to the last. His first order upon reaching the mountain-top after this terrible ascent was to upsaddle the horses, but then he sank to the ground, utterly exhausted and overcome. Yet half an hour's rest was all that was necessary to restore his resolute spirit to the mastery, and, when his horses were brought up to where he lay, he made his men lift him on to his gray Basuto horse, and led the advance himself, over a rough and broken country, as energetically as if he had been in his usual state of health and strength."

The River Pass was finally reached in advance of the fugitive Kaffirs; but the attempt to stay them was defeated by reason of a panic which seized upon the Natal Carbineers (volunteers) with Durnford, who fled helter-skelter from the field, leaving their commander with a few Basuto cavalry to extricate himself as best he could.

"When at last he gave up the vain attempt to rally his white command, he turned his horse and rode back alone through the Basutos toward the pass, resolved at all events to sell his own life dearly among the foe. The Basutos at first, as one of them afterward said, 'thought he might have dropped something, and wanted to find it.' . . . But when they saw that he was riding back straight to the pass alone, they became alarmed, and some of them who had followed galloped up beside him, and although he made no reply to their questions, they knew by the expression of his face that he was going back to die. Faithful and obedient followers as they had hitherto proved themselves, they now took the law into their own hands, and, seizing his horse's bridle, they brought him back. Wounded by assegais in the arm and the side, he was by this time reduced to an almost fainting condition from loss of blood added to his previous injuries."

But the indomitable spirit of the man comes out in yet another incident of this expedition. On his return to the main body of the English force, he learned that a detachment had been sent to his support, and that, nothing having since been heard of it, it was feared that it might have been hemmed in by the enemy.

"Major Durnford, feeling these men had been sent to his support, at once declared that he would himself go to their relief. The surgeon, who had dressed his wounds, protested against his undergoing any further fatigue; but those sent to his assistance were in danger, and no one but himself was competent to lead a party in search of them. Remonstrances were of no avail. He called for volunteers. . . . A thunderstorm, accompanied by heavy rain, coming on in the afternoon, prevented the march of the party until 11 P.M. It was a memorable scene, not easily to be forgotten by those present—and there were many—who appreciated the devoted conduct of the leader of the relief. Among the soldiers of the regular force, this appreciation rose to enthusiasm when, unable to mount by himself, Major Durnford was lifted upon his horse and took his place at the head of the detachment."

At the beginning of his South African career, Col. Durnford had accepted without question the ordinary British view of British dealings with what are called "inferior races"—namely, that the "inferior races" are always in the wrong, in consequence of an inborn depravity of character, and the English always in the right, in virtue of their higher civilization. The "eating up" of Langalibalele and his tribe—an act shocking even when judged by the standard of South African precedent—convinced Colonel Durnford that the popular view was not consistent with facts, and from that time he stood forth as the fearless champion of the Kaffir races against European tyranny. He became among the settlers the most unpopular and best abused man in Natal; but by the Kaffirs he was rewarded with the heartiest loyalty and gratitude. "He was," said one of his Basuto soldiers, "a new experience to us. No other white chief ever showed us the same consideration and sympathy. That night on the mountains [in pursuit of Langalibalele] it was cold, but the Major could not bear the weight of his heavy waterproof-coat on his injured shoulder. So he told Elijah Kambula, who had on a light woollen overcoat, to change coats with him. Elijah, who had never received such an order from a white chief before, said to me in Basuto, 'What did he say? That I am to give him my coat and wear his?' 'Come, Elijah, make haste!' exclaimed the Major; 'are you afraid to lend me your coat?' Then Elijah gave it to him, but he had to be told again before he could venture to put on the other. And we all said among ourselves: 'What sort of a chief is this that we have found? He does not despise us!'"

As regards the battle of Isandhlwana, Durnford's share in that disastrous engagement consisted in this, that on the morning of that battle he conducted a cavalry reconnoissance which discovered, at a distance of some five miles from the British camp, a Zulu army, twenty thousand strong, bearing down in a huge semicircle upon the unsuspecting British troops. Though he had with him only two hundred and fifty Basuto horse, he managed these with such admirable skill that not only was the camp warned of its danger, but the Zulus had lost upward of a thousand men before they reached the hill of Isandhlwana. Durnford, in fact, held them completely in check until his ammunition was expended. When the battle was lost, and soldiers and camp followers, crowded together, were flying toward the Natal frontier, Durnford saw that the retreat might be covered, and pursuit checked, if a narrow "nek" were held. Rallying a few of the Twenty-fourth Infantry, and assisted by fourteen of the Natal Carbineers under Lieut. Scott, he held this "nek" for more than two hours until the last man of the little band had fallen where he stood. This heroic stand made a profound impression upon the Zulus. The resistance of "the lion," as the Zulus termed Colonel Durnford, was, they said, so nearly successful that they gained the victory only by their overwhelming numbers, and looked upon it as virtually a defeat. Two months elapsed before the field of Isandhlwana was revisited by British soldiers, and then, for the first time, the incidents of the battle were revealed. One of the Colonel's Basutos, who had escaped from the battle, tells the story of the finding of the body in a very touching way:

"Captain Shepstone and I had been looking a long time before we found him. All the rest were getting wagons and caring nothing, and I was a long way off when I heard Captain Shepstone shouting and saw him waving his arm to me to come. And when I came, he said: 'Look, Jabez, whose face is this?' And I cried out, for it was he; and I saw my master's face again—just himself, changed but very little. No one could doubt for a moment. I cut down a wagon-sail with my knife—for we had not even our blankets with us—and I wrapped my chief in it, and I took him up in my arms (it was these hands that tended him) and I carried him gently to the hollow where we laid him."

In the battle itself, these gallant soldiers had been separated from their much-loved chief in the overwhelming rush of the Zulus. But, speaking of the cavalry reconnoissance, this same Jabez says:

"We could have carried him off with us safely enough at this time, only we knew him too well to try. But we now say, 'If we had known what would happen, we would have seized him and bound him, no matter if he had fought us for doing so, as he certainly would—no matter if he had killed some of us, we would have saved his life, for he was our master.' Now we say that we shall always remember him by his commanding voice, and the way in which he gave us all some of his own spirit, as he went along our line that day; and those among us who had not served under him before, as I had, say, 'Why did we not know him sooner?'"

Never, Jabez goes on to say, in all the years that he had served under the Colonel, had he seen him look so bright and happy—never seen his face shine and his eyes brighten—as during that last fight, when he knew for certain that he should die.

THE CHURCH OF ST. MARK'S.

La Basilica di San Marco in Venezia, Illustrata nei riguardi dell' Arte e della Storia, da Scrittori Veneziani. [The Church of St. Mark at Venice, illustrated from the points of view of Art and History by Venetian Writers.] Parts 1–4. Eight plates in folio; ninety-six plates in quarto, five index plates, dedication, and preface. Venice: Ferdinando Ongania. 1881.

THE Italian publishers have, in illustration of their national monuments of art, begun in earnest the publication of great and costly books, comparable for thoroughness with the productions of Germany, and for brilliant excellence with those of Paris. To those persons who have expressed surprise that united Italy should have appeared solely industrial and military in her undertakings, this at least is to be said: that she is not so unaware of her exceptional position as a custodian of art-treasures as has been supposed. Italian support to these private undertakings of the booksellers may come slowly; but it is good to see the publishers, even if leaning partly on foreign aid and looking forward to native help later on, at least risking something to vie with the older nations of Europe in great undertakings of this sort. At the same time, the work whose title is given above is not to be taken as a perfect type of a class; it is too extensive, and its pretensions are too lofty, for other works to be compared with it hastily. It is the subject of the present inquiry how far it maintains its high pretensions.

The Church of St. Mark is a subject which might well seem too vast for any compiler however diligent, or any publisher however enterprising. Its ornamental details are incalculably numerous, and all are valuable. The richest sculpture, Christian Greek, Italian pre-Gothic and Italian Gothic, the most elaborate and delicate inlay and incrustation in precious marbles, porphyry, serpentine, alabaster, and glass, and of all epochs from the tenth to the seventeenth century, the freest use of large masses of precious material in shafts and wall-facings of literally priceless value (priceless because not to be matched or estimated in any market now open), the most general use of mosaics for interior decoration—all these elements are combined to produce a result of such beauty and variety of charm that no ordinary means can hope to render it even to the most careful student, even with that amount of shortcoming which one expects and allows for in such a reproduction. We are driven, therefore, to some analysis of the prospectus of this work, as well as to an account of what has appeared already; for, while the four parts before us are sufficiently full and varied to make possible some criticism of what is done, there are six parts still to appear, and the newly-received prospectus lies before us as a synopsis of the work's whole plan.

Forty years ago two artists, named John and Louis Kreutz, began the publication of a great work illustrative of St. Mark's. Six very large folio plates, and about one hundred of quarto size, were issued, giving a great mass of details on a large scale, chiefly of the mosaics and of the tesselated pavement, together with some beginnings of a general résumé of the whole pavement, a large plan for reference, and two general sections showing in outline all the mosaics coming within their scope. These plates were all engraved, probably on stone, chiefly in outline, and hand-coloring was used for the details of the pavement; these two, indeed, being the only vehicles within the authors' reach. This work remained unfinished—in fact, hardly well begun—and it is now out of print. It appears that the publisher of the new and more elaborate book includes in his design a reissue of the Kreutz plates, as of proved accuracy, and satisfactory as far as they go. The system of reference to the details, by means of a large plan inscribed with the subjects of mosaics, etc., each in its proper place, has been adopted by the present publisher, and carried further by means of reference-diagrams of elevations and sections of the building. The pavement of the church, well known to all travellers, and famous in the history of art, will be published *complete* in one enormous plan, occupying seven sheets of the folio size (paper, 22½ by 28 inches), which can be put together and mounted as a complete plan of the floor, and which shows every little pattern in every part of this always varying design—even, we are assured, every little triangle of marble in its proper place. One of these seven sheets belonged to the Kreutz publication; the drawings from which the new plates are reduced by photographic process are the result of four years' constant work, and are now on public exhibition at Venice, together with others of the preparations for this work, in rooms above the publisher's shop. The quarto plates of detail have indications of the color, put on by hand, upon the black outline. It is to be regretted that chromolithography is not put to use in this case. Never was a fitter occasion for it, and a half-dozen large details in careful facsimile in chromolithography would give to most persons a better idea of the wonderful effect of the pavement to him who walks over it, than many more plates printed in black and hand-colored in part. There are promised one or more large plates, in color, of the marbles and other stones used in the building, presumably classified mineralogically. But we hope that for this unequalled floor will be allowed not only the exhaustive analysis of the uncolored general drawings with the detailed plates we have spoken of, but also some more adequate representation, such as the brothers Kreutz could not give, but which has now been made possible by chromolithography.

The mosaics of the domes and vaults offer a problem far more difficult to solve. They are very nearly all on curved surfaces. Photography renders them well where light can be had, but misses the color. Artistic drawings in colors are best where their accuracy can be trusted. Measured or traced outline is out of the question for the domes, because not to be transferred to flat surfaces, except for small, separate details. The plan followed by Kreutz

was to give outline details in separate small plates, sometimes partly colored by hand, and to refer these to the large sections of the building. Mr. Ongania follows the same plan for the details, but will supplement it by permanent photographs of all that can be got at by the camera, and also by twenty-nine chromolithographic reproductions of water-color drawings. These will be of folio size, some "picturesque views," and some measured reductions of flat surfaces and developments of the cylindrical surfaces of vaults. Only two of these last, however, have yet been issued. The hand-colored outlines are large in scale and satisfactory in their way, and are already very numerous.

The façade on St. Mark's Place has been the subject of especial study, and of the plates devoted to this a number have already appeared. The whole front will be given in chromolithographs on an enormous scale (about two feet to an inch), occupying twenty-one folio plates, and making, if put together, a general colored elevation 5 feet 9 inches by 8 feet 9 inches. We have already the central doorway and two of the four minor doorways. It is always difficult, whether in the drawings themselves or in these mechanical reproductions of them, to fix the precise limit of elaboration in detail. It is necessary to correct the technical word "elevation" used above: the drawings have all been made with just so much perspective as a photograph gives when taken exactly in front and from a considerable distance. We have, therefore, in order to test the amount of detail given and the stress laid upon it, compared carefully the chromolithograph of the central door with the immense photograph made by Mr. Naya, a little larger in scale and made from precisely the same point of view. The result of a minute comparison is satisfactory. The happy medium seems to be very nearly attained of detail so given as to affect the general design nearly as in viewing the building itself. We have, indeed, detected at least one place in which the photograph reveals a small figure where the drawing shows vague scroll-work, but it is in the flat bas-relief of the archivolt, and much in shadow. In like manner, the photograph gives some of that loveliness of line and mass which a close examination of these sculptures shows so fully; and we cannot say that the chromolithograph does that for us. On the other hand, we are inclined to approve without reserve the color of the three drawings already received. The natural color of the veined and mottled marble, the red, green, and brown columns and wall-facings, contrasted with the color that white marble has gained from weather and salt air—all this, with the chromolithograph in hand, and with clear memory of Mr. Ruskin's glowing and brilliant drawings, seems as nearly satisfactory as possible. One might say, indeed, that these drawings of M. Prosdocimi are rather an architect's than a professed colorist's; rather explanatory of the general and somewhat distant effect than an interpretation of each separate mass of color; too cold to satisfy one who has filled his mind with the wonderful effect of these porches—any such prints will come short in this way—but, on the whole, they are very like the church as it rises from the square, two hundred feet from you.

We come now to a part of the work to which praise only, and that very warm, can be applied. The prospectus enumerates three hundred and ninety-one plates of details of the interior and exterior. We take these to be all photographic, for the thirty-one plates already received of this category are all in heliotype. Certainly nothing could be more successful than these capitals, bas-reliefs, parapets, delicate sculptures of all sorts and of all epochs, some taken in the full light of the exterior, and some (obviously by means of artificial light) in the dim semi-darkness within. Four hundred of these are already a little capital to begin with in the study of decorative art.

This *compte rendu* tends to grow long, and we must come promptly to the chronological part of the work. Material exists for a more or less complete history of the building, and important additions have been made to this material, recently, in the course of the repairs now going on. In the four numbers already received is a folio chromolithographic plate of the west front as it is shown in Gentile Bellini's great painting ("The Procession on the Piazza of St. Mark") in the Academy of Fine Arts of Venice, in which the mosaics are given as they were in 1496. We have also two plates of a series which will show the brick basilica of the eleventh century before the marble facings and screen of columns were added, which turned a Byzantino-Italian church of a not wholly unusual type into something wholly unique in architecture, the most purely beautiful church in the world. These two plates, which have been published, on a reduced scale, before, are the result of measurements made during the repairs and restorations of 1846–9. During the recent partial repairs of the front, and too radical restoration of the south flank, new discoveries have been made of the greatest value in the history of architecture. Descriptions of these newly-discovered features of the early brick basilica, which lies hid beneath the sumptuous exterior we now see, cannot be given here; but the drawings prepared for reproduction in this work are of extraordinary interest.

Of the text, no part has yet come to hand. The names of the authors are announced, and are of reputable Venetian antiquarians. Mr. Camillo Boito, of Rome, a man well known as a writer on art subjects, and connected with Government commissions for the conservation of historical monuments, is named as the general director. It is not advisable to give at present the names of the different artists and authors employed upon the work, as each one's part in it is not yet very clearly established.

This article must not close without some allusion to the borders, vignettes, titles, etc. We cannot like the elaborate dedication, where rich initial-letters and borders, taken from manuscripts of the fifteenth century, are used in an arrangement too like the modern compositor's title-page. The preface-page is better, in a quaint letter sufficiently recalling the monkish character, and yet legible, and with more of the big illuminated initials. The borders and heads of pages, taken from details of the building, are all good, quiet, suitable, truly decorative to the work; and even the portfolios are of uncommon solidity, as if meant to last, and of tasteful get-up. This bids fair to be one of the most important works on decorative art ever published, as well as an unsurpassed and perhaps unequalled monograph of a great ancient building. As regards the things not promised in the prospectus, and which we have alluded to as desirable, it must be said that several times already the plan of the work has been added to since its inception. New discoveries in the structure itself, and ancient representations of the church in newly-studied manuscripts, have been adopted as novel features in the work, and therefore it is to be expected that completeness will continue to be sought for, and nothing will be left undone to make the publication an exhaustive and final monograph.

Leading Men of Japan. By Charles Lanman. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. Pp. 421.

We can imagine few more fascinating subjects of inquiry in the field of biography than the story of the leaders of the revolutions in Japan, which culminated in 1868. That wondrous change in the temper and policy of a long-secluded nation showed only its outer side to the world. Hence, most alien lookers-on imagine that the transformation was purely the result of forces applied *ab extra*—the presence of foreigners and the civilization of the West. This, however, is but half the truth, and what lay upon the other hemisphere of this political moon the average gazer saw not. In fact, the revolution of 1868, which abolished the duarchy of Mikado and Shō-gun, and swept away the feudal system and most of the characteristic features of the Japan known to foreigners since the sixteenth century, began a hundred years or more ago. The renaissance of critical historical investigation by the Japanese scholars of the eighteenth century upheaved the foundation on which feudal Japan—the only Japan known or understood by Europe—rested. Commodore Perry did in reality but approach a volcano. Literary, political, and religious forces were at work at the core, and coming to vent with a rapidity frightful to Tycoons and their followers as early as 1853. Perry's presence was like a lump of foreign matter thrust into a geyser, hastening results which, however, were inevitable later on. Of the men by whose genius and action the crisis was precipitated and carried to triumphant conclusion, many had never seen a foreigner, and perhaps most of them were arrayed in fanatical hostility to them before the cannon at Fushimi opened civil war and proclaimed the downfall of dualism and feudalism. The leaders of New Japan were obscure men, yet full of the "fire shut up in their bones" which the study of the past and a reverence for the throne and person of the Mikado, amounting almost to fanaticism, bred within them. Yet these men at once ratified the treaties, and with unquailing courage and perseverance, spite of the blind hatred of the alien within their own ranks, adopted one after another the foreigner's forces and methods. Their object was to sweep Japan free of outsiders, by adopting their own weapons. Finding this impossible, they attempted the double task of the civilization of Japan in the spirit of the nineteenth century and Europe, and the renovation of their entire political and social system. Against fearful odds, they were called to confront a host of new and unexpected problems. Children in political experience, they expected to compass the results of ages, not in "a cycle of Cathay," but in less than "fifty years" of Europe's time. It is needless to add that they are now sadder, wiser, and a few of them less earnest men than they were fifteen years ago. Some with dogged, a few with frantic obstinacy are striving to cool the volcano they helped to open.

A splendid task awaits the writer who will delve beneath the surface and reveal the training of the individuals and the accidents of history by which the marvellous results were wrought; results which, notwithstanding their brilliancy, make the spectator dizzy. Around Japan lie abysses from which her ablest financiers, her bravest soldiers, her wisest and calmest statesmen, are, or will soon be, called to save her. For the solution of the questions herein suggested, the best part of Mr. Lanman's book is the title. The work is conscientiously accurate so far as it goes, which is but a short distance. The fifty-nine notices of the living and dead men of Japan range from half-page notices to twenty-one or more pages of but slightly reworked or untouched newspaper material. In an appendix are seven papers, nearly all reprints, relating to the Empire and its outlying portions. The book

is worth a place in libraries because there is as yet nothing better to take its place; but its bald and scrappy style is repulsive. Taken as a whole, it is a bundle of pamphlets, creditable neither to publisher nor to author.

The Shenandoah Valley in 1864. By George E. Pond, Associate Editor *Army and Navy Journal*. [Campaigns of the Civil War—XI.] Chas. Scribner's Sons.

THIS book deals with one of the most exciting and interesting of the subordinate campaigns of the war. It is written with unusual clearness; the arrangement is lucid, the style good, the description simple and straightforward. The book is as interesting as a novel. The maps are better than in many of the series. From an historical standpoint, however, the merits of Mr. Pond's book are more doubtful. There is nothing intemperate in it, and the author has evidently aimed at fairness. He is probably unconscious that his field of view is so filled with the deeds of the Federal army and its leaders as to leave space for only a distant, imperfect, and sometimes incorrect view of the Confederates. His defence of General Sheridan's military operations is especially elaborate, his eulogies of that officer ample and earnest.

In the spring of 1864 the first operations in the Shenandoah Valley and in Southwest Virginia were conducted by Sigel. This officer advanced from Winchester early in May, but was defeated at Newmarket by Breckinridge on May 15. He was promptly displaced and Hunter appointed in his stead. Having ordered Crook and Averill from the Kanawha to meet him with their 10,000 men at Staunton, Hunter started for the same point, May 26, with 8,500 men. Breckinridge, after the defeat of Sigel, had been withdrawn with the best part of his forces to reinforce Lee's thin lines at Richmond, and the defence of the Valley had been left by the Confederates to W. E. Jones and a mixed force of some 5,000 or 6,000 men. This force was badly defeated by Hunter, not far from Staunton, on June 5. There was nothing now to oppose Hunter's progress, who, with 18,000 men (after the junction of Crook's forces), moved forward from Staunton, through Lexington, toward Lynchburg. Sheridan was sent out by Grant to make his way with his cavalry through Gordonsville and Charlottesville toward the same point. Though Lee was hard pressed for men, it was absolutely necessary to block this movement in his rear and against his depots. Breckinridge was ordered back to check Hunter, and Hampton was sent to stop Sheridan. A few days later (June 13) Early was sent after Breckinridge with instructions to defeat Hunter if possible.

Early marched eighty miles to Charlottesville in four days; found that Sheridan had been driven back, but that Hunter was then approaching Lynchburg, where Breckinridge, with an entirely insufficient force, was confronting him; moved by rail and road sixty miles in the next two days to this latter point, and reached it in time to beat Hunter off. Early's entire force was inferior to Hunter's, but the latter was far from his base and in a hostile territory, and he therefore retreated toward Salem and thence to the Kanawha. Early followed vigorously until he found that Hunter had left the Valley and entered the Alleghany Mountains.

Lee, obliged to detach troops to look after Hunter, had instructed Early, after disposing of the latter, to cross the Potomac and demonstrate against Washington. This strategy, in preceding campaigns, had proved an effective means of dividing the Federal forces and causing the recall of large bodies to defend Washington. Early now turned to the execution of this design. He had already moved his army 200 miles in nine days. Resting one day at Salem, he, with 15,000 men, set out for the Potomac, 212 miles distant. He started on June 23 and reached Harper's Ferry on July 4. Here some days were spent in obtaining supplies, and in an attempt to manœuvre the Federal troops away from Harper's Ferry. On the 8th, leaving the Federal garrison behind him, Early marched on Frederick. Next day he defeated Wallace and part of the 6th Corps which Grant had sent to meet him. On the 10th he advanced rapidly on Washington, and by noon of the 11th the advance of his footsore and weary column reached the Federal lines near the city. These lines were manned by the garrison of Washington; and the troops of the 6th and 19th Corps, which had been hurried from Richmond and the South to meet Early, were at hand. Hunter's army, having made its way to Parkersburg and thence by railroad to Harper's Ferry, was gathering in his rear. Early could not enter Washington. He had achieved his object in creating a panic, drawing troops from Grant, and in protecting Northern Virginia during the harvest. Leaving Washington on the night of July 12, he slipped between the two armies which were gathering in front and rear, and safely recrossed the Potomac. Few operations of the war were managed with more audacity and skill than this northward movement of Early's.

Early now for more than two months maintained his hold on the lower Valley, constantly breaking up the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad and the Canal, and making or threatening incursions north of the Potomac. When he had been pushed back to Strasburg and Grant began to withdraw the troops sent up to defend Washington, Early turned upon Crook, defeated and drove him across the Potomac (July 24). All withdrawal of Federal troops from the Valley then ceased, and additional forces were sent there. Grant now placed Sheridan in command (August 6) and augmented his forces to 56,000 men. Early's were raised (according to Mr. Pond) to 21,000, but were reduced to 17,000 by the recall of Kershaw's division. With this force Early held Sheridan completely in check from August 7 to September 19 and maintained his threatening attitude in the lower Valley.

The fortunes of war now changed. Under the inspiration of a visit from Grant, Sheridan decided to attack. Kershaw's division had set out to return to Richmond. Early's success had made him too bold. He had for weeks invited the attack of an army three times as strong as his own in the open country about Winchester. On September 19 this attack was made, and after a long and bloody day's fight the Confederates were defeated and driven from the field. Early halted twenty miles in the rear, at Fisher's Hill, where Sheridan again badly defeated him three days later. The Confederate general now retreated to the upper Valley, followed by Sheridan, who advanced to Staunton and began to lay waste the country. He supposed the Confederates finally disposed of; but Early harassed his opponent in every way in his power, and by the incessant activity of detached cavalry and of such partisan commands as Mosby's, rendered the Federal communications with the Potomac so perilous and uncertain that Sheridan, early in October, returned to Cedar Creek. Early, reinforced by Kershaw, followed, and to prevent troops being sent to Grant, determined to attack Sheridan's victorious and greatly more numerous army. This he did on October 19, when, by surprising the Federal camp, he completely overwhelmed the 8th and 19th Corps, and drove back the 6th. Then it was that Sheridan performed the most brilliant feat of his life. He was at Winchester when Early fell upon and routed his sleeping forces. Reaching the battle-field in the midst of the dismay and rout, he rallied his flying troops, reformed them on the veteran troops of the 6th Corps, which had not been broken, called his splendid body of cavalry to his assistance, and, attacking Early in turn, overthrew him, and converted one of the most remarkable of Confederate victories into a most thorough defeat.

Mr. Pond states fully and clearly the orders under which Sheridan devastated the Shenandoah Valley by a wholesale destruction of private property. He is not so careful as to Early's order which led to the burning of Chambersburg, and the attending circumstances. The applicability of the *lex talionis* is in most cases a matter of dispute, and the historian should be careful to make a full and fair statement of the facts. In this instance, as in some others, Mr. Pond's narrative is neither full nor accurate.

The Jesuits: A Complete History of their Open and Secret Proceedings, from the Formation of the Order to the Present Time. Told to the German People by Theodor Griesinger. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1883.

IT is difficult to speak judicially of a book which is itself wanting in every judicial quality. As the title suggests, this is intended to be a popular work; but it is popularity in the lowest and worst form which is here aimed at. It is an unenviable popularity which comes from an appeal only to the least critical and least exacting sort of readers, and that is the only kind of popularity this book can aspire to. It has, however, the merit of sincerity. The author is convinced that the Jesuit order is one of the vilest works of the source of all evil, and every sentence is inspired by that conviction. His book is not a history: it is an indictment, of which each chapter contains a count. His method is not that of the historian who examines carefully his material, prepared to find himself in the wrong, but rather that of a prosecuting attorney seeking everywhere for arguments to prove his accusation. As to his sources of information, we have no account whatever, excepting that here and there a foot-note shows that he at least knows the names of some original materials.

This alone would prove that we have here nothing that can be of service to the world of scholars. A mass of scandalous stories, raked together from every quarter, and told with a malicious satisfaction as far as possible removed from the fitting calmness of historical narration, are little calculated to serve any serious purpose. Indeed, a glance at the brief record of the author's life and work would not justify high expectations. A revolutionist of 1848, tossed about for a time in America, and finally returning to his native Würtemberg, Griesinger's life-work has been the presentation of the darker side of social and political movements. His earlier works, 'Mysteries of the Vatican,' 'Mysteries of New York,' 'Woman's Government in European Courts,' have attained a wide popularity at home, and have passed through several editions. Their titles show the bent of the author's mind. His scent is keen for whatever will excite the imagination and serve to rouse the passion of his readers in his own cause.

The present work worthily continues this unsavory succession. An abusive and violent tone pervades the very headings of the chapters. The divisions of the subject sound like the titles of the acts in a sensational drama. The whole account of Loyola, occupying the first book, is absurdly one-sided and inadequate. The heroic side of the man, the real grandeur of his purpose, his relation to his times, the peculiar character of his plans, as adapted to a new and

peculiar need of the Church—all this completely escapes the author's vision. The whole later history of Jesuitism—a dark and sad history enough at the best—is made to throw its shadow backward over the character and purpose of its founders. These men, moved by impulses foreign to our day and civilization, must be judged by the standards of their own day if we would truly understand their place in the world's progress. The inability to grasp and apply these standards completely disqualifies any man from assuming the name of historian. He must become, then, a mere teller of stories, and cannot fail to add his part to the already too great mass of the world's misunderstanding and prejudice.

The Jesuit order has a frightful account to settle. The indictment, as we read it here, seems unanswerable, and we believe it to be so. The Roman Church can never again claim the respect of mankind unless it cuts this sore relentlessly from its body. With all its exaggeration and carelessness and evil spirit, we are forced at last to the confession that we believe there remains a great residue of truth in this book which may go far toward justifying its existence. There are persons—a vast majority in the world—who are led and influenced only by such work and words as these. It is unfortunate that these persons, swayed as they are by passion and prejudice, should be appealed to, but it may be answered that if the truth does not seek them out, falsehood will, and so the feeling with which we started on the perusal of these pages, of repugnance and disgust, changes partly into a hope that it may reach its true audience, and do good. The danger is that, while it calls attention to the past horrors of the Jesuits, it may fail to warn against the wider and subtler dangers of Jesuitism under all names and forms. A study of this subject in its true historical relations is one worth the best labor of a powerful mind. It is pitiable to see it thus belittled and degraded in the hands of a vulgar demagogue.

If one has to search for a justification of this book in the original, it becomes still more difficult to understand why it should have been selected for translation. At all events, if this were to be done, it behooved the publishers to put the work of translation into, or to receive it only from, capable hands. It might have been possible to improve the style in a new language, but the present version only aggravates every fault of the original. One does not need to see a copy of the German book to know its wording, for the language of the translation is almost as much German as English. Extracts would be of little use where the whole style is a mass of grammatical absurdities. Such English was never spoken or conceived of by any mortal excepting such as belong to the unfortunate race of professional translators. The absurd style of these volumes will probably have its own effect in repelling all readers to whom a good style is an attraction, and a vicious style an unpardonable offence.

Goethe-Jahrbuch. Herausgegeben von Ludwig Geiger. Dritter Band. Frankfort, 1882.

THE third volume of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch* was designed to be a commemorative work, and to appear on the fiftieth anniversary of the poet's death. The editor, Prof. Geiger, wished to make it exhibit the influence of Goethe upon European thought in the half-century following. This design was abandoned, from the conviction that the range of such an investigation would exceed the limits of a single volume. The *Jahrbuch* has constantly increased in value, and has become indispensable to all who would be familiar with current investigation in Goethe literature. Each volume contains discussions and researches, newly-discovered works—mainly early texts and letters—and brief contributions, often of great value, to the history of separate writings and periods in the life of the poet.

The article by Brandl in the present number, upon the reception of Goethe's youthful works in England, is really a contribution to English literary history. The general ignorance of German literature in England a hundred years ago was astonishing. The first knowledge of the German drama was obtained at second hand from bad French translations. The state of political opinion was such as to prevent an early acquaintance with German authors, and to this result the character of the literature itself contributed. The stormy nature of these works made them seem either allies or causes of the revolutionary era in France, which was so dreaded in England. Anti-Jacobin papers were founded to oppose all novelties in politics and religion, and to ridicule the foreign dramas which embodied the new tendencies. Goethe was considered a representative of this spirit—a *Stürmer* and *Dränger*—long after his most mature works had been published. The appearance of his autobiography in 1811, and the writings of Madame de Staël and the Schlegels, first revealed the value of the new literature arising in Germany. The interest in German studies in Scotland, and the influence of Goethe upon Walter Scott, are shown in a satisfactory manner. "Goetz von Berlichingen," which Scott translated with more fire than fidelity, stimulated his interest in the tales of the Border. His translation exhibits some curious mistakes. He trusted too much to the likeness of words in Scotch and German as a guide to their meaning. He struck out passages that savored of anti-royalty, or that might offend aristocratic notions. The women become ladies, and, instead of serving in the commendable fashion of German matrons, issue orders to their subordinates. The influence of "Goetz" is clearly shown in "Marmion" and the "House of Aspen" (which, though one of Scott's earliest dramas, was not published until 1829), and, perhaps, in the storm scene in 'Ivanhoe.' The author asserts too confidently a likeness between this early drama of Goethe and the "Lay of the Last Minstrel." It is unquestionably true that "Goetz" led the way in the long series of dramas of chivalry—*Ritterdramen*—but the *motives* and machinery in all are similar: the secret tribunal, prison, ordeals, and sieges of cities appear in them all. Even the names of the characters are often the same. *Brother Martin* appears as the friar, and *Adelheid* as the heroine. Brahm has shown in his 'Deutsche Ritterdrama' that in a list of fifty dramas the secret tribunal (*Vehme*) appears ten times, the prison seventy-four, the siege of castles nineteen, and trial by ordeal eleven times. Scott read widely and translated many of these plays, and only a general resemblance can be traced between his poems and dramas of chivalry and those which were popular in Germany.

The attacks of the Anti-Jacobins put a stop for a time to the study of German literature in England, which was resumed when the new alliance of the two nations against Napoleon awakened a fresh interest in foreign studies. The effect of Goethe's writings upon Byron, Coleridge, Shelley, and Hazlitt is scarcely indicated. To Carlyle we are indebted for the new era of German study in England. Several errors in names appear in this article. The author of 'Fust von Stromberg' was Jakob Maier, and Scott's friend who translated Schiller's "Robbers" was Alexander Fraser Tytler, afterward Lord Woodhouselee.

Urlich's article on "Goethe and the Antique" is an interesting survey of Goethe's art studies in Italy. It exhibits the failure of his efforts to attain technical skill in art, as well as the stimulating influence of his views upon the artists with whom he came in contact. The dependence which a theorist in art is wont to feel upon a practical worker, even upon one of subordinate merit, is shown by his extraordinarily favorable judgment of Meyer, who resided so long in his house: "Meyer has advanced beyond Winckelmann, and carried a knowledge of art to a crowning-point. His history of art is an immortal work."

Erich Schmidt, who contributed a study of Lessing's "Faust" to the second volume, writes upon "Faust and the Sixteenth Century." The germs of "Faust" are found in the intellectual conflicts of this period, in the struggles and superstitions of the old faith, in the humanism and culture of the Renaissance and the aspiring spirit developed by the Reformation. Two sources of the Faust-book have been found in two works separated by a thousand years—namely, in the 'Confessions' of Augustine and in Luther's 'Table-Talk.' The former has been pointed out by Hermann Grimm in the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, and the latter briefly by Schmidt in the present article. Many of the anecdotes related by Luther in his famous 'Tischreden' were undoubtedly used by the author of the original Faust-book.

Scherer makes an elaborate effort to show that Goethe was a consummate artist in the arrangement or grouping of his writings in different editions of his works—always proceeding upon a given theory and advancing from the near to the remote, from the known to the mysterious. The poems which stand first in the collected edition of his works are confessions of his life, as the introductory poem says; 'Wilhelm Meister,' which follows, is likewise a confession: the poet is represented in his æsthetic strivings taught by practical life as was Goethe by his administrative duties and study of physical science. His dramatic theories are corrected by experience with the theatre. Goethe's contributions to the theatre naturally follow. Beginning with his early dramas, which contain most of his own life, the summit is reached in "Faust" and in the works of artistic content contained in the same volume, where the striving spirit is represented as scholar, artist, and humanist. This ingenious theory is suggestive, and meets with confirmation at many points, but breaks down unexpectedly from the difficulty of assigning adequate reasons for the place of certain writings, which is not uniform in different editions. The author believes that the arrangement of the poems may be studied and found equally instructive. He designs to subject them to a similar analysis, holding that, joined to the chief aim in any work of art, are numerous subordinate and unintentional beauties.

The brief contributions to the history and interpretation of single works of Goethe (*Miscellen*) are numerous and valuable. Jacoby shows the influence of "Faust" upon the metres and certain scenes in the "Jungfrau von Orleans." Von Loeper contributes an interesting note showing that the scene in Auerbach's cellar, in "Faust," was borrowed from a lost version of the Faust-legend. In the middle of the eighteenth century—possibly at the very time that Goethe was a student at Leipzig—the play of "Faust" was performed in a booth before the Peter's Gate. In this play a celebrated Italian cellar under Auerbach's court was represented, from which Faust was said to have ridden forth on a wine-cask.

The *Mittheilungen* contain a considerable addition to the already large existing Goethe correspondence. The letters to Meyer and the

Chancellor von Müller are full of personal details regarding Goethe's life. A valuable series of letters to and from Klinger and the Princess Galitzin reveals the welcome fact that Goethe's heirs have decided to give to the public some of the treasures which have been so strictly guarded in the poet's house, from which further contributions are promised. The Bibliography contains notices of the various books and separate articles upon Goethe which have recently appeared in the different languages of Europe, often with a résumé of their contents. Finally, this number contains an exhaustive index to the previous volumes. An excellent engraving of the drawing of Goethe, made in the last year of his life by Schwerdgebunt, forms the frontispiece.

The Woods and Timbers of North Carolina. By P. M. Hale. Raleigh: E. J. Hale & Son. 1883.

EVERYTHING relating to the forests of the country is now of general interest, and the public will be indebted to Mr. Hale for republishing in convenient form, from the 'Geological and Natural History Survey of North Carolina,' Mr. Curtis's excellent account of the trees of that State. Although twenty years old, and long out of print, it loses none of its popular and scientific value. No other State has yet published such an accurate, compact, and valuable account of its woody plants. In the same volume is collected much fresh information in regard to the actual condition of the forests in the different counties of the State, which has been gathered for the purpose by local observers; besides information in regard to population, railroads, and farms, here conveniently condensed from Census publications.

North Carolina has reason to be proud of her forests. They are hardly surpassed in value, beauty, and variety by those of any locality of equal extent. The palmetto, the great evergreen magnolia, and the Southern pine flourish upon her coast, while upon her mountains our Northern pines, hemlocks, and birches grow side by side with magnolias and other Southern trees. Nowhere do the oaks, hickories, and walnuts attain finer proportions than upon these mountains, while many trees, like the wild cherry, the tulip, the chestnut, the laurel, and the rhododendron reach here their greatest size and beauty.

Diligent botanical travellers and enthusiastic lovers of nature long ago discovered the charms of these Southern mountains, but their forests grow over rich deposits of coal and iron, and now railroads and the all-destroying lumberman are fast devastating them: with these almost the last uninjured wilderness of the Continent will soon disappear.

The Mines, Miners, and Mining Interests of the United States in 1882. Compiled by William Ralston Balch. Philadelphia: The Mining and Industrial Publishing Bureau.

THIS volume is a thick quarto, containing about 1,200 closely-printed pages. It is a compilation of greatly varied material, consisting mainly of short articles or abstracts from treatises on subjects of more or less importance to persons interested in mining pursuits. Some of the best matter in the book is drawn from the Transactions of the Institute of Mining Engineers and from Government Reports; besides which there are all sorts of articles, items, and tables of statistics from a great variety of sources, including the technical and scientific journals and the newspapers. It is, in fact, a sort of scrap-book, in which, together with much comparatively unimportant matter, there are many things of a high and lasting value. In this respect the book will doubtless be found useful by many persons who dwell in places remote from libraries, and who are therefore unable to refer readily to original sources for much that they desire to read. The compiler has kept in view almost every branch of his subject. In addition to a very large amount of material relating directly to the mode of occurrence, mining and treatment of ores of nearly every sort, and to the several industries therewith connected, he has devoted much space to the mining laws of various States and countries, and to the more noteworthy decisions rendered by the courts in important mining cases. The organization of stock companies, the business of dealing in stocks, reviews of the metal markets and industries, together with a good deal of miscellany of a somewhat similar nature, receive an ample share of the compiler's attention.

So much heterogeneous material naturally presents some difficulties in the way of assortment and classification. The compiler has done what he could to facilitate reference to the contents of the book by an index of fifty pages.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Smyth, N. Dorner on the Future State. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Soule, C. C. The Lawyer's Reference Manual. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Spenser, Mary Clare. The Benefit of the Doubt. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Stephen, Sir J. F. A History of the Criminal Law of England. In 3 vols. Macmillan & Co. $12 50.
Stevens, F. S. Yale Examination Papers. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.
Thomas, C. A Study of the Manuscript Troano. Washington: Department of the Interior.
Tilton, T. Tempest-Tossed: a Romance. Revised edition. R. Worthington.
Tyrwhitt, R. St. J. The Natural Theology of Natural Beauty. E. & J. B. Young. 45 cents.
Vincent, B. Haydn's Dictionary of Dates and Universal Information. Revised for American Readers. Harper & Bros.
Wendling, G. R. Ingersollism, from a Secular Point of View. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. $1.

Henry Holt & Co.
PUBLISH
The Epic of Kings.
Stories Retold from Firdusi. By Helen Zimmern. With a Prefatory Poem by Edmund W. Gosse. 12mo.

PRESIDENT ROBINSON'S
Yale Lectures on Preaching.
By Pres. E. G. Robinson, of Brown Univ.

Geraldine Hawthorne.
By B. M. Butt, author of 'Miss Molly.' 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

Le Français,
Revue Mensuelle de Grammaire et de Littérature.
CONTENTS OF THE MARCH NUMBER:
Mademoiselle Papa.—Paul de Cassagnac.—La Question de Madagascar.—Les prétendants au trône de France.—Lettre corrigée.—Lettre à corriger.—Questions de prononciation.—Prétérit et passé indéfini.—Notes and Queries.—Etc., etc., etc.
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But it is of course in the period of the mutiny that Lawrence, as the "Savior of the Punjab," reaches his full development, and it would not be easy to exaggerate the power of this part of Mr. Bosworth Smith's narrative in awakening enthusiasm for his subject.
No doubt the chief reason why the 'Life of Lord Lawrence' has been looked for with such extraordinary interest in England, is that it was known to give such a history of this period as could not be written from any other materials than those in his possession. But it will be found that Mr. Smith has given it even greater claims to attention, by making of it one of those great biographies which form, perhaps, one of the most interesting groups in literature—the few books in which a vigorous individuality is brought out with perfect success.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 15, 1883.

The Week.

THE amount of impression made by Wiggins's prediction on the public mind is, like spiritualism, a striking illustration of the small extent to which the masses are still influenced by what is called the scientific spirit. His performance had all the marks of quackery. The events he predicted were prodigious. His storm was not simply to be a March storm of considerable severity, visiting a limited area of the earth's surface, but a world storm, traversing a large portion of the globe, in both hemispheres, and working devastation the like of which on a great scale had not been recorded. A great deal of attention has been devoted by the scientific men of all nations during the last thirty years to the means of forecasting changes in the weather, or, in other words, to the discovery of the law of wind and rain, but nothing has as yet been revealed to make predictions of any kind of weather for more than forty-eight hours in advance anything better than vague conjecture. But the processes by which all that is known has been reached are concealed from nobody any more than the processes of experimentation in chemistry and electricity. There is no pretence of anything supernatural in them. The children are now all taught in the schools that the secrets of nature are to be got at either by experiment or observation, and are taught to distrust anybody who says he can explain natural phenomena in a way only known to himself. They are taught, too, that astrology is humbug; that the notion that the position or movements of the planets influence human life or human affairs is, like witchcraft, gross delusion, and that any one who gets money by it is an impostor.

Wiggins, however, has not only come forward claiming private and exclusive information about natural phenomena three months before their occurrence, obtained from sources known only to himself, and not open to every scientific man, but has had no difficulty in getting hundreds of thousands to believe him, and many to regulate their business according to his advice. Not content with this, he has revived the claims of astrology, as part of his own system, and has made the planets share by their movements in the creation of earthly storms, without apparently shaking the faith of his dupes one iota. To crown all, too, he made his prediction so vast and remarkable that there could apparently be no escape for him if it failed; but the more absurd his talk became, the more effect it had. What made all this the more amazing was that he had already tried his hand as a weather prophet and had utterly broken down, and had had to confess that he had miscarried through some prodigious mistake, such as, if we remember rightly, taking the wrong side of the earth in making his calculations. He is at this moment, too, after having been again exposed, utterly unabashed, and not without reason, and is showing so little respect for the intelligence of his victims as to maintain that two little storms of the ordinary March kind, which occurred Saturday, one in Newfoundland, and one in North Carolina, were really the great world-pervading hurricane which he bid them prepare for.

Nothing very interesting has occurred in what we may call the court-room branch of the Star-route trial, but the outside part of the "case" has been vigorously pushed forward. Rerdell has made public a "statement" in relation to the Belford check, in which he gives further information about it, and declares that he learned from Dorsey and others that it was given to Belford to pay for losses at cards on a railroad journey, and was entered on the books as a "mail" disbursement. To meet this, Dorsey has also given the public a statement, in which he denies emphatically what "the perjurer" says, declares that the card story is a lie from beginning to end, and somewhat obscurely explains it as being "the natural outgrowth of the usual infamy of transmitted power." To clinch the matter, and "nail the lie to the counter" more effectually, he committed an assault in the course of the day on Judge Lilley, an old man of seventy, whom he accused of inducing Rerdell to come forward as a witness. According to the Judge's account, he was struck in the face, knocked down, and kicked in the abdomen by the ex-Senator. This is a new way of getting in evidence which has been ruled out in court, and nobody is better qualified to manage this branch of his case than Dorsey. We are curious to know whether the Court has no control over a desperado such as he when he is actually on trial.

A good deal of criticism has been visited upon Secretary Folger for allowing his gold balance to fall some $40,000,000 since he came into office, through haste to redeem the interest-bearing debt, and especially for issuing a call for $15,000,000 of bonds to be presented on the 1st of May. It would, we think, have been more prudent to restore this $15,000,000 to the gold reserve. The opposite policy has been adopted, probably on the theory that, considering our widely extended territory and scattered population, a smaller reserve is needed against the demand notes of the Government (greenbacks) than is deemed necessary in the more densely populated countries of Europe. There is no other way to account for so considerable a departure from the policy of the Department heretofore. Whether Mr. Folger's policy be correct or otherwise, there can be little doubt that the accumulation of money to meet the bond-call maturing in May is one of the contributing causes to the present stringency in money. It is not the only cause, perhaps not the principal one; but it happens to come at a time when there is a heavy drain of currency to the West. Since the treasury accumulation is not intended to replace the reserve, but to redeem $15,000,000 of bonds at a fixed date, it would seem to be good policy to distribute the payment over the intervening time by anticipating the payment of bonds as far as practicable, instead of locking up the whole amount until the 1st of May, or some later period, when the holders of the bonds may choose to send them in.

The prominent feature of the past week was the decline in rates of foreign exchange to a point that has induced the export of gold from London to the United States, $3,000,000 being now on the way. It is doubtful, however, if this movement will become important. Our exports of both breadstuffs and cotton have fallen off in the past fortnight, and the balance of trade has been less decidedly in our favor than for the four months ending with January. The volume of exports and imports of commodities alone (exclusive of specie) is so nearly balanced that the movement of specie between London and New York will be determined entirely by the movements of American securities. If London buys more American railway stocks and bonds than she sells, specie will continue to come this way in pay for them. On the contrary, if she sells more than she buys, she will get her pay by the balance of trade on the interchange of commodities. Higher rates of interest for money have prevailed here during the past week, and this, too, has favored the movement hither of specie from London. The cause of the advance in rates has been mainly the increased demand at the West for money to move grain, hogs, and cattle, which may be estimated by the fact that the arrivals of grain at the seven principal Western points, in the first week in March, were nearly quadruple what they were in the first week in February. This movement, however, is now diminishing. The farmers will presently all be busy in preparations for spring work, and will not market much grain. The movement of currency will soon be toward New York, thus creating bank balances here available for loans. The last weekly statement of the New York banks showed a large decrease in both specie and legal tenders, the greater part of the former having gone into the Sub-Treasury, and of the latter to the West; but unless the money market is manipulated in the interest of the bears in the stock market, the bank statement is likely to show a gain of legal tenders and specie in the next two weeks. The stock market has been stronger in the past week, and prices have been steadily creeping up for two weeks past, the average advance in that time being from 3 to 5 per cent. on the most active stocks.

There is no mystery about the date when the repeal of the bank tax takes effect, although it seems strange that Congress should have legislated backward so that the tax ceases to take effect from the first of January, 1883, while all the other internal-revenue taxes continue till May or June. When the original bill passed the House last year it was intended to keep the bank tax in force till the following January; that is, some six months after the

probable enactment of the law. The Senate did not pass the bill, but proceeded to amend it by attaching a tariff bill to it, and adjourned in August without action upon its own amendments. When the bill came up again this winter, the tariff branch of the bill monopolized attention in both houses, and the incongruity of dates as regards the bank tax was apparently not noticed. Otherwise the tax would undoubtedly have been continued until the close of the half year, if not until the 1st of January, 1884.

The late George Peabody, among his donations for the promotion of education in the South, besides other gifts, placed 1,000,000 of Mississippi bonds, amounting with interest to $1,100,000, in the hands of trustees. The Mississippians being beneficiaries of the trust, it was thought by the trustees that the State might, under the circumstances, be induced to take some notice of them. Accordingly, in 1871, a memorial was sent to the Governor and the presiding officers of both branches of the Legislature. No response of any direct kind was received, but the memorial seems to have excited a good deal of attention, for an amendment to the Constitution was shortly afterward adopted, absolutely prohibiting the redemption and payment of these bonds; the shrewd Mississippians drawing in the same year the sum of $10,000 in cash, for the benefit of their school children, from the Peabody fund. Strange to say, this neat little operation did not altogether discourage the trustees, for, with what the Boston *Advertiser*, which publishes these facts, calls "fine tact," they got Chief-Justice Manning, of Louisiana, to go to the capital of Mississippi and urge upon the Legislature to make some provision for these bonds. The Chief-Justice has now made his report, in which he says there is no hope. In private life, he says, the action of the State is "deplored," but there is no public man in Mississippi who would dare to bring forward a bill on the subject; indeed, the private gloom is more than offset by the public anger among the politicians whenever the idea of paying the debt is suggested. The more cash they get from the Peabody fund for the schools (they have up to date drawn $69,728), the angrier they get. Tact has about the same effect upon them that it would have on a confidence operator who has got beyond the reach of the law with his plunder.

The facility and the frequency of divorce in the Eastern States are such that societies are organizing to discourage the practice, as there are associations to prevent intemperance in other things, as, for instance, whiskey-drinking. In a lecture in the Centre Church of New Haven, on Sunday, the Rev. S. R. Dyke, Secretary of the New England Divorce Reform League, presented some startling statistics. It appears that while in the year 1849 there were only 91 divorces in Connecticut, now the average is 440 a year. The population of the State has increased less than 70 per cent. in thirty years, while the number of divorces has increased nearly 500 per cent. In Connecticut the ratio of divorces to marriages is 1 to 10.4, in Vermont 1 to 13, in Massachusetts 1 to 21, and in Rhode Island 1 to 10; while New Hampshire, which is sometimes regarded as the type of bucolic simplicity and primitive purity of manners, stands first on the list with a ratio of 1 to 9, though Maine follows hard after, with about the same figures. The lecturer said that "by practising monogamy only could the social fabric be maintained." This is a perfectly just remark, but we have been accustomed to hear and read such observations on the society of Utah rather than on that of New England. The work of reforming the Mormons certainly ought to go on, but something needs to be done in a similar direction in the older parts of the country. United States Senators might urge legislative measures concerning the Latter-Day Saints more boldly, and a certain moral force would be added to the measures, if Mr. Dyke's statistics did not show so large a proportion of sinners among these Senators' own constituents.

Mr. Grimsley, the foreman of the Charlotte (N. C.) *Journal*, walked into the press-room of the *Observer*, of the same place, the other night, and "without saying a word," says the *Observer*, "fell upon our pressman with a knife." He stabbed or "cut" him three times, the last blow being aimed directly at the heart, and would have proved fatal but for "a plug of tobacco, a note-book, and a bundle of letters" which Mr. Stone, the pressman, had in his breast pocket. The cause of this was a previous tussle in the street about a small debt. Mr. Grimsley promptly surrendered himself to the police, and was held to bail in the enormous sum of $100. As he is now at large, and has his knife, it is not surprising, but is somewhat amusing, to see how gingerly the editor of the *Observer* speaks of the affair. He guards himself carefully against expressing an opinion on it, and says, with a kind of shiver:

> "The above particulars of the affair are stated just as they are given to us by Mr. Stone himself and by witnesses to the affray, and are not printed with the intention of prejudicing the minds of the public against Mr. Grimsley, but to give as best we can a plain, intelligible account of the trouble. If Mr. Stone is able to be out, the Mayor will investigate the case Monday morning, when the right and the wrong will both be drawn out."

He evidently thinks Mr. Grimsley would "cut" him in a grievous manner, and that he might not have his plug of tobacco and bundle of letters in the right place, if he condemned the practice of falling on people with a knife without saying a word.

If the Department of State is as sensitive as the Navy Department, Mr. Packard, the United States Consul at Liverpool, may presently find himself sharply called to account for an interview reported by the *Times*. Mr. Packard did not declare flatly in favor of free ships, but he came very near doing so. He said that the American flag is disappearing from foreign ports, while British tonnage is increasing, and he gave some reasons for the contrast, as, the higher wages paid to American seamen; the displacement of wooden by iron ships, and the better freights secured by the latter; the different tax regulations, according to which a steamship valued at $300,000 would pay in this country $5,000 a year, irrespective of earnings, while a ship of the same value in England would not pay that amount until her net profits were $240,000 a year; that iron or steel vessels cost on the Clyde only two-thirds of what they cost on the Delaware; and that "an American cannot own ships until he can buy them to advantage." When the correspondent asked him whether he thought it desirable to change the law, "so as to enable Americans to buy and own foreign-built ships," Mr. Packard replied: "I leave you to draw your own conclusions." The conclusions are so obvious that the Consul's views may be accepted as sufficiently explicit.

The *Christian Advocate* has some characteristic remarks on its share in "the Methodist Mine" affair, of which only one merits any notice. It complains of our failure to mention the fact that its present editor has only held office since his election in 1880, and therefore personally had nothing to do with the swindle, which began in 1878, though only exposed this year. We were not aware of this, and mention it now with pleasure; but we cannot undertake to follow the internal mutations of a religious newspaper. To keep our eye steadily fixed on the organ itself and record its aberrations, especially about Christmas time, is as much as we can do, and far more than is agreeable.

The Earl of Dalhousie, who is the chief promoter in England of the legalization of marriage with a deceased wife's sister, has addressed a circular to the Governors of the States of the Union. It is chiefly remarkable for the extraordinary nature of the extracts appended to it from the *Church Quarterly Review* about the working of such marriages in this country. The evidence of "the American clergyman" on the subject will be read by most people with great amusement, which would probably, however, be changed into indignation if he had given his name. His account of the good old times, when the brother-in-law used to kiss his sister-in-law "in all purity," and when she used to "confide in him without a thought of evil," when the children, too, "loved and reverenced her," knowing their aunt could never be "in any nearer relation to them," is about as repulsive as his account of the new times, in which "there has grown up in families a perceptible and painful feeling of restraint"; and "the children have learned to look with apprehension on their mother's sisters," and "wives have become jealous of their influence with their husbands." We must observe on this that the clergyman seems, when writing his really very simple-minded letter, to have forgotten that there are such things as prurient prudery, and vicious virtue, and indecent decency. A man who only kissed his sister-in-law "in all purity" because he knew he could not marry her, or a sister-in-law who only "confided in him without a thought of evil," for the same reason, and children who only loved and reverenced their aunt because they remembered that their father was forbidden by law from making her his wife, would be a family so essentially coarse-minded that it would be ridiculous to try to improve them by legislation. The best way of dealing with this clergyman would be to compel him to produce a respectable American family where the children are led by the

existing state of the marriage law to regard their aunts "with apprehension." We hope it is not to be found among his own flock, and that the children do not go to his Sunday-school, for they are horrid little wretches.

We have been asked what is the time referred to by the American clergyman, in the extract from the *Church Quarterly Review*, when the relations of American women to their brothers-in-law and of American children to their mothers' sisters were all that could be desired. Did the clergyman mean to say that at one time marriage with a deceased wife's sister was illegal in this country, and that since the change in the law the peace and purity of families have, in consequence thereof, begun to decline? We do not think he meant anything of the kind. He was simply romancing in a vague way without having any fact clearly in his head. He probably had a vague impression that in the early and good times the sisters-in-law and the wives and the children had not found out what the law was, and therefore dwelt in peace and innocence; but that having lately studied up the subject, they have learned to look on the head of their house as a wicked old fellow, who is secretly but constantly contemplating the possibility of his wife's death, if she happens to have a sister. The precocity of the American child has often been commented on; but its having learned to look on its mother's sister "with apprehension," through its study of the Revised Statutes, is the most striking and, we will add, the most alarming illustration of this precocity yet produced.

Herr Most made a stirring plea for his new system of government, on Friday night, in the rear of a beer-shop in Avenue A. He told the audience that there were at least twenty-five kinds of Socialists, and that the term was no longer precise enough. What the real simon-pure Socialists were after, he said, was Anarchism. This he described as a "system of government" in which all "centralization" was done away with. This would look as if it was just what leading Democrats, like Horatio Seymour and Mr. Tilden, had been striving all their lives to secure for the American people; but it seems that Herr Most attaches to "centralization" a somewhat different meaning from theirs. The battle for Anarchism will have to be fought, it seems, not in the primaries, or in conventions, or at the polls, but in the streets. All that is necessary is that proceedings should be begun at once. There is no need of waiting, for "the magazines and warehouses are full of provisions and the banks are filled with money," all of which only needs to be "taken quickly." The audience were greatly delighted with the new kind of decentralization depicted by the publicist, and adjourned amid great applause to Avenue A for beer, which, however, had to be paid for, the shop being owned, as most places of the kind still are, by a rank centralizer.

There could hardly be a better illustration of the way in which legends grow than the effect of the Carey revelations in Dublin in making people in England believe that these revelations show that Mr. Forster was right in whatever it was (never clearly described) that made him leave the Cabinet. As a matter of fact, Carey has revealed nothing of advantage to Mr. Forster, except that he was three or four times in imminent danger of assassination. This gives him a strong claim to sympathy, but it does nothing whatever for his Irish policy. A recent foolish attack on the Ministry by Mr. Gorst, a Tory, brought this out with curious clearness, by compelling Sir William Harcourt to describe, in detail, what the results of Mr. Forster's policy had been, and what part he had taken in what is called the "Kilmainham treaty," and poor Mr. Forster had not a word to say in answer. The legend says that Mr. Forster's coercion was the right kind, because he arrested some of the men who have since turned out to be murderers; but Sir William showed remorselessly that although Mr. Forster arrested 700 men in all, and was going on arresting more and more every day, crimes and outrages steadily increased in number. The legend says that Mr. Forster resigned because he would not negotiate with the Kilmainham prisoners; but Harcourt's report shows that he himself admitted that he began the negotiations, and did not carry them to a successful conclusion simply because Parnell and his friends would not give the pledges and make the concessions he asked for, and that he believed that the Parnellites, if liberated, would use their influence to diminish crime, and that he was perfectly willing to avail himself of it. With the simplicity which seems to be one of the most pleasing traits of his character, however, he wanted Parnell to make an apology which would have forever ruined him in Irish eyes, or in other words, have destroyed the influence which Mr. Forster proposed to turn to account. The other Ministers perceived the fatuity of this, and liberated Parnell without pledges on hearing from him privately that he and his friends would exert themselves for the restoration of order. What adds to the oddity of the Forster legend is that some of the dreadful Irish newspaper articles which he read in the House as proof of Parnell's guilty complicity in the murders, appeared while Parnell was in jail and deprived of newspaper reading, and that the conspiracy which the good man is now pointing to as proof of the wisdom of his policy was formed a month before Parnell was liberated, and that the murders occurred almost immediately afterwards. In other words, all the Dublin horrors were hatched and perpetrated while the Forster system was in full force, and he himself came very near falling a victim to its inefficiency.

The diplomatic correspondence for 1882, now in course of publication, throws a strange, new light upon the character of our Minister to London. A year ago, it will be remembered, loud demands were made for his recall, because there was a terrible suspicion afloat that his heart was not in the right place on the subject of the Irish-American citizen abroad; that he had a sort of British hatred of him, and longed to see him rot ting in a dungeon, if not drawn and quartered, and that he was probably in private egging on the Queen and Parliament to show him no mercy. The charge was apparently made all the more serious and damaging by the absence of facts on which to base it, except the circumstance that Mr. Lowell dined out a good deal in London, wearing on such occasions a swallow-tail coat. It appears, however, from the correspondence between him and Mr. Frelinghuysen that in July of last year he was begging the Secretary to instruct him how he might best protect Irish-American citizens against the operation of the Crimes Act, which provides for domiciliary visits, general warrants, and exile without trial. On the theory of the position of Mr. Lowell's heart, to which we have referred, this act, particularly the clauses applying to aliens, would have delighted him. Now, he would have said, the last hope of the Irish-American citizen is gone; the Queen has "got him where she wants him." But, on the contrary, we find him at once writing to Mr. Frelinghuysen, asking for special instructions as to how he shall protect naturalized American citizens in Ireland—for, says he, "the alien clauses of the act may very probably strengthen the temptation of private enmity to bring false accusations, as it undoubtedly increases the opportunity for them." What is the theory of Mr. Lowell's enemies as to this letter? Is it evidence that his heart is not out of position, or is it a blind to cover his black designs against his unfortunate fellow-citizens abroad?

Prince Gortchakoff's death has been impending so long, and has been so often announced already, that the news of it now makes but little impression. It has, owing to his great age and complete retirement from affairs, no political importance. He has furnished one more of the examples, which are so frequent in European politics, of the preservation of great intellectual vigor and capacity for affairs to a very advanced age. He only left the public service definitively in 1882, when he was eighty-four, and he wrote the reply to Lord Salisbury's Circular, which was equal to any of his state papers, in 1877, when seventy-nine. He was trained in a school of diplomacy of which he and Bismarck were the last surviving specimens of note, which will probably end with Bismarck's death, and which owed its merit and success to the fact that it rested on a single will and had not to make allowances for public opinion. Nothing gives such force and clearness to a diplomatist's action as the consciousness that he knows his master's mind to a certainty, and this consciousness the representative of a popular government cannot have. It is not likely that any Frenchman or Italian will hereafter make much of a figure in diplomacy, and it is becoming increasingly difficult for an Englishman to do so, although the Crown has still, theoretically at least, complete control of foreign affairs. Gortchakoff would never have been Gortchakoff if he had had a parliament behind him, and Bismarck would probably never have been Bismarck if he had a parliament behind him at which he was afraid to snap his fingers, or on which he was dependent for taxes.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 7, to TUESDAY, March 13, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

E. S. WIGGINS, a Canadian "weather prophet," predicted that one of the greatest storms ever known was going to sweep over America and India on or about the 11th instant. His prophecies gained strength from the notoriety given them by the press, and many fishermen along the Atlantic coast did not put out to sea through fear. Many other credulous people likewise put their trust in Wiggins, and were deceived, for though there came a storm on the 7th inst., it was an ordinary March storm. Wiggins, however, claims it as his own (though at the time calling it only "an arm" of the great catastrophe), and says he is well satisfied.

It is understood that President Arthur is contemplating a visit to Florida, on account of his health, and that if he can arrange it he will take the trip within a week or two.

The envoys from the Queen of Madagascar, who are now in this country, were formally presented to the President in Washington on Wednesday, after which they called at the State Department and had an informal interview with the Secretary of State. On Tuesday they ratified the treaty between the United States and Madagascar, concluded by Consul Robinson in May, 1881. The treaty has been proclaimed by the President.

The Attorney-General has given an opinion to the President that the Chief Examiner under the Civil-Service Commission is an officer of the United States, and as such his appointment is vested in the President. The question of the selection of a Chief Examiner has, however, been referred to the Commission, and the appointment will be based upon their recommendation.

The Executive Committee of the National Civil-Service Reform League have adopted resolutions praising the manner in which Mr. Silas W. Burt has discharged the duties of Naval Officer at the port of New York; criticising his removal and his successor, and declaring his removal a "violation of those sound principles of administration which the country has approved, which the President has commended in two messages to Congress, and which Congress has enacted into law." They say that while the nomination of the members of the Civil-Service Commission indicates due regard for the public sentiment which demands reform, the removal of Mr. Burt, with certain other removals and appointments, shows that the course of the Administration on this subject is doubtful and uncertain, and not based upon the fundamental principle of a reformed system—namely, that appointive offices are public trusts in which proved capacity and fitness should be retained, unless the public welfare, without regard to supposed personal, partisan, or factional interests, requires a change. They earnestly recommend to every association composing the National League not to relax its diligence in exposing the abuses and evils which it is the object of the Commission to correct.

The Assistant Secretary of the Interior was informed by telegraph on Wednesday that about 200 settlers recently invaded that part of the Sioux Indian reservation which lies east of the Missouri River and put up shanties there, and that thousands of other settlers are preparing to follow. No action has been taken by the Department, but the intruders will be ordered off the reservation.

The Treasury Department is in receipt of numerous inquiries in regard to the proper construction of certain provisions of the new Tariff Bill. It is stated upon authority that none of these tariff questions will be passed upon by the Department until the new law goes into effect.

The Secretary of the Navy has addressed a letter to the Superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis in regard to the cases of several of the cadets who took a prominent part in the recent meeting there. He says: "It is not the intention of the Department to interfere, except for extraordinary reasons, with such measures and rules as the Superintendent and Academic Board may adopt for the discipline and instruction of the cadets. Such frequent interpositions by parents or influential friends of the cadets would soon demoralize the Academy, and would ultimately change it from a school of special instruction and severe discipline, designed to fit the cadets for the perils, emergencies, and patriotic enterprises of a military life, into an ordinary institution of learning. If it ever becomes such, it should not be thereafter maintained at the public expense of $450,000 annually."

Rear-Admiral J. W. A. Nicholson, lately in command of the European Station, was placed on the retired list on Saturday by operation of the law. He is succeeded in command of the European Station by Rear-Admiral Charles H. Baldwin, formerly of the Light-House Board. Rear-Admiral E. R. Calhoun will be retired in April. These two retirements will make a vacancy in the list of Rear-Admirals, which will be filled by the promotion of Commodore R. W. Shufeldt, now on duty with the Naval Advisory Board.

A statement containing receipts and expenditures of the Post-office Department for the third quarter of the calendar year ended September 30, 1882, shows that the receipts were $10,545,932, and the expenditures $10,188,969, leaving a surplus of $356,963. During the same quarter in 1881 the receipts were $9,490,706 95, and the expenditures $9,686,810 96, making an excess of expenditures over receipts of $196,104 01.

There was another extraordinary scene in the Star-route trial at Washington on Wednesday. James B. Belford, member of Congress from Colorado, testified that he had often urged the Post-office Department to increase the postal facilities of his State, but that he had done so solely in the interest of the people whom he represented. When asked whether or not he had received any money or other valuable consideration for his services in connection with Star-route expedition, the question was ruled out, because the statement made by Rerdell connecting Belford's name with S. W. Dorsey's check-book had been stricken from the record. The witness pleaded earnestly to be permitted to answer the question, and on being dismissed from the witness stand, as he was about leaving the court-room, asserted his innocence in the most solemn manner. He was called back by the judge, who rebuked him sharply and fined him $100 for contempt of court. Rerdell had said that Dorsey's check-book, which the defence refuse to produce, contains the stub of a $2,000 check marked "J. B. B., $2,000, mail."

Another incident connected with this trial was made public on Friday. Ex-Judge William M. Lilley, an old gentleman of seventy, called upon Dorsey at his house on Tuesday, the 6th instant, in company with George H. Brott. After some conversation, Mr. Dorsey accused him of inducing Rerdell to become a witness for the Government. He in reply declared that such a statement was nonsense, and he was then struck in the face by Mr. Dorsey. Throwing himself backward to avoid the blow, his chair was upset, and he fell upon the floor. Judge Lilley says that while upon the floor he was kicked by Mr. Dorsey in the abdomen. Mr. Brott interfered and prevented further action. Judge Lilley is under care of a physician.

General Foote, United States Minister to Corea, who has recently returned from a mission to Panama, where he inspected the Canal, says that a considerable amount of work has been done. The surface of the ground on the line of the Canal has been removed from ocean to ocean. The company has a large number of digging machines at work, and the earth is being rapidly cut away. The workmen are principally Jamaica negroes, and there has been much sickness and mortality among them.

The United States Fish Commission has finished the preparation of its exhibit for the forthcoming Fish Exhibition in London, and a part of it has been shipped. The entire exhibit, which is one of great variety and completeness, will be on its way to London before the end of the month. Professor Goode, of the National Museum, will probably go with it.

Another of Speaker Keifer's methods has been made known. When Keifer had determined to remove Stenographer Tyson in order to make a place for his nephew, he sent for Dawson, another stenographer, and told him that he would be expected to divide his own salary with Mr. Tyson until the meeting of the next Congress. Dawson said that this would greatly embarrass him, for he had entered into financial obligations with the expectation of receiving his own salary during that period. The Speaker gruffly informed him that the matter must be settled at once, and that Mr. Dawson could take his choice—divide his own salary with Mr. Tyson or hand in his resignation. This transaction has come to the knowledge of the Disbursing Clerk of the House, and he says that if Mr. Dawson does not receive the full salary it shall remain in the Treasury.

Alexander H. Stephens was buried on Thursday at Atlanta. The city was crowded, 80,000 people being in the streets on the line of the procession. The military display is said to have been the best ever seen in the South. General Robert Toombs delivered the funeral address. He was much affected, as was also his audience. Among the pall-bearers were General Toombs, Senators Brown and Colquitt, and Governor Smith.

The Michigan Democrats on Wednesday nominated for Judge of the Supreme Court, full term, John W. Champlin; for Regent of the State University, Arthur L. Clark. The Greenback State Convention was invited to unite again with the Democrats on a fusion ticket, and the nominations of a Judge of the Supreme Court, short term, and of one Regent of the University were left open for them. The Greenbackers accepted the offer and nominated their part of the ticket, but adopted a separate platform. The regular Democrats adopted a resolution calling for a "tariff for revenue only."

There is much excitement among the Germans in Ohio on account of a bill which has been introduced into the Legislature to abolish the teaching of German in the public schools. The German newspapers say that the passage of the bill will result in the overthrow of the Republican party, and will insure Democratic supremacy for many years to come. A mass meeting to protest against the passage of the bill was held on Friday night in Cincinnati.

The Indianapolis Committee in charge of supplies for the sufferers on the Ohio River, south of Evansville, Ind., returned on Saturday, and reported great suffering and sickness at nearly all the river towns. At New Franklin, Ind., a village of 120 inhabitants, 30 persons are destitute and 15 sick. In Uniontown, Ky., a town of 1,500 inhabitants, nearly everybody has suffered, and there are 50 persons destitute. In Shawneetown 1,500 persons are destitute, depending on the public for provisions and medicine, and 125 are sick and 24 have died of pneumonia, catarrh, fever, and dysentery. The latter disease has almost become epidemic. About 125 houses have been swept away or damaged, and at least 700 persons are exposed to disease. At Caseyville, Ill., no relief has been furnished. There were 45 cases of sickness, mostly typhoid fever. One death had occurred. One hundred houses had been under water, and half of them were ruined.

FOREIGN.

Socialistic troubles have broken out again in France. A meeting of Socialists was announced to take place on the Esplanade des Invalides in Paris on Friday, and the Government gave notice of their intention to suppress it. On Friday 6,000 persons assembled there, but the police prevented groups from forming and arrested fifteen persons. After the crowd had been dispersed a mob of about 1,000 returned and broke windows and overturned carriages. They were finally dispersed by the police. On Sunday another attempt was made to hold a meeting, but again the police prevented it and made a large number of arrests. It is stated that a great meeting of Socialists will be held on the Champs de Mars on the 18th inst. Louise Michel, one of the ringleaders, is in hiding to avoid arrest.

Advices from London say that the socialistic troubles in Paris are due to the fact that 60,000 persons are out of employment. The London *Times* correspondent at Paris says that many foreigners have kept away from the city, owing to its unsettled condition.

A meeting of two thousand persons was held in Paris, on Sunday, to protest against the action of the Chamber of Deputies, which had adopted a motion rejecting the proposal to consider the question of a revision of the Constitution. The meeting adopted a resolution favoring a revision.

The French Senate on Thursday rejected, by a vote of 169 to 122, the first clause of M. Simon's bill relative to the right of association, and allowing the existence of religious societies; M. Waldeck-Rousseau, Minister of the Interior, having stated that the Government would soon present a bill on that subject.

In the Chamber of Deputies on Saturday M. Waldeck-Rousseau, replying to M. de Cassagnac, said that Republicans condemned and Monarchists encouraged disorderly meetings. M. de Cassagnac protested against the charges made against the Monarchists. He asserted that the Republic was answerable for the riots, which, he declared, were only beginning. He said that whenever M. Ferry was in power the people starved. M. Waldeck-Rousseau rejoined that M. de Cassagnac's speech showed who were pleased at the rioting. After some further discussion the order of the day was accepted by the Government, and was unanimously adopted.

War between France and Madagascar is threatened. Advices from Tamatav, Madagascar, under date of February 26, announce the arrival there of a French gunboat, and four French men-of-war have arrived on the northwest coast of the island. The natives were reported to be excited, and to be making preparations to resist the French and then to retire to the interior. Fanatics are stirring up the natives against the Christians. On Saturday a despatch to the London *Standard* from Vienna said the commander of the French squadron had been ordered to blockade the shore and occupy several ports of the island, but not to send troops into the interior. The secretary of the Malagassy Embassy, now in Washington, Mr. Tacchi, said on Saturday that the Ambassador had received a despatch that morning, stating that the Prime Minister had called a meeting of all the foreigners within a reasonable distance of Tananarivo, the capital, to consider the action of the French "in making war upon Madagascar." The meeting was held January 2, and included representatives of all the foreign elements. The Government assured them of protection, but suggested that no one should venture too far into the interior. Mr. Tacchi stated that the foreigners expressed sympathy with the Government, and that the representative of the leading French house there assured the Prime Minister that he regarded the course of France as prejudicial to the commercial interests of France.

Byrne was released by the French authorities on Thursday, his case not being considered one for extradition.

Mr. Jenkinson, Director of the Irish Criminal Investigation Department of Dublin, asserts that Patrick Egan has been under police supervision for some time, but that he left Ireland on Thursday unknown to the police. Mr. Jenkinson believes that Egan fled because he thought if Sheridan was extradited important evidence would come into the hands of the authorities. Three letters from Egan were found on Carey's premises, dated October and November, 1881, at which time the Invincibles were established. One of these letters expresses the hope that Carey will succeed in the work he has on hand. It is rumored that the Government has received evidence proving beyond doubt that "Number One" is an Irish-American officer of the League, now in America. Egan turned up in New York on Thursday.

Captain O'Shea has written to the London *Daily News* defending Mr. Parnell against Mr. Forster's attack in the House of Commons. He says that immediately after the Phœnix Park murders Mr. Parnell drew up an address announcing his retirement from political life, and was prevailed upon by his friends only with great difficulty to alter his mind.

Lady Florence Dixie, in a letter to the *Times*, charges that Messrs. Biggar and Parnell, as trustees of the Land League Fund, have not accounted for £152,000 of the money with which they were intrusted. She asserts, therefore, that while this money is unaccounted for, Mr. Parnell and his followers have no right to mock the sufferings of the distressed people in Ireland by their sham championship of the starving peasantry.

At a meeting of the Local Board of Swineford, County Mayo, it was reported that great distress prevailed in the district. Over thirty persons are in the poor-house suffering from famine fever. There are 700 names on the list of those needing relief. The distress has not been so great since the year 1847. People who refuse to enter the workhouse are dying from want of food outside. At the opening of the Grand Juries at Sligo and Armagh the judges referred to the decrease of lawlessness in Ireland. A correspondent of the London *Times* in Dublin states that the enrolment of recruits in the ranks of the Invincibles still proceeds, notwithstanding the readiness of the men now in prison to betray one another.

In the House of Commons on Thursday Mr. Gladstone refused to appoint a day for the cussion of the "Kilmainham treaty" negotiations. Sir Stafford Northcote said he would not proceed any further in the matter. In the Committee of Supply the item for the salary of Mr. Trevelyan, Chief Secretary for Ireland, was agreed to by a vote of 156 to 16. The Irish members raised the question of the relief of distress in Ireland. On Saturday Mr. Trevelyan assured the House that the condition of Ireland was more tranquil than it had been for some time. On Monday Mr. Gladstone stated that Earl Spencer had retired from the office of Lord President of the Council; he also said that he should propose that the House adjourn from the 20th to the 29th inst. for the Easter holiday. The Parnellite attacks upon the Government continue. On Thursday Mr. O'Brien made a fiery speech in which he declared that Mr. Trevelyan was deserving of execration in Ireland. Mr. Trevelyan in reply called attention to the fact that Mr. O'Brien's newspaper (the *United Ireland*) had successively attacked with singular ferocity Mr. Forster, Mr. Burke, Justice Lawson, and Juror Field, and asked the House to remember that the connecting link between these four was the same paper which now attacked himself as the man most hated in Ireland, and more inhuman and destitute of feeling than Mr. Forster.

The condition of the Transvaal was discussed in Parliament on Tuesday. In the House of Commons Mr. Gorst, Conservative, moved that, in view of the complicity of the Boers in the cruel attacks on native chiefs, energetic steps be taken forthwith to secure a strict observance of the convention of 1881. The Hon. Evelyn Ashley, Under Colonial Secretary, replied that if England sent a force to the Transvaal to prevent marauding, the force must remain there, and if such a policy was pursued, it would lead to war. He believed the Boers were amenable to English public opinion.

The returns issued by the Board of Trade show that during the month of February British imports increased, compared with that month in last year, by £3,887,000, and that the exports during the same period decreased £645,000.

At a meeting of the committee of Virginia bondholders in London on Saturday it was resolved to do the utmost to vindicate the claims of the bondholders upon the State of Virginia, and to advise the holders not to take any step toward converting the bonds under the Riddleberger act.

The Anarchists in Spain have quieted down somewhat and confine their operations to sending threatening letters. The total number of persons arrested in Andalusia for complicity in the Anarchist movement is 1,200. Of this number 300 are charged with murders, agrarian outrages, and with being abettors of the "Black Hand" society. Sixty of the prisoners have confessed their complicity in four murders.

In the Spanish Chamber of Deputies on Monday, Señor Cuesta, Minister of Finance, read the budget for 1883–1884. The revenue estimates amount to $160,475,375, and the expenditures to $160,328,075. The extraordinary budget estimates the revenue at $7,386,210, and the expenditures at $6,065,475.

A despatch from Berlin on Thursday said that the appointment of General Blumenthal as Minister of War had been revoked, and that General Bronsart von Schellendorff had been definitely appointed in his stead. The Diet on Wednesday, on the third reading of the budget, rejected by a vote of 192 to 191 a proposal to reinsert the item for the Economic Council, which had been previously erased. On the same day the Minister of the Interior, replying to a Danish Deputy, said the enforcement of military service in Schleswig would only affect 450 citizens, and that the measure was free from any element of terrorism, and would not inflict needless hardship.

Prince Gortchakoff, ex-Chancellor of the Russian Empire, died at Baden-Baden on Sunday. He was born in Moscow, in 1798, of one of the most illustrious and ancient families of the Russian nobility. He entered the Russian Foreign Office at the age of twenty-five, and rose rapidly. He was sent as Ambassador to Vienna during the negotiations which preceded the Crimean war, and displayed great ability. After the Congress of Paris he was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs. In 1863 he was appointed Chancellor of the Empire. During the civil war in the United States he proved a warm friend to the North, and by his decisive action in refusing to join England and France in recognizing the South, and bringing diplomatic pressure to bear on the Federal Government in 1863, he did a great service to the United States. In April last he retired from public life.

M. Coumoundouros, the Greek statesman, died in Athens on Saturday. He was Prime Minister of the kingdom several times from 1866 to 1882, his last term ending in March, 1882. Since then he has led the Opposition in the Chamber of Deputies. The Chamber of Deputies has adjourned until the 16th inst., out of respect to his memory, and a public funeral is proposed.

The Porte on Monday informed the United States Minister, and other foreign representatives, that the treaties of commerce will expire on March 12, 1884. It is believed that there will be no difficulty in concluding new treaties, involving increased import duties of from 8 to 20 per cent.

MR. BURT'S CASE.

THE action of the President in removing Mr. Burt from the Naval Office and putting in his place an inexperienced man, nearly as well known for his hostility to civil-service reform as Mr. Burt for his support of it, has been condemned severely by the Civil-Service Reform Association of this city. They pronounce his removal an "ingenious device," "a serious blow at the reform in its strongest hold," and "a violation of the sound principles of administration" which the President commended in two messages to Congress.

The matter has a permanent importance, because it is impossible not to regard the treatment of Mr. Burt as an indication of the spirit in which the President proposes to carry out the pledges of his message, in the execution of the law. As such, the friends of civil-service reform, who mean that politicians shall no longer turn the question into a farce, will need to keep it in remembrance. If a faithful and competent man were made, in private business, the object of any such ingenious device as that which has been practised on Mr. Burt, the perpetrator would justly forfeit the confidence and respect of those who had dealings with him. In the ordinary affairs of life a man of good standing cannot afford to seem tricky or evasive toward either his customers or his employees. He cannot afford to keep a pledge by sticking to the letter in a way which grossly violates its spirit. It is considered disgraceful for him to do so.

In "politics" the code is somewhat different. There tricks and evasions are too often part of the game, and a man may be guilty of any number of them towards his associates without losing his reputation, as long as he does not prove false to his party. It is the application of this code to the transaction of the business of the Government—that is, the administration of its financial affairs—which has made the Civil-Service Reform Bill necessary. But the bill will not at once, it is evident, put a stop to this trickiness. On the contrary, there is much reason to fear that it will be executed in the old tricky spirit, and that Mr. Burt's "promotion," by which Jake and Barney are hugely delighted, is a fair specimen of the way in which attempts will be made to nullify it, or turn it and its promoters into ridicule. In other words, politicians have not yet, by any means, accepted the principle of the bill—that Government business is like private business, and should be transacted under the same conditions. In fact, it would seem from the Burt case as if they looked on the bill not as a prohibition, but simply as a new difficulty to be overcome.

If Mr. Burt had been for many years the faithful and competent cashier of a bank at $8,000 a year, and had made himself prominent in advocating a change in the mode of keeping the books, and had at last won the stockholders and directors over to his plan, and the President had been ordered to adopt it, he would not dare to take Mr. Burt out of the cashiership and make him head bookkeeper at a salary of $3,000 as a reward for his pains. A president who did such a thing would be considered too smart by far for the banking business, and would find no one to chuckle with him over it as a good joke on the reformer. It may be said that it was not unreasonable for Mr. Arthur to suppose that Mr. Burt would be willing to make some sacrifice for the cause of which he has been a prominent supporter, by taking a place under the new Commission for which he was eminently qualified, even if the salary was lower. But admitting this, in what way would a President who had no end in view but to promote the success of the civil-service-reform experiment have naturally gone to work to get Mr. Burt to consent to the sacrifice? In what way would it have been managed by the head of a private firm, or by the chief executive officer of any other civilized government? Would he not have sent for Mr. Burt—who, be it remembered, has earned respect and consideration by twenty years of faithful service—and explained the situation to him, and have asked for the sacrifice in language which would have satisfied everybody of his good faith towards the public and kindly feeling towards him?

Nothing of this kind was done. The whole affair was managed in the old sly method with which everybody who has seen anything of ward politics is familiar, so as to convert the change into an inexcusable wrong to Mr. Burt, and a sort of mockery of the reform of which he has been an able and persistent advocate. He was not consulted about the change. He was kept in complete ignorance of the President's intentions about his office, both before and after the expiration of his term, while Jake, Mike, and Barney were running to and fro predicting his dismissal and chuckling over it. Mr. Burt's first knowledge of what was in store for him came from the announcement of his successor's appointment, the successor being a man who has all along been an opponent of the reform which Mr. Burt was asked to aid in carrying out at a loss of sixty-six per cent. of his income.

Another consideration which the affair puts in a strong light is the aid which the Act of 1820 affords, and will always afford, in frustrating any scheme of civil-service reform. It is more than probable that if Mr. Burt's four years' term had not expired, President Arthur would not have ventured to shelve him in this way. It requires some courage, and will probably require more every year, to remove a good officer without cause. The tenure of short terms, however, saves the appointing officer the trouble and responsibility of removal. It makes a vacancy, and gives notice to the Jakes, Mikes, and Barneys when it will occur, and thus enables them to get ready for it. This is what it was meant to do when it was passed, and its repeal is one of the things for which reformers still have to work.

COLUMBIA COLLEGE AND THE PUBLIC.

THE *Tribune* reported recently an interview with Mr. Hamilton Fish, the President of the Board of Trustees of Columbia College, touching the pecuniary condition of the college and its ability to meet the demands made on it by the friends of the higher education of women, which contains some interesting information. The policy of the college has hitherto been to treat its financial affairs as strictly private matters, with which the public had no concern. This was long pursued by Yale and Harvard, but was some years ago abandoned by Harvard and has more recently been abandoned by Yale, to their great and manifest advantage. The objection to secrecy, or at all events non-publicity, about the accounts of a college is, that the public, on the well-known principle of *omne ignotum pro magnifico*, always imagines it to be much richer than it really is, and the prevalence of this feeling prevents that public interest in its needs and its doings without which no college, in this country at least, can prosper and exert legitimate influence. No properly-conducted college in our day ought to be rich in the sense of having more revenue than it needs, because its needs ought to be limitless, and its revenues never are. In fact, poverty is the first duty of every college, and it ought to exhibit this poverty constantly to the public in proof of its efficiency. Mr. Fish says:

"Columbia College has only had two gifts in the form of money, and one of them is of no avail yet. About forty or fifty years ago the chair of German was founded, and a year ago, by the death of Stephen Whitney Phœnix, the college received a bequest which will be available some time hence. There has been an occasional scholarship established; but compare this record with that of Harvard and other large colleges. They are constantly receiving large contributions."

"I attribute this lack of interest toward the college partly to its being in this city. It is lost sight of in this centre of business, fashion, and pleasure, surrounded as it is by other institutions of learning, libraries, and museums. Why, Harvard is the great thing in Boston, as Yale is in New Haven; and the town of Princeton would be unknown were it not for Nassau Hall. Such a state of affairs does not exist here, and yet Columbia is doing a great work with the means at her command."

"Another reason why the claims of Columbia have not been recognized is, that Columbia College has never received from the press of this city the credit she is entitled to. There has been a feeling that this college was under the influence of the Episcopal Church, and that it had an immense endowment fund. In regard to the first statement, it is true that the grant of land down town was given with the pledge that the President should be a communicant of an Episcopal church, but the charter expressly prohibits any one religious sect from having a majority in the Board of Trustees. My predecessor in the presidency was the Rev. Dr. Knox, of the Collegiate Church. The Rev. Dr. Gardiner Spring, of the Brick Presbyterian Church, and the Rev. Dr. Williams, a Baptist clergyman, have been members of the Board, and now there are several denominations represented there."

Harvard College, as is, we believe, admitted, owes a great deal of the munificence of which it has been the object during the past fifteen years to its practice of publishing full and minute statements of its affairs, and thus making known to every one concerned all that it is doing and all that it would like to do, if it had the means.

That Columbia College is extraordinarily well off as regards the "general fund," over which the Trustees have complete control, and which in Harvard and other colleges is lamentably small, may be inferred from President Barnard's statement to the same reporter, that although the college has just contracted a debt of $1,000,000, it will be able to pay it off by 1890, out of its income, without interfering with its present curriculum, and that before 1890 its annual income will be increased $187,000 by the rise in the value of its property. No other institution of learning in the country

can make such an exhibit, or anything approaching to it. Harvard has had a deficit for the past three or four years, and this year is barely making ends meet.

Mr. Fish's explanation of the small impression made by the college on the public mind in this city is perhaps in part correct, but we think only in part. The slenderness of its hold on the affection or remembrance of its graduates is doubtless the inevitable result of the non-residence of the students. It is almost impossible for a college to be a real Alma Mater to students who are dispersed through a great city as soon as the lecture or recitation is over. But as Columbia has deliberately chosen to be a city college, without dormitories or discipline, it should, it seems to us, adapt itself to the situation, and endeavor to increase in every way possible the number of points at which it can come in contact with the life, and the number of channels through which it can exert an intellectual and social influence on the youth, of the city. For such a college a secluded, conservative, mediocre existence ought to be an impossibility. It ought to appeal to the popular imagination by frank statements of what it is doing and trying to do for literature, science, and art; and it ought to save itself in this from any imputation of demagogy, by having high standards, and giving instruction so thorough and exacting that none but the well equipped can take it. Its lectures and examinations ought to be such as to confer some distinction on those who attend and pass them, and to create a body of youth of both sexes in the "good society" of New York, who would have some of the marks of a *corps d'élite*, and have better topics of conversation at dinner-tables than the last german, the amount of their host's fortune, or the newest thing in liveries. The more difficult it is to form an intellectual centre in New York, the greater the responsibility which rests on its old and rich university.

This consideration has, we confess, seemed to us to furnish one of the most powerful arguments in favor of its doing something for the higher education of the young women of the city. Probably nothing would do more to make the college a social and intellectual influence than to open its doors to women who wished to learn, and were willing to work, and we may be sure no others would seek admission. A large body of young women who felt they owed it something would assuredly be excellent advocates of its claims on rich men's munificence. By this, we again repeat, we do not mean co-education, though we suspect that there is no college in the country in which co-education would be open to less objection than Columbia College, because its instruction would do no more to bring the sexes together than the morning and afternoon amusements of all sorts now do.

THE PARISIAN RIOTS.

The suppression of the socialistic *émeutes* in Paris without any extraordinary display of force, and without bloodshed, and the arrest or flight of the ringleaders, must be considered a triumph for the Republic, and it is perhaps a greater one than it appears. It is the more valuable because there is hardly a doubt that the mob was egged on by the Legitimists and Bonapartists, who are interested just now in spreading the belief that the Republic cannot maintain order and protect property. The outbreak, too, could hardly have occurred under more favorable circumstances. The instability of the Ministers had prepared the public mind for the idea that the Republic was unstable. Prince Napoleon's escapade and the increased audacity of the Legitimist talk had spread abroad the notion that something serious was impending, of which they hoped to take advantage. The Government had also shown great want of firmness in the prosecution of the perpetrators of the outrages in Lyons and at Montceau-les-Mines. The finances were confessedly in a bad way, and Gambetta, who had the reputation of being the main defence of France against extreme Radicalism, was dead.

So that it is not surprising that Louise Michel and her friends thought the time for action had arrived, and that they might indulge at least in the preliminaries of a revolution by huge demonstrations, and perhaps by a little barricade-making, just to see what metal the authorities were made of. This stage is the critical one in all French troubles, and if the Government meets it with hesitation things are sure to go further and get very much worse. Charles X., in 1830, and Louis Philippe, in 1848, both fell victims to the want of resolution at this juncture. They furnished all the signs that the rioters needed, to show that the men in power were not quite sure of their position and shrank from bloodshed. Louis Napoleon was so determined to avoid this error in 1851, that he swept the fronts of the houses on the Boulevards with musketry, and shelled barricades that might have been carried by a rush of policemen. President Grévy has no need to go so far, because he has followed up the crowds with the gendarmes and cavalry with such persistence that they have not had time to grow, and the ringleaders have been collared and dragged to the police stations in such numbers as to show that the Government does not rate them very highly. Even this has cowed them so much, however, that many of the chiefs, including Louise Michel, have fled.

It must not be inferred from all this, however, that the Socialists are not going to give any further trouble. The vote at the election of Gambetta's successor in the Twentieth Arrondissement in Paris shows that the socialistic or, rather, anarchical ideas are sufficiently diffused among the city population to make them a source of danger for a long while to come. Out of 7,070 votes cast, 1,554 were those of "Collectivists" or "Anarchists." Collectivists are persons who hold that all the materials of production should be owned by the state, which would then deal out work and provisions and clothing to each according to his necessities. The Anarchists have no views regarding the future organization of industry or the tenure of property. They reserve these things for further consideration. The immediate work before them, they hold, is the destruction of all existing restraints on the individual man or woman, whether legal or social. Both Collectivists and Anarchists, however, agree that the first thing to be done is to clear the ground of existing institutions, and in the work of preliminary destruction they would undoubtedly act together. They, therefore, from the point of view of owners of property, may be considered as forming one party. That persons holding such views should constitute nearly one-quarter of the voters, even in a Radical district in Paris, is certainly enough to make any Government uneasy.

But the French Government has one source of consolation which it has not had hitherto. When the inroads that socialistic and nihilistic ideas had made among the working classes were first revealed to the world in 1848, French society was looked on with scornful pity by Russia and Germany, which were supposed to be secure against all poison of this kind, in virtue of their sound religious and political training; and Spain was so far removed from it as to be devoutly Catholic. At this moment there is no country in which the Anarchists are so dread a power as in Russia. In Germany, Socialism has called for special measures of repression, has put the sovereign's life in danger, and constitutes a distinct cloud on the future of the empire. In Spain, to-day, the Government is contending with an Anarchist organization on a great scale, which seems to practise all the leading crimes of Anarchists elsewhere. It murders like the Russians and Irish, rebels and destroys property like the French, and has, besides all this, a special department of brigandage which is unknown in other countries. In other words, the Spanish "Black Hand" is not willing to wait for a regular division of goods, or for the establishment of anarchy on the ruins of modern society. He helps himself in the meantime to such articles as seem likely to make the path of reform less thorny, and give him a tangible foretaste of the good time coming.

MR. FORSTER AND MR. PARNELL.

London, March 1, 1883.

It is a fortnight to-day since Parliament was opened and the debate on the Address in reply to the Queen's speech began; and that debate remains still unfinished. It has been in the main a dull debate, throwing no fresh light upon the questions of present importance, mostly filled with recriminations as to events which happened months ago. But during two nights it rose into a passionate intensity which recalled the angry scenes that accompanied the passing of the Coercion Act in the beginning of 1881, or those of last May, when Mr. Forster's retirement from office and the release of the three "suspect" members from Kilmainham jail startled England, and seemed for a time to imperil Mr. Gladstone's Ministry.

Your readers have already learned how great was the impression made in England by the disclosures of Kavanagh, the car-driver, and Carey, the Dublin Town Councillor, regarding the murders of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, in the Phœnix Park, nine months ago. These informers not only unveiled a terrible conspiracy, but they showed that this conspiracy, instead of being, as had been previously surmised, concocted and organized by American Fenians from America or from Paris, was really a home growth, planned in Dublin and carried out

by people permanently resident in Dublin, who had presumed so much on the fidelity of their associates or the sympathy of the populace that they had not even sought to escape when the deed was done, but began, after some months, a fresh course of murderous crime. Carey, moreover, went further. His evidence implicated some active members of the Land League, and asserted that money came to the conspirators from Land League funds. Thus the indignation roused in England turned more markedly than ever before upon the Land League as a whole, and even ran on, in the minds of many, to inculpate the Parliamentary leaders of that organization, although Carey had said nothing about them. It was generally felt that Mr. Parnell, in particular, was put upon his defence, and that he ought to take the first opportunity of disclaiming all connection with the authors of outrages, and proving that he and his brother chiefs had known nothing of the way in which Land League money was, as Carey alleged, being expended. People flocked to the House of Commons to hear what the Nationalist leader would say, although he gave no indication as to whether he would say anything. While one speaker after another attacked him from the Conservative side, he remained silent. But at last a challenge of a different kind was made. Mr. Forster, who rose with so large a bundle of papers in his hand that it was plain his speech would be a long one, delivered such an attack as has seldom been listened to in any representative assembly.

The ex-Chief Secretary for Ireland is not, in the ordinary sense of the word, a good speaker. He is not fluent; he has none of the graces of diction or delivery which are often found even in those in whom art and study have supplied the want of natural gifts for oratory. But he has great force—force of character and force of conviction. He detests the Land League and its leader, and detests it not the less because he thought that the way in which the suspect members were set free last May was substantially a victory for them, and an improper concession to turbulence and outrage. Thus he threw the whole force of his nature into the invective which he launched at Mr. Parnell. Rarely, if ever, has he been so powerful or produced such an impression on his audience. It is true that the charges he made were mostly founded either on speeches made by Mr. Parnell as far back as 1880, and which had been often referred to before in Parliament, or else upon articles in newspapers (the *Irish World* and *United Ireland*), for which Mr. Parnell might (and did) deny responsibility. But accusations which in themselves were old or susceptible of a reply gained weight from the recent disclosures, and, to an audience three-fourths of which had just been shocked and startled by those disclosures, appeared new and overwhelming. The repeated interruptions of one passionate member of the Nationalist party, whose cries were at last silenced by his suspension from attendance in the House, added to the general excitement. To all appearance, Mr. Parnell was the coolest person present. While the late Chief Secretary charged him with either conniving at murder and outrage, or at any rate doing nothing to check them, he sat calmly regarding his antagonist, with a scornful smile, which was, however, evidently the result, not of indifference, but of intense self-control, and showed how fully he reciprocated Mr. Forster's own feelings toward him. When Mr. Forster ended, he did not, as was expected, rise at once to reply, but remained silent during the rest of the evening. Lord Hartington, who, as leader of the majority in Mr. Gladstone's absence, rose to wind up the debate, repeated in grave and stern language the demand which had been made by others, that he should offer some defence or explanation, and warned him of the interpretation which might be placed upon his silence. Upon this, Mr. Parnell announced that it was his intention to speak on the day following.

An even more curious and excited crowd gathered then to hear him. Most of them went away disappointed, for they did not receive that categorical and specific reply to Mr. Forster's indictment which they expected. But his refusal to plead was almost more impressive than any pleading could have been. He told the English and Scotch members that he and his colleagues did not care for their opinion, nor for any English opinion; that they valued, and sought to justify themselves to, the opinion of Ireland only; that he regarded the English and Scottish part of Parliament as too hopelessly prejudiced and ignorant to be capable of understanding, or believing, or appreciating any defence he could offer, and that he would therefore offer none. On some minor points he did meet Mr. Forster; on others he brought counter charges against the latter. But in the main he left, and was content to leave, the case where it stood, expressing the hostility of Irishmen toward England, their distrust of her, their disbelief in the possibility of her comprehending them, with a cold, hard, dry bitterness which proclaimed that all the efforts at conciliation which the Government and their supporters have been making or trying to make during the last three years had been thrown away. English members, who had not realized what Irish feeling is—and there are still many such—were shocked as well as disheartened. But among the Tory party the sentiment seemed to be that the folly of the Ministry in supposing they could reconcile Ireland by Land Acts and Arrears Acts had now been demonstrated, and that the policy of severe repression would now need no further arguments for its justification.

The part played in all this by Mr. Forster is very differently regarded by different sections. Among the Conservatives, and in society generally, which is in London substantially Conservative, his reputation has never stood so high as it does at this moment. What has been revealed by Carey is held to show that in the crisis of May last which led to his leaving the Cabinet, Mr. Forster was right and his colleagues wrong. He has become the representative (though he has never stated and would probably repel such a view) of the doctrine that what Ireland needs is repression, not relaxation, and that there must be no talk of any establishment of local government, or other yielding to popular demands. He is considered the embodiment of order and firmness standing armed against secret crime. A similar approval of his conduct is accorded him by many Liberals, especially those who belong to the less advanced groups. The *Times* is vehement in its applause, and contrasts him with his colleagues, much to their disadvantage. The Irish Tories, who did not treat him well when he was in power, are now full of friendliness. It is, however, very hard to get praise from opponents without incurring censure from one's own side; and a good deal of such censure is visited on Mr. Forster, although little open expression has been given to it. He is accused of having injured his former colleagues in the process of vindicating himself. Some think that his attack on Mr. Parnell would have been more effective if it had been quieter, and that it ought to have consisted not so much in raking up old speeches, as in showing how much ground he must have had all along for suspecting that the Land League organization was being used to help outrages. Others hold that nothing has been gained at all by the onslaught upon the Nationalist leader, which has only enforced what was known before, and brought out into stronger relief the unpleasant hostility to England of the extreme Irish party.

Although this has no doubt been the chief result, it cannot be said that Mr. Forster's indictment and Mr. Parnell's retorts have not altered the ordinary English view of the Land League and its chief. They have certainly made any future coöperation between him and any large section of English politicians even more difficult than it was before. Unless Carey's story should be discredited at the approaching trials in Dublin, they will make public opinion in Great Britain associate the League leaders with outrage and conspiracy far more closely than has heretofore been the case. It is true that any good observer might have seen long ago how the matter stood: how certain it was that an organization like the Land League would overlap other and more secret organizations; that some of its members would not shrink from criminal means to accomplish their ends; that some of its funds would find their way into unscrupulous hands. All this was in the highest degree natural and probable. All this was compatible with the fact that the objects of the League were, at least originally, legitimate; that its avowed means—agitation by meetings and through the press—were legal also; and that its leading members may have wished and intended and directed that nothing of a criminal or seditious nature should take place. However, English opinion, which, though of course far from lenient to the League, had not realized the extent to which desperate men, the survivors of Fenianism and their disciples, existed in Ireland, ready to make the most of the League, has now leaped to the conclusion that every Land Leaguer was a possible Fenian, willing to approve whatever the most violent Fenian might do. Hence, not only a strong momentary irritation against the Nationalists, but also a smaller possibility of any friendly relations in the future between them and any conceivable English Ministry.

After the excitement of the encounter between himself and Mr. Forster, Mr. Parnell's subsequent indictment of the Irish Government for their administration of the Prevention of Crime Act fell flat. He was not even supported in it by the whole of his forces; but whether this is due to dissensions in the Nationalist party or to other causes, does not yet appear. After this came a statement by other Irish members of the distress of the peasantry, with demands for more indulgent grants of outdoor poor-law relief, and for the employment of the poor upon public works. Mr. Trevelyan has resisted these requests, and is thought to have made out a good case for doing so when he urged that lax and indiscriminate out-door relief would only demoralize the indigent and prolong their wretchedness by keeping them from emigrating; and that it was far better that they should be tempted to leave those congested districts in which pauperism is chronic. Meantime, the debate on the Address, of which all these discussions are episodes, still drags its interminable length along. People have begun to ask what is the use of an Address at all, and a debate upon it. If it is open to so much abuse, may it not be better to drop it altogether? Others think that the power of closing debate given by the Rules of Procedure passed three months ago ought to be exercised. It is, however, not easy to put that power in force, for the Tory Opposition is quite as answerable as the Irish Opposition for the length to which this debate has run. So much alarm was felt at the passing of the closure resolution that the Government are loth to resort to it, or to let it begin to be used under any but the strongest and clearest necessity. Meantime, Mr. Gladstone is

just landing in England, and his arrival may be expected at once to stimulate the efforts of his party to make some progress with public business, and to rouse the Conservatives to more angry attacks on his policy. Much as they dislike it, they dislike him even more, and are embittered by his presence and the vehemence with which he presses onward in his path. Y.

PARLIAMENTARY OPPOSITION IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, February 23.

LAST Friday night the German Reichstag, after having passed the Budget for 1883-84, took its recess, not because it had finished its business, but for the reason that it had to make room for the Prussian Landtag, which before April 1 must pass its budget. The Reichstag adjourns one day and on the next the Landtag steps in; there is such a perpetual and irregular change in their meeting that even our political laymen confound the one with the other. For an American reader it is hardly possible to mark the difference.

Both legislative assemblies have more Conservative than Liberal members, but the former nevertheless command no majority, and the latter, if not carrying their own point, are, by concentrating their action, at least strong enough to set aside the most obnoxious reactionary schemes. Thus the Government in some of its pet measures suffered a signal defeat. The Reichstag, without even a word of debate, rejected the two years' budget and confined its action to that of 1883-84. The Government's endeavors towards the reintroduction of mechanic guilds, by allowing only those masters who were members of a guild to engage apprentices, were sadly defeated, and simultaneously with this bill the plan of introducing workingmen's pass-books in order to control them better was withdrawn. The Landtag has just rejected the license bill, laying a heavy tax on the tobacco, beer, and whiskey retailer; only five votes were given in favor of the measure. Yesterday the ultra-Conservatives hissed the Secretary of the Treasury for not fully agreeing with them on the particulars of some financial questions; and these childish demonstrations came from the Government's stanchest supporters, while His Majesty's most loyal Opposition cheered the Secretary's remarks.

Thus far the socialistic and so-called reform measures of the Government have met with no success whatever. The other day the Prussian Landtag did a good work by refusing a second time the funds asked by the Government for the "Conseil Supérieur" (*Volkswirthschaftsrath*). The Reichstag some time ago rendered the same service to Germany; but I apprehend that, nevertheless, the matter will again be brought before the House. In other countries, the Ministers of State, when defeated, send in their resignations; with us, they consider an unanimous vote of distrust by Parliament as a feather in their cap, and as a new lease of power.

A bill brought into the Reichstag by the Conservative hotspurs, highly taxing the Exchange, is likewise doomed to failure. Its originators have manifested such an ignorance of the elementary laws of economical science that an errand-boy of any New York banker or broker is an expert in comparison with these agrarian gentlemen. "The Exchange is a poisonous tree," exclaimed the other day Herr Maybach, Minister of Public Works, and formerly of Commerce. "It consumes the marrow of legitimate business," cried his satellites; "It is feeding rich Jews," the so-called anti-Semites joined in, and they all coalesced in an effort to lay heavy taxes on any transaction, for cash or on credit, entered into at the Exchange. When at last the honest squireens and their followers could not help seeing, from the arguments of their adversaries, that they, too, would be sufferers if such a suicidal policy were carried out, they fell back on another stratagem. "Why trouble ourselves with specifying the amount to be realized by taxing the Exchange? Let us lay a fixed impost on it! Let it pay so many millions, and let the different members of the Exchange tax themselves for the share each individual must pay." As this method of arriving at the legal solution of a difficult problem is a rather uncommon one, for which reason the opponents of the bill refused to volunteer their services, the Committee dropped its work, and will leave it to the Reichstag. It is needless to add that the latter will still less be able to accomplish anything without having a draft of a bill submitted to it. To complete my sketch of the united wisdom of the Conservatives in framing laws to regulate trade and commerce—there are eleven Conservatives and ten Liberals in the Committee—I will mention a characteristic anecdote. In the debates on trying to make the Exchange "bleed," a question arose as to the proper functions of banks of deposit and checks in daily business. A learned Marburg professor of history and law, Mr. William Arnold, who is well versed in the history of the migration of nations and of the Merovingians as well as the Carlovingians, is a member of that committee. On being informed how and why such banks were created and patronized by business people, and that they were indispensable for almost all business transactions, the learned gentleman indignantly exclaimed: "Why should we feed these suckers? We have good savings banks; let our merchants not be too proud to deposit their money there and withdraw it when they see fit!" *Ex uno disce omnes!*

Another trait of the ingenuity and shrewdness of our agrarians is this: Like a poor lawyer who hunts up precedents, they eagerly look out for institutions, belonging to other nations, which they might use to their special advantage. Among their recent discoveries was your "Homestead Law." As if by agreement, some months ago, a cry of admiration was raised in the agrarian organs and agricultural associations that the American Homestead Law was the pride of the age, and that in order to save German agriculture it should be introduced here at once. Young Bismarck, a member of the Prussian Landtag, praised the American law as the greatest boon, and in doing so proved that he, like his friends, knew very little about what he wished to have introduced as a domestic institution in Germany. These gentlemen confound (or rather combine) the United States Homestead Law—which, free of charge, bestows 160 acres of unoccupied and undisposed-of land upon every bona-fide settler—with the laws of individual States exempting a certain amount of debtor's property from being levied by the Sheriff. The State of California, which exempts even $5,000, is the great idol of young Bismarck and his kidney. American reality thus represents itself to their fancy: *First.* Uncle Sam makes them a present of 160 acres of land. Where they are situated and what it will cost a new-comer to reach them, does not trouble our enthusiasts. *Second.* This property cannot be foreclosed, however indebted it may be. *Third.* The value of $5,000 must be left to the debtor; the Sheriff can only levy the surplus of that amount. Thus the undisturbed possession of a nice little farm and the comfort of a snug house are secured to the debtor, who laughs at his bloated creditors when they threaten him, or even after they have recovered judgment against him. What a glorious country these United States must be; they really are the safe refuge for all who are oppressed by cruel laws made in the interest of greedy bloodsuckers! They now will even find grace in the eyes of Barons Strudelwitz and Prudelwitz. On a closer study the agrarians, however, have found out that their enthusiasm for your Homestead Law was a little premature, and that there are some drawbacks; consequently they now keep quiet. The gentlemen who the other day had to report to the general German Agricultural Association on the American Homestead Law, in rather low spirits declared that, attractive as that law might appear at first glance, its introduction into Germany would be so difficult that the subject must be dropped from the order of the day.

The conflict with Rome has lately reappeared in the foreground of political events. You will have learned by the telegraph that the German Emperor on December 22 last wrote a conciliatory answer to a letter from the Pope, which the latter on December 3 had sent him, thanking him for his kind words about the Church on opening the Landtag. The Emperor's answer was countersigned by Bismarck as Minister of Foreign Affairs, to engraft upon his master's words the dignity of a highly official state paper. He openly expressed his desire of coming to terms with the Pope, and formally declared that if the Church would, as in duty bound, announce to his Government the names of the priests appointed to fill clerical vacancies, he would acknowledge and welcome such an order to the Roman clergy as a token of Leo's readiness for peace, and would revise the laws which had been passed for the protection of the contested rights of the crown. The Pope's answer is dated January 30. After the usual introductory and complimentary remarks, he says that through Cardinal Jacobini he has sent a note to the Prussian Minister, Schloezer, which will more fully explain on what terms he has authorized the bishops to notify the Prussian Government of the appointment of new curés without waiting for a thorough revision of the clerical laws now in force in Prussia, but that he expects to see those severe measures mitigated which prevent the full and free exercise of clerical duties and the education of the clergy. Church as well as State must be in the position to imbue with its own spirit the persons whom it employs. The above changes the Pope considers a *conditio sine qua non* for the independent existence of the Church. As soon as an understanding on these points is effected, it will be easy to conclude a real and lasting peace.

While the Prussian Government ordered its Minister in Rome to ask for the publication of this letter, the *Moniteur de Rome* published it at full length. This fact is a direct proof that Leo considers his position as better and much more commanding than that of Emperor William. Before knowing the exact wording and contents of Jacobini's note, it is of course impossible to do full justice to the Pope's demands; but their scope can already now be fully appreciated. The Emperor demands the bishops' notification of the appointment of all priests; the Pope mentions only the curés, and leaves out all assistants, such as chaplains and vicars, who temporarily, for any length of time, may fill the curés' offices. Not satisfied with this condition, the Pope asks to have the priests educated in Roman Catholic seminaries independent of State control, and the unlimited exercise of any clerical duty by his priests for the salvation of souls. The Emperor voluntarily offers the revision of some of the Falk laws; the Pope insists on a thorough repeal of all that is essential in them.

If ever since 1880 it had been necessary to prove that Rome does not want a peace but a

triumph, and that she is as overbearing and haughty as in the palmiest days of her ascendancy, it would be shown by the very words of the Pope. While the Conservative press, for the purpose of concerting a reactionary policy with the Centre, tries to interpret them as harbingers of peace and friendship, every independent paper and man treats them as an insolence thrown in the face of the whole German nation. In other words, the Pope disdainfully rejects the Emperor's peaceful offers, and adds insult to injury. Here we have the fruits of Bismarck's policy, the miscarriage of his plans to beat the Liberals with the assistance of Conservatives and Ultramontanes. Will he now break off negotiations with Rome? This he must do if he be not prepared to go to Canossa and to disavow the Emperor's own words in his letter of December 22 last. The situation of Prussia, owing to the stubbornness of the Pope, is now so bad that further negotiations would look as if she were craving for peace. The Centre, by now turning once more against the Government, as if the Pope had been willing to bring the negotiations to a peaceful end, while Bismarck had failed to accept his advances, try to make the best of the present standstill in an amicable settlement. Bismarck, on the other hand, is too able a diplomatist not to know by this time that Rome can afford to wait, while he cannot afford to wait, and that his prospects are rather gloomy if he be not willing to sacrifice the intellectual and moral leadership of Prussia. In short, Germany has lost a battle when victory was near at hand. And who has caused this defeat? The same statesman who did more than any other living being to create the German Empire. †††

P. S.—On the point of mailing this letter, I see the Jacobini note just published in the morning papers. It is much worse than was anticipated, and the advances of the Pope are even smaller than represented by him. All Rome will do is to announce the *present* vacancies to the Prussian Government, and to submit to its objection to or rejection of the appointees. In return for this concession, Leo XIII. expects Prussia to revise all the so-called Falk laws; and if such thorough revision appears satisfactory to him, he will give his assent to a definite and permanent notification. This is rather sharp practice! The Minister of Public Worship announced to the Landtag that the Prussian answer would soon be published.

RICHARD WAGNER.

LEIPZIG, February 22, 1883.

THE shock felt throughout Germany at the news of Richard Wagner's death was the more severe from being, in general, totally unexpected. Even his bosom friend, Franz Liszt, one of the earliest and most devoted champions of the principles which Wagner defended with his pen and illustrated in the series of noble musical dramas now so widely known, was so completely overwhelmed by the suddenness of the blow that he fainted away, and was with difficulty restored to consciousness. Angelo Neumann, the director of the "Richard Wagner Theatre," received the news on the 14th, at Aachen, where the "Rheingold" was about to be given. The representation was followed by solemnities in honor of the dead master. Neumann, his voice choked with emotion, addressed the audience in the following heartfelt words:

"Not only the German people, the German nation—the whole world mourns to-day by the coffin of one of its greatest sons. All in this assembly share our grief and pain. But nevertheless we alone can fully measure the fearful loss which the Richard Wagner Theatre has met with through this event. The love and care of the master for this institution can find no better expression than in a letter, written by his own hand, received by me this evening, which closes with these words:

"'May all the blessings of Heaven follow you! My best greetings, which I beg you to distribute according to desert. Sincerely yours,

"'RICHARD WAGNER.

"'VENICE, PALAZZO VENDRAMIN, February 11, 1883.'

"Now we are orphaned—in the Master everything is as if dead for us! I can only add, we shall never cease to labor according to the wishes and the spirit of this great composer; never shall we forget the teachings which we were so happy as to receive from his lips and his pen."

Wagner had been unwell and under medical treatment since last autumn, although not confined to his bed. In order to assuage the asthmatic trouble which, during the "Parsifal" representation, assumed a threatening character, he had employed subcutaneous injections of morphine for years, with favorable results. Herr Levi, of the Royal Theatre at Munich, was for the week preceding Wagner's death a guest of the latter at the Palazzo Vendramin in Venice, and found him in good health and spirits, even enjoying the festivities of the Venice Carnival in company with his family and guests. On February 12 Wagner visited his banker Reitmeyer, and drew a sum of money to defray the expenses of a projected tour to Southern Italy with his son Siegfried. The morning of the 13th he passed as usual in the sacred retirement of his study, composing and playing. At 2 o'clock he appeared on the threshold, not, as was his wont, singing and beating time, but with feeble, tottering steps, and complaining that he felt very ill; these bad symptoms, however, soon passed off. At 3 the whole family was assembled at table, and soup was being served when Wagner suddenly rose, crying out: "Mir ist sehr schlecht!" (I am very sick), and fell back as if in a swoon. He was immediately carried to bed, and the attending physician, Dr. Keppler, hastily summoned. But it was too late; he could only say that Wagner had ceased to live, and that the immediate cause of his death was an attack of heart disease.

A death-mask was taken by the sculptor Benvenutti. The remains were embalmed and enclosed in a metallic coffin, which was transported to Bayreuth by a special train, consisting of a locomotive and tender decorated with black flags, a freight-car draped in black for the coffin, a parlor-coach for the family, and two other coaches for friends and servants. The funeral ceremonies at Bayreuth were simple and most impressive. Delegations from all the cities and theatres of note in Germany were present. At the beginning of the obsequies a military band played an arrangement of "Siegfried's Death"; speeches were then made, and a funeral song was sung by the Liederkranz of Bayreuth, after which the funeral train moved slowly, to the tolling of the bells, through the densely-thronged streets, in which the gas-lamps, veiled in crape, were burning, presenting a strange contrast to the bright daylight. It was the wish of the wife of the departed that the quiet of his last resting-place, chosen by himself years ago behind the villa "Wahnfried," should not be disturbed by a musical demonstration, and her feelings were respected. Three Protestant divines officiated; the solemn Lutheran funeral service was spoken; and the grave closed over the body of the greatest composer that the nineteenth century has produced. The myriad laurel wreaths, sent by private persons, corporations, theatres, and musical associations, including two magnificent ones from King Ludwig, Wagner's patron and friend, were not suffered to waste away upon the grave, but were collected in the Wagner Theatre at Bayreuth.

The public demonstrations on the news of Wagner's decease show that the event is felt to be of national, indeed of world-wide, importance. The press of nearly all European states, even the ultramontane press of Italy, is full of his praise, and of incidents and anecdotes connected with his life and death. In every city of any importance in Germany memorial concerts, consisting of Wagner's compositions, together with memorial exercises, have been and are still being held. I notice that the "Trauermarsch," from the "Götterdämmerung," appears most frequently on the programmes of such concerts, of which the proceeds are, in most cases, to be devoted in some manner to the purpose of perpetuating Wagner's memory. In various cities, among others Venice, Vienna, and Leipzig, the erection of suitable monuments is already projected. Neumann makes the proposal that a sum should be collected for the benefit of the bereaved wife and children. This proposition has occasioned lively opposition from various quarters, on the ground that the *tantièmes* from the performance of Wagner's works will afford a princely income; also that King Ludwig will undoubtedly settle a handsome pension on the wife and children of his deceased friend. Although Wagner's receipts from all sources were very considerable, he is said to have left almost nothing, his mode of life having been very luxurious, and his household numerous; the entire body of servants accompanied him on his frequent journeys. Another proposal is to found an institution for needy musicians; and yet another to unite all sums for the purpose of carrying on Wagner's cherished idea, a national school of dramatic and musical art, such as the theatre at Bayreuth, with its yearly gatherings of eminent artists from all parts of the empire. This last proposition is perhaps most consonant with Wagner's own wishes; but it is questionable if such a scheme can meet with success, now that the master spirit has passed away.

The never-resting energy which was Wagner's most prominent characteristic did not fail till the day of his death. According to the *Neue Freie Presse*, he was engaged in composing a new musical drama, entitled "Die Büsser," the poem of which, a glorifying of the transmigration of souls, is based upon the Brahminic legend, and was nearly finished; the musical composition of some parts was already begun. On the other hand, Filippo Filippi, an Italian admirer of Wagner's genius, writes to an Italian paper that the master was engaged upon "a new opera having an Hellenic subject," in which "it would undoubtedly have been shown that his genius, turning from the misty fables of the Germans to the bright and serene poetry of ancient Greece, would have drawn nearer to our musical life and feeling, which is clear and characteristically melodious."

Richard Wagner composed, like all great musicians, in his brain, and not, as is often imagined, at the piano. It is a delight to examine a manuscript composition from his hand—to see how complete and well-rounded, how ripe and finished everything sprung from his head. Changes are very rarely found in such a manuscript; even in the boldest harmonies and most difficult combinations, not a slip of the pen occurs. In the entire score of "Tannhäuser," which Wagner wrote out himself from beginning to end in chemical ink, not one correction is to be found. One note followed the other with easy rapidity. It was his habit to write the musical sketch in pencil—at Bayreuth, music-paper was to be found in every corner of "Wahnfried," on which, while wandering about the house during sleepless nights, musing and planning, he made brief jottings, often merely a new idea in instrumentation. The rest was in his head; the vocal parts were added to the score without hesitation, and never

needed correction. For the orchestra he employed three staves, one of which was reserved for special notes, as, for instance, when a particular instrument was to enter. From these sketches the vocal parts could be written out immediately, although the instrumentation was by no means finished. Such sketches were carefully collected by Frau Cosima, who tried for a time to fix the notes permanently by drawing the pen through them. This task was, however, soon abandoned. In its stead she grasped the idea of making a collection of all Wagner's manuscripts, to be deposited in "Wahnfried." For many years she has conducted an extended correspondence for the purpose of obtaining, for love or money, the scattered treasures, and has, in a great measure—principally through the use of the latter persuasive—succeeded.

In regard to the projected performances of "Parsifal" at Bayreuth during the coming summer no definite decision has yet been reached. The singers, in general the same as last year, have already signified their willingness, and also obtained permission, to coöperate in the representation of this season; a substantial pecuniary foundation is likewise not lacking. It is therefore by no means improbable that the performances may take their wonted course. (The latest intelligence is that the managing committee have decided in favor of holding the "Festspiele" this year.) Wagner had written his memoirs, which are not only finished, but already printed. The entire edition consists of *only three copies*, one of which was in the possession of the author, the second an heirloom of Siegfried's, and the third in the hands of Franz Liszt. This autobiography fills four volumes, and was printed at Basel, every proof-sheet being jealously destroyed, so that there are actually but three copies in existence. To the nine volumes of his works already published (Leipzig, E. W. Fritzsch, 1871–3) will be added a tenth, containing brief essays and sketches of a philosophical character, and (it is to be hoped) the four volumes of the autobiography.

Richard Wagner was born in Leipzig, in the Brühl; the house, number 88, called the Red and White Lion, is still standing, and bears the following simple inscription:

In diesem Hause
WURDE GEBOREN
RICHARD WAGNER
DEN 22. MAI, 1813.

A visit to the house reveals nothing of special interest except the room in which the great composer first saw the light of day—a long, low, narrow chamber, with one window toward the street; the interior arrangement has undergone a complete change. The present occupant of the flat, which takes up the whole third story of the house, said with no little pride, as I asked him if he were certain that this was the room: "Yes, yes, he told me so himself while on a visit to Leipzig with his wife; he came here with her to show her the rooms."

Wagner received his first instruction in counterpoint from Christian Gottlieb Müller, during his course in the Nicolai Gymnasium in Leipzig. He entered the University of Leipzig February 23, 1831, as *studiosus musicæ*. About the same time he began, as he himself writes, his first thorough course of contrapuntal study, under the direction of Theodor Weinlig, Cantor of the Thomasschule. "My course of study under Weinlig was finished in less than half a year," he writes; "he himself dismissed me from my apprenticeship, after having conducted me so far that I could solve the most difficult exercises in counterpoint with ease. 'That which you have gained through this dry study is called *independence*,' he said to me." And truly, independence in thought and deed has ever been one of Wagner's most striking and noble characteristics: in the storms of the political revolution of 1848, in the long years of exile following, and, what has secured him enduring fame, in the more peaceful revolution of dramatic musical art, for the accomplishment of which he labored with untiring energy. He lived to see his most daring hopes fulfilled; to see his enemies among his countrymen reduced to a mere handful of carping critics; to hear of the representation in foreign lands of those works of whose performance in Germany he almost despaired not many years ago. He lived to see the principles in which his whole life and soul were bound up victorious, and to feel himself the object of an unbounded love and admiration. The closing verses of the poem spoken at the memorial exercises in the Leipzig Theatre aptly illustrate the feelings with which the German people regarded this representative of German musical art:

"Er tilgte stark den hohlen Prunk und Schimmer,
Ein grosser Mann in einer Welt voll Kleinheit;
Er suchte nach dem Wahren, Echten immer,
Und statt des Stückwerks gab er uns die Einheit.
In Allem, trotz verschwenderischer Fülle,
Ein goldner Faden doch, der nie zerreisst!
Gewaltig wusste sein Titanenwille
In *neue* Form zu giessen *neuen* Geist.

"Wenn je sein Vaterland ein Deutscher liebte,
Hat er's geliebt mit Andacht und mit Thränen.
Wie auch sein Tag sich lichtete, sich trübte,
Du, deutsches Volk, warst alle Zeit sein Sehnen.
So lasst an seiner Gruft uns dies geloben:
Wir wollen jenen Schatz erhalten *rein*,
Den er in seiner Kunst für uns gehoben,
Und wollen *Deutsch* in seinem Sinne sein!"

Correspondence.

OREGON AND THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Ever since it was my misfortune to publish the 'Statistical Atlas of the United States,' I have been made the object of reproachful letters through the mails, and of objurgatory notes and appendices in magazine articles and school histories, for having presumed to include the Territory, formerly known as Oregon, and now constituting the State of that name, together with the Territories of Washington and Idaho, as a part of the region acquired by the United States through the so-called Louisiana Purchase of 1803.

"The Oregon Question" was not one which there had ever been occasion for me specially to investigate; but for the purposes of the Atlas of 1874 it seemed right to include Oregon in the Louisiana Purchase, since the United States, through its ministers, Gallatin and Rush, had actually claimed it as carried by the force of the Treaty of 1803—if not through direct cession, then by a sort of political gravitation, as "contiguous unsettled territory," if I rightly remember Mr. Gallatin's phrase. Whether this claim was or was not valid under the terms of the treaty, according to accepted principles of international law, the fact that the United States had made the claim seemed to justify this treatment of the subject in an official publication like the 'Statistical Atlas.' But, as has been said, my critics have been relentless, and I have been subjected to so many lectures on the subject as to make me willing, out of pure weariness of soul and for the sake of peace, to confess that Oregon was discovered by Jason, settled by Dido, conquered by Tamerlane, and acquired by the United States at the peace of Westphalia, in the administration of James K. Polk. Indeed, I once sat down to write to the *Nation*, expressing my entire willingness to admit anything, and by turns everything, regarding the acquisition of Oregon, which any, and by turns every, person in the United States or elsewhere might wish to have admitted; my sincere regret that Oregon had ever been acquired, discovered, or created; and my complete retraction and recantation of the map and text relating to that baleful region which was contained in the offending publication. But the subject proved as soporific as Schleswig-Holstein, and I fell asleep over the paper.

And now comes my friend, Mr. Theodore Dwight, the learned and accomplished librarian of the State Department at Washington, and calls my attention to the map of the Louisiana Purchase, given by M. Barbé-Marbois, the negotiator, on the part of France, of the Treaty of 1803, in his 'Histoire de la Louisiane,' published in 1829. On this map, the entire region defined in the 'Statistical Atlas' as the Louisiana Purchase, extending clear across the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific, is printed in one uniform color, and enclosed within deep boundary lines, while across it, from southeast to northwest, from Lake Borgne to Puget Sound, runs the title:

"Accroissement des États-Unis par le traité et par ses effets."

Two subordinate legends, in smaller letters, occupy the two parts of this great field, which is divided, not by the Rocky Mountains, according to the views of my critics, but by the line of the 110th meridian. To the east and south is written:

"Suivant d'anciennes cartes, la Louisiane s'étendait jusqu'au 110° degré de longitude occidentale."

To the west and northwest is written:

"Territoires et pays occupés par les États-Unis *à la suite du traité de cession* de la Louisiane."

A man of temper might ask: If M. Barbé-Marbois didn't know the extent of that Louisiana which he kindly ceded, and the effect of that cession, who did? But the spirit of self-assertion has been too far broken within me by past suffering to allow me to adduce even M. Barbé-Marbois as authority on this subject, as against the self-constituted guardians of American history.

Francis A. Walker.

Boston, March 9, 1883.

THE NEW SHAKSPERE SOCIETY AND THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may be of interest to the readers of the *Nation* to quote a paragraph or two from the third annual report of the New Shakspere Society, which has just been sent out. A cheering word for the South, in view of so much recent painful criticism, will help the friends of both sides from falling into discouragement.

To the uninitiated, it may be stated that the great Old-English scholar and antiquary, F. J. Furnivall, was the founder of this Society, and that its president is Robert Browning.

The committee, in their report for 1881–2, page 11, say:

"The Society's prize books, unbound as they are, and of little money value as compared with their inner worth, continue their good work of stirring up Shakspere study all over the country, and in many parts of America, where they are eagerly sought for; . . . and from the United States, especially the Southern ones—which are striving to raise the standard of their education to the level of our own universities, and are devoting special attention to English—the committee have received most gratifying witness to the good which the Society's recognition of the American educators' efforts has effected. Every now and then this witness has come in the form of a letter from a professor or teacher who has said that he or she owed to the resolve to win the Old Country's prize his or her first real interest in the great poet whom he or she is now teaching to younger folk in class."

Eight Southern institutions, among the twelve in the United States that get the prizes, are then enumerated.—Respectfully yours,

JAMES A. HARRISON.

WASHINGTON AND LEE UNIV., LEXINGTON, VA., March 6, 1883.

CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM IN OHIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As an example of the uphill work the friends of civil-service reform have still before them, a recent removal and two appointments in this city afford food for reflection. The U. S. District Attorney, General Meyer, publicly opposed, during the last canvass, the regular nominee of the Republican party, on the ground that his nomination was obtained by corrupt use of money through the Machine. At the instance of the defeated candidate, and through the influence of Senator Sherman, General Meyer has been summarily removed and his place given to another, although his record as a public officer has, so far as we know, never been questioned.

The postmastership became vacant, and the assistant postmaster—a faithful officer who has been many years in the office—petitioned for the vacancy. His petition was endorsed by the civil-service reform club of this city. But, instead of carrying out the spirit of the reform bill, the President appointed a brother of Senator Jones, of Nevada, and it is now rumored in political circles that the daring subordinate who was so bold as to aspire to the reward of his years of faithful service is to be dismissed, that a place may be provided for the defeated Republican candidate for sheriff.

The only excuse the press gives for this plain violation of the spirit of the law is that the President had made positive pledges before the law was passed. But the spectacle of a Nevada Senator controlling appointments in Ohio is, to say the least, worthy of consideration as one of the legitimate results of "personal politics."

Very truly yours, L. B. TUCKERMAN.

UNIVERSITY OF WOOSTER, CLEVELAND, O., March 6, 1883.

PROHIBITION AND SOPHISTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The sophistry of the arguments advanced in favor of the right of the State to prohibit the use of intoxicating liquors is ably demonstrated by Mr. Ernst Hofer, although, as he intended to prove the contrary, his success must be attributed rather to accident than to his wisdom. Mr. Hofer evidently thinks—for this is the ground on which he objects to your comparison between the prohibition of whiskey and the prohibition of potatoes—that the State has the right to forbid the sale, importation, or manufacture of luxurious articles, but not of those which are a necessity. If this were so, the State might forbid the use of diamonds or other expensive articles with the same right that it could prohibit the use of intoxicating drinks.

Again, the comparison which he draws between the mistake of Lord Palmerston and the error alleged to have been committed by yourself is more remarkable for the wide divergence of the things compared than for their similarity. There is a vast difference between *forbidding the sale, importation, or manufacture of an article*, and *merely levying a tax upon its sale, importation, or manufacture*. The constitutional basis of a tax is the raising of revenue; and so long as the law which imposes this tax discloses no illegality on its face, it is perfectly competent for a legislature to choose, in its discretion, what articles shall be subjected to taxation. In determining its choice, however, it is eminently wise and proper for the legislature to be guided by moral as well as economical considerations. It is this discretionary power, which is lodged in every legislative body, that justified Parliament in taxing gin and ale rather than treacle and vinegar, or which justifies Congress in taxing whiskey and tobacco rather than bread, meat, or other articles. But to forbid the sale or importation or manufacture of any article because it is a luxury, or even for the improvement of public morals, is not within legislative competency. SYLVAN DREY.

BALTIMORE, March 10, 1883.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many Southern gentlemen have felt obliged, with whatever reluctance, to admit the truth of your statements regarding homicide at the South. So I, though mainly on the side of the abstainers, am obliged to admit that temperance advocates are liable to the mental twist you have referred to. There is an earnest teetotaler in this town, whose favorite temperance argument is as follows: If four glasses of rum will make a man drunk, a half glass will make him one-eighth drunk. It is absolutely impossible to be completely sober after drinking any rum at all. Knowing me to be a friend of "the cause," he mentioned his *argument* to me a while ago, doubtless intending to place an effective weapon in my hands. I said to him: "Is it possible that you do not see the fallacy of that? You might as well say that if a man is gluttonous who eats twenty-five ham sandwiches at a meal, he who eats one ham sandwich at a meal is one-twenty-fifth gluttonous. There is no such thing as moderation in the matter of eating sandwiches. Any man is either gluttonous or partially so who eats bread and ham together at all." "Oh," replied he, "that is sophistry, for ham and rum are very different things." And there he stuck.

He repeats his argument to me every now and again; but I never reply. Your specimens have driven you to the verge of despair, mine has plunged me in the very gulf. A chisel and hammer might suffice for yours, but a heavy charge of dynamite would be too inert for mine.

J. C. COZENS.

AMSTERDAM, N. Y., March 12, 1883.

HERMANN LOTZE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: No German philosopher is more read in America than Lotze, and yet little has been done to make his work known to those who are not special students of philosophy. Mr. Joseph Cook, the Boston lecturer, is one of the few who have attempted this, but Lotze would seem to have been wounded in the house of his friends. I am not very familiar with Mr. Cook's published lectures, but I have come across several passages which show that Lotze is misrepresented in a way that is painful to those of us who studied under him, and that must be evident to all acquainted with modern philosophy. As an example of this, take the peroration of a lecture entitled "Living Tissues," which reads as follows:

"If Hermann Lotze, the first philosopher of Germany, were on this platform to-day, he, in the name of the axiom that every change must have a sufficient cause, would thus and thus [tearing the paper] tear into shreds the materialistic or mechanical theory of the origin of living tissues and of the soul. [Applause.]"

Mr. Cook was peculiarly unfortunate in this sentence. Lotze does not believe in "the axiom that every change must have a sufficient cause," but he does believe in "the materialistic or mechanical theory of the origin of living tissues." Lotze thinks it necessary to disprove the assumption that every event has its cause in order to make freedom of the soul possible. In his 'Microcosmus' (vol. i., p. 292), he says that, if we mean whatever is effected is caused when we say every effect has its cause, we utter a mere truism; "but," he continues, "it is questionable whether we have a right to consider every event as an effect in this sense. The very endlessness of the series of causes and effects convinces us of the absence of this right, for it leads of necessity back to the recognition of an original being and an original motion." He goes on to say that the law should be stated, Every cause has its effect; rather than in the form, Every effect has its cause. Thus he leaves room for new causes and freedom of the soul.

Lotze's defence of the mechanism of organic bodies is fundamental to his whole system of philosophy. He was one of the first (in Wagner's 'Handbuch der Physiologie,' 1842) to take a stand against the then prevalent vitalism, and claim that all physiological processes can be explained under the laws of matter in motion. He says our body is only "the nearest piece of the outside world." There could be no more complete statement of "the materialistic or mechanical theory of the origin of living tissues" than this sentence:

"So far from finding in organic bodies a vital force sufficient for itself, we can far better look upon them as only those places in space at which the matter, the forces, and the motion of the general course of nature cross each other in such happy proportions, that changing masses unite themselves for a time to a quickly perishing form, and their reciprocal actions run through a melodiously complete process of development and dissolution" ('Microcosmus,' vol. i., p. 155).

I have written this to show that Lotze is unfortunate in being patronized by Mr. Cook, but more especially to urge some student to make public an account of the work of the great German philosopher. J. M. CATTELL.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, BALTIMORE, MD., March 7, 1883.

Notes.

THE Messrs. Harper make a novel and well-considered offer to "Young American Artists," to the following effect: They will award three thousand dollars to the successful competitor in a contest for the best original drawing to illustrate Alfred Domett's "Christmas Hymn" (1837), provided (1) that he is an American artist not over twenty-five years of age; and (2) that he will use the prize "for the prosecution of art-study in one or more of the best American schools, including also a sojourn abroad of at least six months for the study of the old masters." The drawing must be presented anonymously not later than August 1, 1883, and must be suitable for publication in *Harper's Magazine*, for which it will be engraved. The judges will be Messrs. R. Swain Gifford, F. D. Millet, and Charles Parsons. All necessary particulars, and a copy of the hymn, can be obtained of Harper & Brothers, Franklin Square. There seems to be no discrimination as to sex.

'My Trivial Life and Misfortunes,' by "A Plain Woman," whose name is not known even to her publishers, will be issued in this country by G. P. Putnam's Sons simultaneously with the Edinburgh edition of the Messrs. Blackwood.

A volume of lectures, essays, and sermons by the late Rev. Samuel Johnson, author of 'Oriental Religions,' with a steel portrait and a memoir of Mr. Johnson, by the Rev. Samuel Longfellow, will shortly be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish immediately Dr. Morgan Dix's recent 'Lectures on the Calling of a Christian Woman, and her Training to Fulfil It.' They have also in press, for immediate publication, a wholly new and exhaustive edition of the 'Poetical Works of William Cullen Bryant,' containing a hundred or more never before collected or published, including some thirty hymns, and a companion piece to "Sella" and "The Little People of the Snow." Copious notes by Mr. Parke Godwin give various changes in the more important poems, an account of their origin, and other interesting information. The work will be issued in two large handsome volumes, uniform in style with Mr. Godwin's 'Biography of Bryant.'

D. Binswanger & Co., Baltimore, have nearly ready 'The Sciences among the Jews before and during the Middle Ages,' from the German of Dr. M. J. Schleiden, the eminent botanist.

Mr. Spofford's 'American Almanac' for the current year has appeared (American News Co.), and more need not be said to any one who knows the value of this standard work. Its being up to date is shown by the blank left where the late Marshall Jewell's name has heretofore stood in the list of the Republican National Committee. Next year we may expect the Civil-Service Commission to make its début in this Almanac.

A translation of Alphonse Daudet's 'L'Évangéliste' has already been brought out by T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia.

Joel A. Miner, Ann Arbor, Mich., sends us an 'Index Rerum' and a 'Medical Index,' handsomely got up and adapted to methodical or unmethodical use. The latter work is especially recommended by the publisher to homœopathic students or practitioners. The former, in the size before us, has a double alphabetic arrangement.

In the Parchment series of D. Appleton & Co. has appeared Keble's 'Christian Year,' with rubricated rules, initials, seasons, etc., and an etched portrait of the poet, after Richmond's drawing.

'Street's Indian and Colonial Mercantile Directory,' for 1882-3 (New York: S. M. Pettengill & Co.) is primarily compiled for British trade; but a considerable part, like Canada, the British West Indies, Panama, South America, China, and Japan, has a direct interest for our own merchants. Each country is statistically described, in all the particulars with which commerce is concerned—such as administration, steam communication, telegraph, banks, etc.—and under the principal towns are given classified lists of professions and trades; so that it is perfectly easy to obtain information or open business connections direct. Part II. consists of alphabetical but unclassified lists of shipping merchants, manufacturers, etc., in London, Bradford, Sheffield, Glasgow, Belfast, and other great industrial centres of the United Kingdom. A number of excellent maps accompany the volume, which is introduced by tables of weight, coinage, etc. The present, by the way, is the ninth issue of this Directory, of which the accuracy is guaranteed by the extensive colonial dealings of the Messrs. Street.

From J. W. Bouton we have Part 13 of Racinet's 'Costume Historique,' which, on account of the editor's illness, MM. Firmin-Didot have had to publish without the text. But this will be given in connection with Part 14, when there will be only six more to complete the work. The beautifully colored plates of Part 13 represent, in general, European costumes of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the native costumes of India, Africa, Oceania, and, in particular, those of Sweden, which are very diversified and interesting. Besides these there is a grouping of antique *chaussure*, and other plates show a Spanish and a Turkish interior, and European furniture from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century. Ethnologically, these figures are of unequal value; it is so much easier to counterfeit clothes than physiognomies.

In Parts 51-55 of 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon' (New York: L. W. Schmidt) the letter C is well disposed of, and American names of persons and places now begin to appear somewhat more plentifully. The most notable omission is that of De Witt Clinton, who was a "bigger man" than, say, Thomas Corwin, and did more for his country with his canal than Henry Clay with his compromises. Can it be true, by the way, of any protectionist, that, as is said here of Clay, "he always addressed himself to the better impulses of the masses"? We should also have liked Gen. William Clarke remembered, if only incidentally as the namesake of Clarke's Fork, which is admitted. Roscoe Conkling might better have shared the oblivion of governor and explorer than to be set down as having lifted President Arthur out of obscurity and made him his tool, and controlled his administration for the degradation of American politics. The engravings for these issues are less numerous than common; but there is an excellent map of the northern and western half of South America.

We have received another volume of the Clarendon Press Series, one of those neat and convenient classical text-books of which we have several times spoken approvingly. The present volume consists of extracts from twenty-two dialogues of Plato, with a somewhat extended preface, a general introduction giving an interesting account of the manuscripts of Plato, and grammatical, exegetical, and critical notes. The Greek text occupies 223 pages of about the same size as those of the Teubner edition, but much more handsomely printed. The selection of the extracts was made under the advice and with the approval of the Rev. B. Jowett, perhaps the first of living English Platonists. The preface, explaining the object of the work, giving an outline of the character and labors of Socrates, and touching upon some of the more important points of the Platonic philosophy, is also from Mr. Jowett. The introductions and notes are entirely the work of Mr. John Purves, Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford, of which Mr. Jowett is Master. These introductions and notes are written with good judgment and good taste. The notes are free from a tantalizing fault to which the *Nation* has several times called attention—viz.: referring to passages not contained in the text of the book, but which it is necessary to consult in order to give the note any value. In all such cases Mr. Purves quotes the passage referred to, so that with a grammar and dictionary, which, of course, are always at hand, the student can go through the book without being obliged first to provide himself with a considerable library. We ought, perhaps, to remark that Mr. Jowett insists very earnestly that the book is not intended as an introduction to the Platonic philosophy. Its object is wholly literary. All metaphysical considerations have been, as far as possible, excluded. The extracts have been selected and the notes constructed solely with reference to the pleasure and profit of young men who are studying Greek, without regard to metaphysicians, whether incipient or mature.

L. Prang & Co. send us an assortment of their Easter cards in a great diversity of styles, some equally well adapted, with a change of legend, for Christmas or New Year's.

Not content with republishing old books with new titles, one publisher has gone further and issued a book with the first part so altered that a comparison of the beginning of the books would lead one to suppose they were different. The first three pages of the old issue have been compressed into one in the new issue, but from the second line of the second page of the new issue the books are printed from the same plates. The book is Mrs. Annie Edwards's 'The Ordeal for Wives,' published in 1873, and now issued as No. 8 of a "New Series" with the title 'Delicate Ground.'

Mr. Foster's February *Monthly Reference Lists* (New York: F. Leypoldt) has to do with "Indian Tribes in the United States" and "Gladstone," two sufficiently distinct topics for the bibliographer. We feel moved to remark again on the improvement in this useful serial which the publication of Poole's Index has made possible. The *Reference Lists*, in fact, is a partial filter and popularizer for the larger work. As we write, there is passing under the hammer in this city one of the notable private libraries of Providence, as to which Mr. Horatio Rogers, in his account of these libraries, said some years ago that there was much speculation about its ultimate destination. He intimated that it might be dedicated to public use in the city in which it was gathered; and we regret the circumstances, whatever they are, which have prevented its being added to the scanty collection which Mr. Foster presides over with so much intelligence and so great advantage to his fellow-citizens, and to all who profit by his *Reference Lists*.

A substantial "Reference List" for English fiction and juveniles in the Peoria (Ill.) Public Library has reached our table, the library being but two years old. This is, in other words, a special catalogue reduced to its lowest terms, most titles occupying but a single line; under authors' names their respective works are briefly grouped.

In the *Athenæum* for February 24, Mr. John W. Hales recalls these lines from Spenser's "Prosopopoia"—

> "Among the rest a good old woman was,
> Hight Mother Hubberd, who did farre surpas
> The rest in honest mirth that seem'd her well"—

and would fain connect her with the Old Mother Hubbard of the nursery song. 'Father Hubbard's Tales' turns up, he says, in 1604; but he has no faith in the reality of this personage. He suggests a connection between Mother Hubbard and St. Hubert, the patron saint of dogs.

In the February *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton) Mr. Hamerton continues his fascinating papers on Paris, in which it is easy to foresee the making of a book. His archæological details concerning early Lutetia should greatly stimulate the curiosity of the modern tourist in Paris. The illustrations to these papers are highly interesting.

It seems that our novelists and historians are not alone in pleasing the fastidious Frenchman. Among the recent issues of Parisian publishers is 'Le Masque arraché, par de Witt (*sic*) Talmage, abrégé d'après l'anglais,' in two volumes, now in its second edition.

M. Jouaust announces a new "Bibliothèque artistique moderne," to contain the principal works of the chief modern authors, adorned with etchings by eminent artists. The *théâtre* of Alfred de Musset, illustrated by M. Louis Leloir, will be followed by Stendhal's 'Chartreuse de Parme,' the 'Contes' of Gautier and M. Daudet, and M. About's 'Roi des Montagnes.'

—In the last number of the *American Model Printer* a writer urges the getting-up of an American Exhibition of Printing in the broadest sense of the term; and we believe that the idea has been regarded favorably in Boston, which is already provided with fine permanent exhibition buildings. We doubt if it is fully realized, even by the reflecting, how little the diffusion of knowledge by the cheap press has served to popularize the details of the art of

printing, which is to vast numbers of intelligent people almost a black art, perhaps little better comprehended than the mode of producing a photograph. That the public would readily learn what it is now ignorant of, cannot be doubted, nor that an exhibition such as is proposed would in some of its branches be as beautiful as it would be instructive. In short, under the right auspices, the enterprise might be made both successful and memorable.

—The family of the late Thomas Crane, of this city, have consecrated his memory in the place of his nativity (Quincy, Mass.), by erecting a library building in truly elegant style, and making it over to the town for the free use of the public in perpetuity. The proceedings at the dedication of this Crane Memorial Hall have been recorded in a handsome pamphlet, illustrated with numerous photographs. There seems an anachronism in performances begun by masonic ceremonies and ending with an address by a grandson of John Quincy Adams, but Mr. C. F. Adams, jr.'s, discourse in the Stone Church had only a programme connection with what took place "at the other end of the avenue," as Thaddeus Stevens used to say. It is a model of fitness for the subject and the occasion, tracing the ancestry and career of Mr. Crane and the development of his character, with a true historical restoration of the Quincy of his boyhood, and some philosophizing on the New England spirit, at home and on its migrations. Mr. Adams's picture of New England intemperance before the great reformation begun in 1826 is not overdrawn; but is it quite "safe to say" that "of those who went out from New England to seek their fortunes, . . . rum ruined, body and soul, the vast majority"? So terrible a winnowing for the survival of the fittest makes the New England successes in colonizing the West seem almost miraculous, and would compel us to believe that the Yankee's accession to any community already started and developing was a calamity that must have become proverbial. Was not rather the toper and the predestined victim of the alcohol habit the stay-at-home; and were not moderation, self-control, and the enterprise of the pioneer more naturally found together? However, our chief reflection on laying down this address has been that foundations like this library—and they are multiplying daily—are paving the way for a reflux from the cities, by furnishing centres of culture and humanity, capable ere long of bringing every part of the rural districts within their beneficent influence. Why, for example, had one rather live in Boston than in Old Braintree, which, "now divided into four separate towns"—Quincy being one—reckons "four public libraries, three seminary endowments, and a church which preserve the memories of their founders," with fresh air and country sights thrown in?

—The *American Bookseller* urges the New York Free Library upon the consideration of benevolent millionaires. It must be very disagreeable to be a New York millionaire, and to be told that one "ought" to give a large slice of one's fortune to such objects, and that all that one's fellows have done as yet is but "throwing a bone to a hungry dog." However, it does not appear to trouble the millionaires. A year ago the *Critic*, if we remember right, urged Mr. Vanderbilt to give a million or so to this library. Possibly he does not see the *Critic*, as it is not a financial journal. At any rate, the funds are still less than a million, and it has taken five years for the number of books to have "swollen," as the *Bookseller* puts it, "to some five thousand volumes." Considering that this is less than half what Cincinnati, or Chicago, or Harvard College adds every year to libraries already large; that it is less than Cleveland or Milwaukee or Indianapolis adds in a single year, and looking at the relative size of these cities and New York, "swollen" is not exactly the word we should choose: it lacks local color. Yet with this miserably small stock in trade our library has satisfied seventy-two thousand calls for books in twelve months—a turnover, as the English say, of fifteen. With such good work as that, we have no fears for its ultimate success, but it must be confessed that prosperity is very slow in coming.

—The seventh volume of the Public Health Association Reports (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) contains among its many papers relating to sanitary affairs three upon the curious and important subject of malaria. Of these, two describe the malarious invasion of New England. This means the recent and unusual manifestation of what medical men term marsh miasm. Malaria has come to represent, in current city phrase, a complex influence—resulting in whole or in part from sewer emanations, inadequate ventilation, and varied dissipations besides marsh miasm proper. As "what man calls lassitude the fox calls laziness," so the malaria of the fashionable drawing-room is often a domino for artificial evils, not the outcome of ordinary natural causes. The nature of the true malarial poison is still a secret—both as to its entity and its singular property of periodical expression. The weight of testimony points to its necessary association with vegetable decay in the presence of moisture, within a certain range of temperature—although there are a few apparent exceptions. But nothing has been demonstrated, and one of the ill effects of the strangulation by Congress of the National Board of Health is the suspension of a careful investigation into the essential nature of this evil agent that was in progress. The representations here are that in a territory where there is no record of its previous appearance recently, this form of disease has prevailed, gradually extending its area, during the last ten or fifteen years. It is unsafe to express opinions as to facts in the absence of personal investigation, especially in opposition to the views of those who have studied them at home. The "opinion that local causes are insufficient to account for its causation, that is, for its first appearance," is one that cannot be positively contradicted by a stranger, although it is in apparent opposition to common experience. One observer has not been able "to find any cause, or set of causes, that uniformly produce malaria, or any unsanitary conditions generally supposed to be productive of it that do not exist in other parts of [Connecticut] where no malaria has ever appeared." That is, to say the least, an astonishing state of affairs, and the group of questions it raises should be an interesting, because difficult and important, parcel of nuts for State sanitarians to crack. As the writer from Massachusetts remarks, the manufacturing interest, by virtue of its dependence upon mill-dams and ponds, is an important complication in the way of radical reform.

—Dr. Garnett, in the third paper, writing upon the Potomac marshes, holds that there is no marsh malaria as at present understood, and that the phenomena attributed to it result primarily from prolonged insolation, magnified by atmospheric humidity, affecting the organic nerve. Six or eight years ago an hypothesis was suggested that this poison was an imponderable force, generated by organic decomposition acting upon the sympathetic system. It is quite possible that malaria may be a force rather than a microscopic or otherwise visible body; but these subtler speculations as to its essence do not receive general favor. It seems tolerably certain that moisture is in some way connected with its creation, and that well-drained lands as a rule, other things being equal, are healthier than those that are not. It is a standing reproach to science that so little is certainly known about this cause, and to governments generally that such conditions as at least are believed to accompany its manifestations are tolerated in civilized communities. Among the other papers in this volume are several upon the diseases of domestic animals, especially as affecting the health of man. One is a report, continued from the previous year, by Dr. J. R. Smith, of the Army, upon the diseases of Texas cattle. This is still incomplete, but it points to the conclusion that Texas cattle are, as a rule, healthy in their native prairies, and that healthy herds do not, by their mere presence, communicate disease to herds in other localities with which they may mingle. Several observers on trichinæ concur in finding large areas of country exempt; that the parasite is associated with the food-supply of the hog, and that all pork should be properly inspected before sale, which can easily be done. This inspection, as Dr. Hunt justly observes, should be extended to all meat intended to be eaten. And there are some reasons for supposing that oleomargarine, of which we hear suspiciously little by its proper name, rendered at 120°, may shelter a supply of undesirable bacilli for consumption alive.

—"Adieu, canaux, canards, canailles," wrote Voltaire, on leaving Holland in a pet. If some of the inhabitants of the Hague had their way, M. Tallichet informs us in the *Bibliothèque Universelle*, the world might say, "Adieu, canaux," in regard at least to that part of Holland. The canals beautify the streets and cool the air, and give life to the rows of trees along their banks, whose leaves absorb the exhalations from the almost stagnant waters. But because the waters are so slow-moving—the rain and a little water pumped into them by the city furnishing the only current—and because they are made the drains of the city, they smell no better than the gutters of Philadelphia. Now, either the modern nose has become more sensitive, or the increase of population has brought the injection of sewage beyond the point at which the air over the canals and the leaves of the trees can oxydize it. Moreover, certain of the most offensive canals have been filled up, leaving, of course, less oxydizing surface to do a continually growing work. The inevitable result of such a course must be that all the canals will be filled in time and covered sewers substituted. M. Tallichet, however, opposes this. He would prefer the adoption of the Liernur system, which is in full and successful operation, at Leyden and Dort, and, after long opposition, has gained a foothold at Amsterdam. This system in brief has two peculiarities: first, that the surface water of the streets and the washing water of houses are removed in one set of pipes, and all fæcal matters in a separate set; and secondly, that fæcal matter is removed daily from the receptacles in which it accumulates, not as with us by water under a slight and ineffectual gravity pressure, but by air forced so powerfully by a pneumatic pump that it cleans out thoroughly the receptacles and pipes and never allows them to foul. The fæcal matter is not allowed to ferment and become dangerous, but, after a slight chemical treatment, is desiccated and reduced to a brown powder as harmless as guano and more fertilizing. It is not claimed that the sale of the products pays for the cost of manufacture, but there is no loss if public health is regarded as one of the products.

—In other respects, the Hague meets with praise from M. Tallichet. The gas is excellent, made from Australian coal, which is very dear,

but very rich in gas. The water is good. Like the riches of the country it comes from the sea. On the dunes pits are dug below the sea-level; the water percolates through the sand, leaving its salt behind it. It is pumped into large tanks, frequently cleaned, where it purifies itself by depositing any earthy matter which it may still have in solution. It is then pumped into a tower to give it sufficient head to reach the upper stories of the houses. It is said to be better than that of Amsterdam, obtained in the same way, probably because the sands are better. The Hague has grown rich of late, though it has neither manufactures nor commerce, and new suburbs of well-paved streets, with many detached houses and pleasant gardens, are extending out to Scheveningen. But what most excites M. Tallichet's enthusiasm is the wood on the east of the city—a real wood, not planted by man, but a relic of the original forest which once covered the whole of Holland. It owes its preservation, no doubt, to the royal palace which it contains. Would that there were a few royal palaces in this country! It is, by the way, not at first sight evident why there should be any Hague at all. It was originally only a princely hunting-box. It has no natural beauties except its forest. Whatever makes it attractive is the work of man. Why should man have expended labor upon it? He was not drawn there by commerce or manufactures. What was the attraction? The climate, says M. Tallichet. A porous soil absorbs the moisture; the warm waters of the Gulf Stream soften the winter; if the sea breezes are too boisterous, the dunes and their fringe of trees are a protection. Both Amsterdam and Antwerp, though they are ports, are in the interior, and do not get the full freshness of the sea air. The traveller who comes from either of them to the Hague feels exhilarated, as if he had climbed a mountain. This is just the place for the rich merchant who has made his fortune in the East Indies to retire to, and the absence of the bustle and worry and dirt and ugliness of business increases its attractions. The bathing, too, at the neighboring village of Scheveningen is unsurpassed in Europe: an immense beach of firm fine sand, no piers, no shipping, no drainage; room enough for the sexes to bathe apart, so that they can enjoy themselves with a minimum of clothing. It is to be hoped that it will not all be spoiled by the construction of an artificial port at Scheveningen and a canal thence to Rotterdam; as if there were not ports enough in Holland.

— Ernst Dohm, one of the most distinguished of German journalists, died in Berlin early in February, shortly before completing his sixty-fourth year. For thirty-four years he was the editor-in-chief of the *Kladderadatsch*, the German *Punch*, which was one of the products of the events of 1848, and has ever since maintained its leading position, its only rival in popularity being the *Fliegende Blätter*, which, however, eschews politics, the principal field of the *Kladderadatsch*. The training of a theologian is not generally supposed to favor sarcastic tendencies, but Dohm successfully accomplished the metamorphosis from a divinity student to a professional satirist in prose and verse. According to Paul Lindau, he was one of the first who recognized the importance of Bismarck at a time when professors of history and civil polity abused him as a "political dilettante." For this early championship the *Kladderadatsch* was ill requited by the later Chancellor, whose silly sensitiveness repeatedly caused him to inflict fines on the editor for an innocent little joke about him. There was one man, however, at whose expense Dohm would not allow any sort of joke to be inserted in his paper; and that man was Richard Wagner, of whom he was an enthusiastic admirer, although his translations of the librettos of "La Belle Hélène" and "La Fille de Mme. Angot"—excellent in their way—may seem to militate against this idea. Lindau says that his translation of Lafontaine's fables must be ranked with the masterpieces of Schlegel, Tieck, and Kleist. Of his own poetry but one collection has been reprinted, under the title of 'Ungereimte Wochenkroniken,' in which he has incorporated the political and social events of each week in the most marvellously flowing and easy lines, considering the heterogeneity of his material. In Berlin he was one of the social leaders, and nowhere could a more interesting company be found than at his house on the famous "Monday evenings." He leaves a wife and four daughters.

—Louise Michel glories in the name of *Pétroleuse*. Her friend, Élisée Reclus, can now boast of a grander epithet. Their common friend, Prince Krapotkin, has bestowed on him, out of prison, the awe-inspiring appellation *Dynamitophil*. And the French "geographer and dynamitophil," thus addressed in a letter by his Russian admirer, makes an appeal to the public for contributions of scientific books to the prison library at Lyons, "that the world may not be deprived of the fruits of the imprisoned Nihilist's active brain." A similar request was addressed many years ago by Russian scientists to the Government of the Czar in favor of the same brain, then as now kept in prison for plotting the overthrow of the state and the inauguration of general anarchy. The fact is stated in "Stepniak's" 'Russia Sotteranea' (Milan, 1882), which adds that Krapotkin was, in consequence of the petition, allowed to continue, in the Fortress of Peter and Paul, the geological studies which he had pursued in Siberia, and which he subsequently utilized "come collaboratore del signor Élisée Reclus." Thus the two scholars have long been united by the double bond of geologiophilism and anarchiophilism. The 'Russia Sotteranea' has a string of interesting remarks on the Russian conspirator, in the light of which he appears much less redoubtable as a worker for the destruction of the present order of things in the universe than the official organs of the French Republic have deemed him to be. He is depicted as an ardent, eloquent, and impassioned agitator, but as too frank and truth-loving, too exclusive and rigid in his theoretical convictions, too uncompromising in their application, to be "the chief or even the organizer of a party whose only means of action is conspiracy." "In the revolutionary struggle, conspiracy is what guerilla warfare is in a military contest. . . . *His* natural element is the grand war."

—There was a time when German and English concert societies devoted most of their energies to the works of Mendelssohn. In England, it is true, Handel was always held in still higher esteem, but Mendelssohn exercised such an immense influence that the compositions of most English musicians were little more than echoes of his melodies and harmonies. Such a one-sided hero-worship was sure to be followed by a reaction, and there has been accordingly a temporary abatement of the excitement over his works. But there is so much that is charming and savoring of true genius in them that this reaction could not last long either. How great an interest is still felt in his oratorios in this country was shown on the 7th inst., when a very large audience collected to hear "Elijah." The Oratorio Society was at its best, and gave a really magnificent performance of the work. The chorus was large, certain in rhythm and intonation, careful in shading, and everybody sang with so much zest and enthusiasm that the audience could not but express their enjoyment in frequent outbursts of applause. The last chorus of the first part was the best choral singing heard in this city since the Handel night at the May music festival. The orchestra, which has an easier but less attractive and important part to play than in more modern works of its class, was also quite satisfactory. Almost unlimited praise can be given to the soloists. Miss Winant rarely fails to give complete satisfaction, and she was in one of her best moods. Moreover, Mme. Gabriella Boëma displayed a richness of timbre, a dramatic power, and an impressive delivery which were not so noticeable on the occasion of her previous appearances in this city. Mr. Max Heinrich, too, astonished his greatest admirers, whose expectations were not small to begin with. The absolute purity of intonation in the unaccompanied concerted pieces was a remarkable phenomenon, grateful to the ear. Dr. Damrosch wisely omitted several numbers, especially in the last part. Even thus the performance lasted almost three hours. The oratorio is a mistaken form of art in any case, and anything above two hours becomes a bore, however well it may be executed. The music-drama is the art work of the future—in Germany already of the present.

—Richard Wagner was, during the last ten years of his life, an honorary member of the New York Philharmonic Society. This fact gave especial significance to the memorial concert which took place at the Academy of Music on Saturday evening. All the regular habitués of the Philharmonic concerts attended as a matter of course; and besides these there were so many occasional visitors that the hall was crowded as perhaps at no previous concert. The programme was admirably adapted for the occasion; and Mr. Thomas may regard as a compliment to his good taste the announcement, just received, that at the Wagner Memorial Concert given by the Vienna Philharmonic Society, the same pieces were played, with one exception. In both cities Beethoven's "Eroica" was given, besides Wagner's "Faust Ouverture" and "Siegfried's Tod," from "Die Götterdämmerung." The fourth piece in Vienna was a composition by Bach, while Mr. Thomas more appropriately chose *Wotan's* touching farewell scene from "Die Walküre," the vocal part being allotted to Mr. Remmertz. Wagner himself was so fond of the "Eroica," or Third Symphony, with which Beethoven "first entered his own peculiar sphere," that he wrote a short analysis of it, in which he cautions the hearer against expecting anything having reference to a military hero. Man himself, with all his aspirations and passions, is the "hero" to whom this music relates. A Viennese critic aptly suggested, many years ago, that "pathetic" would be a more apt title for this symphony than "heroic," as its prevailing tint is one of pathetic tenderness and resignation. All this pathetic tenderness, with the alternating grandeur, was revealed in a magic light by the marvellous playing of the one hundred and twenty chosen musicians under Mr. Thomas's sympathetic direction. The same was true of the Wagner selections, which perhaps should have constituted the second instead of the first part of the programme. The arrangement adopted, however, allowed the two famous funeral marches to be separated by only one other movement. It is said that Wagner used to refer to a grand funeral march which he had composed expressly for his own obsequies, but which he was unwilling to rehearse for fear of hurting his wife's feelings. It is to be hoped that this is not a mere rumor, and that the suddenness of

his death alone prevented him from giving this piece to the world last month. In any case, it can hardly be a more sublime work than the symphony which accompanies the bearing of *Siegfried's* body across the moonlit hill, and which embodies all the principal motives of that hero's life, just as a panorama of his existence is said to pass through a drowning man's mind. As regards the first piece on the programme, "Eine Faust Ouverture," it may be news to many that Wagner intended it originally as the first movement of a symphony which was never finished. It was written in Paris at a very early period of his life, before the second act even of "Rienzi" had been composed, and before he had become fully conscious that the dramatic stage was to be his exclusive sphere. It is somewhat vague in its ideas, but already contains some of those instrumental devices which were developed into such unprecedented orchestral splendors in his music-dramas.

—Gounod's "Faust" was given at the Academy of Music on Monday evening, before a vast audience and with an uncommonly strong cast. Signor Ravelli's voice was very fresh and resonant, and if his stature and histrionic gifts had been of the same excellence, his *Faust* would have been an altogether satisfactory performance. Signor Galassi gave due prominence to the few good points in the rôle of *Valentine*, while M. Durat, often vainly, struggled with the important rôle of *Mephisto*. In the hands of Mme. Scalchi, whose position as a New York favorite is now assured, *Siebel* became quite a prominent figure in the plot and music. This excellent singer has already received so much praise on previous occasions that iteration is not necessary; but an occasional slight imperfection in phrasing must not be passed over: she does not always give a dotted note or a pause its precise value, and sometimes sings a little too independently of the orchestra, although the deviation is so inconsiderable that few will notice it. Mme. Albani was the *Marguerite*, and it goes without saying that she is much better in this part than Mme. Patti. She endeavors, in attire, bearing, and facial expression, to reproduce the simple, naïve, unhappy maiden of Goethe's poem, and there are many beautiful touches in her impersonation, while her voice is equally good in passages that require agility and in those that call for emotional expression. Like Mme. Scalchi, she was warmly applauded, especially after the Jewel Song. It was a matter of painful surprise that she should have consented to transfer the impressive and weird church scene to the street instead of having it inside the church, where it belongs. In this way the finest scene in the opera is completely ruined, for nothing could be more absurd than the situation as given here, with the young girl unbosoming her grief in the middle of the street, and a scarlet clown frisking about her and singing into her ears, as a substitute for the ghostly, invisible voice of her own conscience. "Faust," as written by Gounod, and played all the world over, has never given offence to the religious people of France and Germany, and we do not believe that the popular sentiment in this country is in favor of such vandalism in art.

BLUNT'S REFORMATION OF THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND.

The Reformation of the Church of England. By J. H. Blunt. Vol. ii. (1547–1662). E. & J. B. Young & Co.

AFTER some years of delay the second and final volume of Mr. Blunt's 'History of the English Reformation' makes its appearance. It furnishes a very good example of diligent and conscientious scholarship, guided and influenced throughout by a strong partisan tendency. Mr. Blunt is an Anglican through and through. Every form of foreign influence upon the fortunes of the English Church is hateful in his eyes. For him the episcopal succession is a sacred thing, only to be approached with bated breath and with the use of hallowed technicalities. There is no crisis in his narrative of so great historical moment as that caused by the resignation of bishops at the death of Queen Mary; and the accident of nominations having been made in time to prevent a break in the episcopal succession rises to the dignity of a Providential interposition.

It will be easily believed, then, that, in spite of his Anglicanism, there is a soft spot in Mr. Blunt's heart for all leanings toward Rome. The Papal supremacy was an atrocious doctrine, to be sure, but justifiable in the eyes of its supporters by a long tradition and as a practical working force for many generations past. As one reads the narrative of this phase of the Reformation, the assertion of the Royal as against the Papal supremacy, one cannot help praising the author's calm, judicial point of view. We find here no passion or prejudice. Even the most violent leaders of the Marian faction get a full, rather over-full, measure of consideration. "Bloody Bonner" himself appears, upon really sound documentary evidence, so far as this goes, as a much-maligned and harshly-judged person, quite a model of Christian benevolence, in fact. He did all he could to save the accused from the last extremity of punishment, and acted only as his position of diocesan bishop compelled him to act. Such devotion to pure historic truth in opposition to received but ill-founded tradition can only excite our admiration.

But it is singular to observe how utterly this tone changes the moment our Anglican author has to deal with foes of another kind. Papal supremacy was effectually disposed of, but English (or, as Mr. Blunt would insist, Genevan) Puritanism began to raise its head and threaten the Church as founded upon episcopal succession. In these enemies was wanting all which had made the former opposition respectable. They had no tradition, had played no commanding part in the world's history; they were, on the contrary, supporters of irreverence for all consecrated things excepting the Bible, and had for their "spiritual lineage" only a line of sectaries, heretics, followers of strange doctrine, who had been a thorn in the side of the orthodox church for at least five centuries. Kathari, Patarini, Waldenses, Albigenses, Bulgares, Poplicani, and a host of other opprobious names, marked, at least to Anglican minds, the "spiritual ancestry" of the men who under Elizabeth began to attack the whole episcopal system. And here our author's judicial fairness quite deserts him. His pages fairly bristle with invective. Whatever was true and weighty in the Puritan theories escapes his notice. No one can deny the rudeness and violence of these early Gospellers. It is plain that their revolt was inspired by crude and material conceptions, the result of the misdirected and overstrained logic of Geneva; but with all and under all this was a great promise of liberty and light. The right of private judgment, with all its imposing consequences, lay in germ within these early protests. But all that is simply an abomination to Mr. Blunt. His vision is bounded by the æsthetic considerations of damage to altar-screens, images, and what not, which marked the Puritan spirit. His analysis of the Puritan doctrine is, like all his writing, clear and accurate. One could hardly ask for a better definition of Puritanism, in its anti-sacramental character, than is given here in a couple of pages; yet we think it would be a hard task for Mr. Blunt to prove that "these anti-sacramental principles . . . were originally derived from the Manichæan sects which aggregated so mysteriously in Southern Europe in the Middle Ages." The opposition to the Eucharistic Sacrifice (the capitals are his) seems to him "the most painful characteristic" of the Puritan movement. We submit that "pain" is not a proper sensation for an historian of religious opinions. Indeed, Mr. Blunt's feelings make the reading of these chapters somewhat "painful" for the reader. He almost weeps over the destruction of altars, finding no excuse for it, as he had done for the burning of Protestants, in the "spirit of the times." His state of mind may be conceived from the phrase—"the worship of the congregation, which the Puritans succeeded in so generally substituting for the worship of God in English churches." In other words, the great moral effort of English Puritanism—an effort whose need Mr. Blunt recognizes—is as nothing to him in comparison with the atrocious doctrine of the right of the congregation to elect its own clergyman with reference solely to his ability and worthiness to perform the ministerial functions.

When dealing with the question of Papal supremacy, it was not a matter to stir Mr. Blunt very deeply that England was overrun with a mass of foreigners, in the pay of a great foreign power, in a combined effort to overthrow the independence of the English Church. But now, when it is a question of Puritanism, it becomes a frightful evil that foreign Presbyterians should be striving, with purely spiritual means, to win Englishmen to their ways of thinking. This, then, is the almost fatal limitation of the book. It is High Church throughout, going as far as its English character will permit on the way to Rome. But for this limitation, it would have been a very valuable contribution to knowledge. The style is beautifully clear and simple, the arrangement judicious, the power of telling statement decidedly marked. Bearing in mind the partisan leaning of the author, one might safely make use of large parts of his book without fear of receiving a too-distorted picture of the time. Especially noteworthy is the power of subordinating detail to main effects. An author who can dismiss in a foot-note so tempting a subject for digression as the execution of Lady Jane Gray, is capable of very much in the way of reserve. The political events of the time are touched upon very lightly; only enough mention of them is made to connect them fairly with the movement of events in the Church. In so far as this is possible, the changes of Church policy are illustrated by original documents. Even the partisanship is so well concealed in some portions that one would not be troubled by it.

THE SITE OF PARADISE.

Wo lag das Paradies? Eine biblisch-assyriologische Studie. Mit zahlreichen assyriologischen Beiträgen zur biblischen Länder- und Völkerkunde und einer Karte Babyloniens. Von Dr. Friedrich Delitzsch, Professor der Assyriologie an der Universität Leipzig. Leipzig. 1881.

WHERE lay Adam and Eve's Paradise? or, Where is the Garden of Eden? was during former ages a question of profound religious curiosity. Where did the legends of the Hebrews place the first abode of man? is in our days still a question of considerable interest among Biblical critics. To the one and the other most diverse answers have been rendered by scholars. The difficulty consists in identifying two of the four streams (or "rivers") into which, according to the story of Genesis (ii. 8–14), was parted the

stream that came out of Eden to water the garden. There is no dispute concerning the two named last: they are the Tigris (in Hebrew, Hiddekel) and Euphrates; but where is the Pison, which compasses the whole land of Havilah, where excellent gold is found, and also bdellium and the *shōham*-stone? And where is the Gihon, which compasses the whole land of Cush? Our author examines one after another the solutions propounded by the various commentators, and states his own, with an array of learning which, in the old field of Biblical inquiry, shows him a worthy disciple of his father, Franz Delitzsch, and in the new domain of Assyriology a compeer of Oppert, Schrader, and other famous students. It is needless to follow him here in his survey, in which he has been preceded by so many expounders of Genesis, or in his refutations, which are not novel either; but we may be allowed, for the sake of such of our readers as are not familiar with this curious chapter of laborious exegesis and fanciful speculation, to convey an idea of the maze of conflicting opinions by an abridged statement of a recent German commentator:

"The exegetical views respecting the passage divide themselves into the historical, the allegorical, and the mythical. The historical views, again, fall into two classes: those that maintain the possibility of yet determining the region of Paradise, and such as suppose the configuration of the earth to have been so changed by the flood that the place of union of the four rivers cannot now be pointed out. . . . Calvin, Huetius, Bochart, and others:—Paradise lay in the district in which the Euphrates and Tigris unite; the Pison and the Gihon are the two principal mouths of the Shat-al-Arab. . . . Hopkinson:—Paradise was the region of Babylon; the two canals of the Euphrates form half the number of the four rivers. . . . Harduin:—In Galilee. . . . Hasse:—Paradise lay in East Prussia. . . . Clericus and others:—Paradise lay in Syria. . . . The mythico-theological, or strictly mythological, view makes it the story of the four world-rivers that come from the hills of heaven and wander over the earth. . . . According to the historical view of Reland and Calmet, Pison denotes the Phasis, which rises in the Moschian mountains, is connected with the gold-land of Colchis so famed in antiquity (Colchis = Havilah), and flows into the Black Sea; Gihon is the Aras, or Araxes, which likewise rises in Armenia, and flows into the Caspian Sea; Cush is the land of the Cossæans, which Strabo and Diodorus place in the neighborhood of Media and the Caspian Sea. According to this, Armenia would be the territory of the ancient Paradise. . . . Finally, according to [Franz] Delitzsch, the Pison must refer to the Indus, and its river territory to India, while the Gihon is the Nile."

To complete the picture, let us add that the first stream, Pison, has been identified not only with the Phasis and the Indus, but also with the Nile, the Blue Nile, the Ganges, the Hyphasis, the Hydaspes, the Araxes, the Chrysorrhoas, the Besynga of Further India, the Danube, etc.; and that among the various identifications of the Gihon there is also this, *Gihon = Oceanus*—linguistically thus explained by the late Tayler Lewis: ὁ Γι-ὸν—ὁ Γεων—ὁ Κεων—ὁ Κεαν—Ω-κεαν-ος, or, the Gihon, the Kehan, the Kean, the Ocean-river. Prof. Friedrich Delitzsch's critical speculations—which, as to the main point, are a restatement, with important modifications, of the old view of J. Hopkinson, in his *Descriptio Paradisi* (1594)—carry us back to the land and language of Babylonia. Everything in the earliest history of mankind, as told in the first chapters of Genesis, points toward that country. Noah's ark was uplifted on the first day of the deluge: the land where it was built must have been a lowland, argues our author. No allusion is made to vast expanses traversed by the ark before it reached Mount Ararat: the lowland must, therefore, have been at no great distance from eastern Armenia; Babylonia is a lowland thus situated. Postdiluvian mankind builds its world-tower on the plain of Babylonia. Eden itself is distinctly connected with the Tigris and Euphrates, rivers stated to have flowed out of it. That well-watered garden-land cannot have been in Assyria, for there the Tigris and Euphrates could not be imagined issuing from it as branches of one stream: it must be sought in the Babylonian plain. This plain, bordered by the Tigris and Euphrates, has, it is true, no room for two other rivers; but must we, asks Prof. Delitzsch, following Hopkinson, recognize in the Pison and Gihon two streams resembling in character the Tigris and Euphrates? Is not the word *nāhār* (which the Authorized Version renders by *river*) used in Hebrew, as it is in Arabic and Babylonian, also of canals? Is not the *nāhār* Chebar, on the banks of which Ezekiel saw his vision, clearly and repeatedly stated to have been "in the land of the Chaldeans"—that is, in Babylonia—and not in Mesopotamia, where it has been erroneously sought? The cuneiform inscriptions have lists of *nārāti*, or streams, placing canals side by side with the Tigris and Euphrates. The parting of the stream of Paradise into several branches obviously refers to irrigation.

But here a difficulty arises: Should canals constructed by the hand of man have entered into the description of Paradise, prepared for an abode of the first of the species? Prof. Delitzsch, who has very little reverence for the legend he treats of, and believes it to be derived from a Babylonian source, has no hesitation in discarding this objection. There was hardly any difference perceptible, he thinks, between the two great rivers and the canals of Babylonia. The canals were broad and navigable like the rivers, gave like these rise to other smaller water courses, and were of so exceedingly ancient an origin that the narrator could, without committing a flagrant anachronism, connect them with the very planting of the divine garden. Arrian, in describing the Pallacopas canal, found it necessary to remark that it was an artificial channel, and not a river derived from springs. Moreover, it is certain that a part of the Babylonian canals are not of originally artificial construction, but ancient river beds or branches of the Euphrates and Tigris, converted into navigable or irrigating channels when those two rivers had carved out their permanent beds. The canals Pison and Gihon may have been known as such branches of the main streams.

Now, where lay the lands Havilah and Cush, around which those water-courses wound? Havilah, answers Delitzsch, is the east-north-easterly portion of the Syrian Desert, bordering on the lower Euphrates, a tract of which is designated by the Arabs as Ard-el-Halat, land of dunes. The Hebrew name (*ʻhăvīlāh, or ha-ʻhăvīlāh*, the sandy, from *ʻhōl*, sand) has the same meaning. Gold is proved by cuneiform inscriptions to have been a product of the adjoining territory of Bit-Yakin, northeast of the mouth of the Euphrates. Bdellium, according to the testimony of Pliny, was a native product of Babylonia. The stone shoham is the *sāmtu* (fem. of *sāmu*) of the inscriptions, a famous mineral product of Meluha, a Babylonian district rich in precious stones. Thus everything connected with Havilah leads us back to the vicinity of the lower Euphrates. The Cush of the story of Paradise is surely not the African Cush, Cush in the narrower sense, or Ethiopia. It is the land of the Kaššu of the inscriptions, who had separated from their kindred in the mountain ranges north of Susiana, the Cossæans of the classical writers, and established themselves as rulers of central Babylonia—a people, perhaps, identical with the Casdim, or Chaldeans, of the Scriptures. The Pison of Havilah is the Pallacopas of the Greeks (*pallaco* = Heb. *peleg*, Ass. *palgu*, canal), that great canal west of the Euphrates, extending from the neighborhood of Babylonia to far below the present mouth of the river in the Persian Gulf, of which Ritter surmised that it presented the most ancient and most direct bed of the great stream, in its eastward-trending course to the gulf. The stream compassing the land of Cush is the canal Shat en-Nil, forming an opposite curve east of the Euphrates to that of the Pallacopas on the west, and identical with the Arahtu of the Assyrian inscriptions, mentioned as *nār* (river or canal) immediately after the Tigris and Euphrates, and also designated by a non-Semitic name which can be deciphered as Guhana—that is, Gihon.

Thus the four water courses into which the stream of Eden was parted on coming out of it were the Pallacopas, the Shat en-Nil, and the lower Euphrates and Tigris, the former three branching off from the middle Euphrates near Babylon, and the Tigris communicating with it through a network of canals and little channels. The middle Euphrates is the main river, watering with its numberless branches the country around and north of Babylon, which is Eden. The Euphrates alone waters it, for the Tigris, flowing through a lower bed, only receives water, and imparts none, through the connecting channels. The character of this country, as described by Herodotus, Xenophon, Strabo, and Ammianus Marcellinus, was in antiquity such as fully to deserve the appellation bestowed upon it. It was charming beyond comparison by its luxuriant vegetation, variety of excellent products, and marvellous cultivation. The Babylonians and Assyrians called it Kar-Duniaš, grove of the God Duniaš, in the non-Semitic equivalent of which name the syllable *Kar* is replaced by *Gin*, corresponding to the Hebrew *gan* in *gan ēden*, garden of Eden. The most ancient non-Semitic name of the city and district of Babylon was Tintira, meaning grove of life, which reminds one of the tree of life in the narrative of Genesis. The Hebrew word *ēden*, delight, may, in this combination, be a phonetic imitation of the non-Semitic *ēdin* of the inscriptions, which means plain.

Unfortunately for the theory so powerfully advanced, almost all the linguistic evidences by which it is supported are still of doubtful value, the etymology of the Babylonian names in most cases, and the reading in some, being disputed by high authorities in this obscure field of inquiry. Were the linguistic points proved, it would be hard to resist the power of the argument, in spite of various difficulties arising from the scanty text of Genesis itself. As it is, although all other solutions of the knotty Biblical problem may be subject to still graver objections, the following questions militate too strongly against Prof. Delitzsch's solution: Why, if the stream of Eden be the middle Euphrates, is it left unnamed in the narrative, though it is certain that the Hebrews were perfectly familiar both with the middle and the upper course of that river? Why, if the Pison and Gihon designate the canals Pallacopas and Shat en-Nil, are they said to *compass* lands which the canals only traverse? If the *lower* Tigris be meant by the Hiddekel, why is this river described as flowing in front of Assyria, which lay *above* the central Mesopotamian lowland asserted to be Eden? How should a writer familiar with the whole course of the Tigris deem its lower part a branch of the Euphrates? Why should Cush, a name which commonly designated Ethiopia, have been used by the narrator in a sense in which it nowhere else occurs in the Scriptures, without the least further definition? Why, on the other hand, is Havilah, if the Ara-

bian borderland so well known to the Hebrews be meant, so fully described by its products? Who tells us that the gold, the bdellium, and the shoham of Babylonia were also characteristic of the adjoining Havilah? But whether these objections, in the present stage of Assyriological studies, be fatal to the theory of Prof. Delitzsch or not, we have no hesitation in saying that his dissertation, amplified as it is by supplementary treatises on the ancient geography and ethnology of the Mesopotamian and neighboring countries, of Canaan, Egypt, and Elam, is a perfect treasury of knowledge—made most accessible by excellent indexes—and probably the most brilliant production in all Biblico-Assyriological literature.

Figures of the Past. From the Leaves of Old Journals. By Josiah Quincy (Class of 1821, Harvard College). Boston: Roberts Bros. 1883.

A VETERAN who can count up thirty public dinners over which he has presided must surely have some qualifications for reminiscent discourse of a delightful kind. Such was the late Josiah Quincy, who belonged to a family distinguished for wit, breeding, carriage, independence, and humanity, and who, in his own manner and degree, exhibited all these traits—on the one hand lacking the lofty eloquence of that stanch Federalist his father and namesake; and in satire yielding the palm to his younger brother Edmund, and perhaps not greatly surpassing him in post-prandial facility. The charm of this volume—a collected series of articles contributed chiefly to the *Independent*—consists in the happy style of the narrator, at once easy, humorous, and polished. Its interest is personal and historical, for the most part confined to the second and third decades of the present century.

The longest and most important chapters relate to the last years of John Adams, the reception of Lafayette in Boston and vicinity in 1824 (with the episodical account, from Colonel Huger's own lips, of his attempt to free the prisoner of Olmütz), the visit of the Duke of Saxe-Weimar, President Jackson's Eastern tour in 1833, an interview with Joe Smith at Nauvoo, and Washington society in the Presidency of John Quincy Adams. But of these we shall say nothing here except that young Quincy was singularly fortunate in being thrown either familiarly or officially with all the great men described, and to notice the fact that bestowing the doctor's degree on Jackson by Harvard College (with President Quincy at its head) was as bitter a pill as the approaching sacrifice to Governor Butler. Mr. Quincy himself compares the two events, deeming the one as inevitable as the other, yet quoting J. Q. Adams's "bitter generalization" in his diary, that "time-serving and sycophancy are the qualities of all learned and scientific institutions."

Mr. Quincy's description of his early school and college life offers many provocations to make extracts. There is the tutor at Andover who really believes he has put the boy in danger of perdition by presenting the dreadful alternative—"There will now be a prayer-meeting: those who wish to lie down in everlasting burning may go; the rest will stay"; for young Quincy does not stay. Harvard College is shown us at a time when fifteen was the average age of admission—not the minimum—and even so the habits of students led to open and general exhibitions of drunkenness. Emerson was the greatest but not the most promising of Mr. Quincy's classmates. Another, the Edward Kent for whom Maine afterward "went hell-bent" for Governor, is made the hero of the tradition that a member of the Lazy Club excused himself from running on the ground that he had been pushed and was too lazy to stop. On his way to Washington Mr. Quincy was companion and even nurse to Judge Story, whom he represents as given to monopolizing the talk at table, and to reciting his own poetry in stage-coaches, and from whom he quotes sentiments as to the equality and capacity of the female mind which we advise our friends the woman suffragists to keep standing in their journals. At the capital, Randolph made a great impression on the youthful Bostonian. John Adams, it seems, had a small opinion of Patrick Henry's eloquence (as had Jefferson, with regard to its solid content). Mr. Quincy put a leading question to Randolph intended to draw out his view on the subject. This is what he got (p. 212), followed by an immediate defence of the slave system against the mild anti-slavery sentiment of that early day (1826):

"'The greatest orator I ever heard,' said Randolph, 'was a woman. She was a slave. She was a mother, and her rostrum was the auction-block.' He then rose and imitated with thrilling pathos the tones with which this woman had appealed to the sympathy and justice of the by-standers, and finally the indignation with which she denounced them. 'There was eloquence!' he said. 'I have heard no *man* speak like that. It was overpowering.'"

Hezekiah Niles testifies to having heard Randolph point some highly indelicate allusion by turning to the ladies in the gallery of the House. Mr. Quincy enables us to appreciate the flagrancy of this indecorum by reminding us that "the gallery of the old House of Representatives was, in fact, not a gallery at all, it being simply a platform, raised a foot or two above the floor of the hall, which gave the honorable members an excellent opportunity of attending to the ladies who had come to listen to them." He does not remark, however, that besides the stimulus thus given to the orator by the nearness of his auditors, the petty size of the hall itself and the comparatively small number of his colleagues made Congressional oratory a very different thing from what it is now. On the one hand, the speaker could do his best with ease; on the other, the impressiveness of his effort on the listener would be greatly heightened by close contact. Both these considerations should be kept in mind in reading contemporary accounts of great debates.

We cannot begin to enumerate all these "figures of the past" whom the author has himself since joined. We must hurry past Charles Carroll, one of the "signers," opening the front door for his junior and departing guest, with the exclamation (he was in his ninetieth year): "Exertion! Why, what do you take me for? I have ridden sixteen miles on horseback this morning, and am good for as much this afternoon if there is any occasion for it"—a Palmerstonian endurance. Nor can Commodore Stockton detain us with his duels at Gibraltar and elsewhere; nor the Otises and Sullivans of the Boston of fifty years ago; nor Emily Marshall, the belle of Boston; nor her sister belles in other States, dancing with this handsome young aide-de-camp; nor Fanny Wright, nor Hannah Adams, here made the author of the proverbial female traveller's shibboleth: "Great box, little box, bandbox!" We must take leave also of the Nantucket whalers, living forty miles distant from the main of North America, and never having set foot on it, though they had visited South America and the Pacific Islands.

Mr Quincy intimates that his heirs have been enjoined from publishing the diaries from which, with legitimate embellishment of the record, these pages have been derived. Doubtless this is wise for his literary reputation, though Bostonians would take endless satisfaction in having the originals made accessible in print. All the more the historical significance and utility of this abstract should have been emphasized by a very full index. That which is given is meagre and faulty. The popularity of the book will justify the outlay of more pains, intelligence, and money upon this essential portion of it in another edition.

Practical Life and the Study of Man. By J. Wilson, Ph.D. Newark, N. Y.: J. Wilson & Son. 1882.

THE object of this work, the author informs us, is "neither to amaze nor to amuse" the reader, but "to interest and instruct those who are seeking improvement." It has not been hastily written, for he has "purposely waited till a late period of life, past fifty years," in order that, "with practical experience and a matured judgment, he might speak with confidence as well as intelligence upon a subject of such grave and lasting importance." He frankly admits that the title of the book is, commercially, "unfortunate," and that, in order to make it sell well, it ought to have been called 'Scandals in High Life,' or 'Experience of a Detective,' or 'Success Without Effort,' or 'Adventures of Captain Kidd,' or 'Money-Making Made Easy,' or 'Fun, Frolic, and Fashion.' But this is plainly ironical, for the contents of the book show that such titles would not be indicative of its real character; and, as Mr. Wilson is a moralist, to have resorted to any such device for the mere purpose of increasing the sale, would have been a fraud upon the public, that must have been damaging to a work of authority.

Mr. Wilson's book covers much the same field that such writers as Bacon, Epictetus, and Montaigne have hitherto occupied, but his range is far wider than all of them put together, and, notwithstanding a modest disclaimer in his preface, he is a much more original moralist than any of the three. It is impossible to give any idea of his method as an essayist without extracts, and we therefore turn at once to a chapter of his work devoted to a subject which has, we venture to say, often furnished food for reflection, and yet has never before, so far as we are aware, attracted the attention of moralists—"Large Men"! What is the view that the moralist or the philosopher ought to take of Large Men? "We have," says Mr. Wilson, "a wholesome regard for large men; for it often happens that large men are great men—nay, they are sometimes good men"; and, consequently, by the law of association, we infer greatness and goodness from size. It follows from this that "we have a contempt for diminutive men," and therefore it does not surprise us to find that small men "may do or say smart things, but they are never solid, never stable." And yet, as Mr. Wilson justly observes, "there are exceptions to all rules: some very large men have been very thick-headed, and some very small men have achieved mighty things." Thus far the analysis is complete; but Mr. Wilson now takes a step which for a less experienced thinker would be fraught with peril. He changes the meaning of the word "large," and insists that it should not be limited to mere size, but should also include the idea of strength. "The size of men should not, in estimating their power, be estimated by feet and inches. Men may not appear large, and yet be physically strong; men may not be very tall or very corpulent, and yet be very powerful. Napoleon was a small man, if we consider his height and weight, and yet he was well-knit, well-built,

and really strong physically, as he was mentally." Mr. Wilson apparently has in mind here the use of "big," in common parlance, as a synonym for strong or great—as in the well-known political phrase, "a biger man than old Grant"; but it seems going rather far to insist that "large" should be used in the same way. At any rate, there is no deception practised upon the reader. He says what he means, and there is nothing tortuous or underhanded in his dealing with the subject. The conclusion shows how he avoids extremes. He has expressed his preference for large men, and he has explained that mere size is not, after all, the true criterion; and finally we reach the truth that, after all, "the middle-sized men have done the heavy jobs of this world." It is they who "are emphatically working men, while our two hundred and fifty or three hundred pounders have a lazy, lumbering way that generally makes a man a little too late for the train, or perhaps finds him entirely unprepared for the work set before him"—truths which explain at once the deep irony veiled in the professedly laudatory description, "a good man, weighing three hundred pounds."

Another subject wholly neglected by the moralists we have mentioned, but not by Mr. Wilson, is that of "Advertising." On this we find some very sound remarks at page 122. "No business," says Mr. Wilson, "can prosper to any great extent in this country unless it is advertised. . . . People must make a noise, or they will not be heard. In fact, noise has a great deal to do with success in this world." He concludes this essay by a very original comparison of advertising to thunder, which "may not be capable of doing the least damage," and yet "leaves a much stronger and more lasting impression than lightning itself."

A large part of Mr. Wilson's book is a contribution to what Mr. Mallock calls the Science of Character. He does not, to be sure, know, any more than Herbert Spencer does, that there is such a science, but, like Herbert Spencer, he is always on the verge of discovering it. The chapter on the "Motives of Men" Mr. Mallock would find very interesting reading. Where in the new science, for instance, will be placed the case of "the man who would not drown himself for fear of being eaten by sharks"? In this chapter occur some remarks on Friendship, which will bear quoting, because they enforce a truth which Epictetus overlooked, and Bacon, if we remember right, refused to admit. It seems to be derived by Mr. Wilson from observation. If you want a friend, he says, the way to get one is to go to a man frankly and say to him: "If you will help us to this place, or help us to attain this object, we will divide the spoils with you, or you will make so much out of it, or we will pay you so much for your work." There is, says Mr. Wilson, "no resisting such appeals. Then we have a friend in truth—one that will stand by us, one that will be always on time, that will never desert us, never betray us (unless he can see where he can make more money elsewhere). We urge, again, that the only safe, reliable friends, after all, are those *who have a direct interest in helping us.* We are sorry to say that other friends, as a general rule (there are some exceptions), are not to be trusted out of sight." Mr. Wilson is not usually sarcastic, but the absurdity of the current ideas about disinterested friendship leads him to observe, in conclusion, that if there are, as some persons imagine, people in the world good-hearted and generous enough to help others along from the mere love of the thing, "it has been our misfortune never to meet with any such generous people. If such a race ever did exist, it is now certainly extinct, with the exception, perhaps, of a few stray individuals that have kept themselves out of reach of civilized man."

"The Impracticable" is the subject of another essay, which is a good example of the author's powers of leading from general propositions of undoubted truth to matters of immediate practical interest. Few people will deny, when their attention is once called to it, that it is very common "even for intelligent and cultivated adults to talk and act like children," or that many people have "an uncontrollable appetite for the impracticable, the impossible, the incredible," or that "they want to do things, simply because they know they cannot be done." But it is not every moralist who would be able or have the courage to lead us at once from these premises to the reflection that it is the love of the impracticable that leads to the spending of millions every year in the search for "a worthless or impossible North Pole," or that this is what explained the continuance of the search for the lost Charley Ross, "long after he was known to have been dead."

On the whole, Mr. Wilson's method as a moralist is altogether novel. His work will be found full of interest not only by those who have never given morals a thought, but by those, too, who are most familiar with the previous labors of mankind in the same field.

W. M. Hunt's Talks on Art. Second Series. Compiled by Helen M. Knowlton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883.

When Mr. Hunt began his work of teaching in Boston, American art—and especially that of Boston—was in a more feeble condition than it is now, and there was little opportunity for a beginner to learn the elements of drawing and painting, and the principles of design, in a rational and useful way. Indeed, there was scarcely a teacher in the country whose own training had been sound and thorough enough to qualify him properly for his work. Mr. Hunt, fresh from the inspiration of the vigorous modern French school of art, very naturally felt the inadequacy, the weakness, and the falseness of the greater part of the ideas and the practice which then prevailed here; and he applied himself to the task of giving what he considered, and what to a great extent really was, better instruction, with characteristic energy and enthusiasm.

He had been one of the pioneer American students who sought instruction in the French school, and the principles and methods which he had acquired there doubtless contained a much-needed antidote for many of the shortcomings and fallacies which then existed. The effect of his teaching was, therefore, in some respects good. What our art and art students had chiefly lacked was a just conception of the totality of a subject; they lacked discrimination in regard to the essential and the non-essential, and the habit of seizing the dominant characteristics of life and movement in organic form. Mr. Hunt's system directed attention to these broad and salient qualities at once. It discouraged triviality of premature minutiæ and all lifeless and mechanical elaboration of form. In this it was sound and salutary. But the system had its own defects, which impaired its usefulness, and in consequence of which it has, on the whole, done as much, perhaps, to harm public taste as it has to correct some errors.

A system of art-teaching, to be wholly and permanently useful, must enforce the equal importance of all the fundamental principles of design; it must fully appreciate them all, and cultivate them in just relationship to each other. This Mr. Hunt's system did not by any means do. It was partial and one-sided: it encouraged the pupil to observe the most marked characteristics of his subject, but it did not direct his attention to those refinements of line, color, and gradation upon which the essential beauty of both nature and art depend—it rather ignored these characteristics. It inculcated a prematurely bold and impetuous rather than a cautious and tranquil habit of work. While insisting upon so-called "values," it entirely failed to instruct the student in regard to those subtle compromises by which art, if it would avoid extravagance and untruth, is obliged to deal with the overwhelming strength of light and dark in nature. Mr. Hunt himself never appeared to see that the attainment of values, as he understood them, is incompatible with the balanced development of the three elements of painting—delineation, color, and chiaroscuro. Largeness of conception and simplicity of aim and method—which Mr. Hunt appreciated—are important habits of mind for a student of painting, and he cannot form these habits too early; but the inattention to functional details and the coarseness of workmanship which characterized the work done by his pupils, are by no means necessary accompaniments of them. They are, on the contrary, wholly incompatible with right conception of good painting. The idea of breadth, as Mr. Hunt taught it, was inadequate and harmful, because it omitted and ignored the idea of essential details as a necessary part of it. Nor did Mr. Hunt inculcate this idea as a temporary concession to the inability of beginners to grasp the whole while regarding details: it was practically inculcated as a final and sufficient one.

This second series of "Talks" is substantially like the first, and is thoroughly characteristic. It abounds in pithy remarks, which often contain a great deal of good sense, and sometimes give expression to noble sentiments—as where, on page 10, he says: "Don't try to paint better than any one else! Try to have other people paint better than you." Again, on page 25—on having read a severe criticism on his own work—he says: "Perhaps the best way to answer it would be to paint better than ever." Along with more or less of good advice, we constantly meet with much that is distinctly the contrary when addressed, as these remarks were, to beginners. For instance, on page 9 we find this: "Do your own work in your own way"; on page 29: "Trust to your feelings. Don't try to match tints"; and on page 49: "Do nothing that you cannot do cheerfully, easily." A beginner in languages or music is not often advised by a wise instructor to do his work in his own way, and he ought not any more to be advised to do so in drawing. As a beginner, his sole object should be to endeavor to acquire *right* ways of work; and while acquiring the means of expression, it is improper that he should trust his own feelings, or that he should not strive to match tints. As for the precept, to do nothing that he cannot do cheerfully and easily, it strikes the key-note of Mr. Hunt's weakness as a teacher: his pupils seem rarely to have troubled themselves to do anything that would cost pains. The fact, as we apprehend it, is that before a beginner can do anything good cheerfully and easily, he must make up his mind to do many things that will be more or less irksome and difficult. This, certainly, is the price of any worthy attainment in art, no less than in other departments of knowledge. In some passages where Mr. Hunt alludes to views which conflict with his own, he is at once arrogant, discourteous, and undignified. In short, the book, taken as a whole, notwithstanding that it contains some good things, is so confused, incoherent, and involved with fallacies, that we do not think a body of consistent and serviceable teaching can be extracted from

it. It is oddly printed, though in clear type—reading lengthwise instead of across the page—and is very awkward to hold in consequence.

The Promus of Formularies and Elegancies (being Private Notes, *circ.* 1594, hitherto unpublished). By Francis Bacon. Illustrated and elucidated by passages from Shakespeare. By Mrs. Henry Pott. With Preface by E. A. Abbott, D.D., Head Master of the City of London School. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883.

ANY new book written to prove that Bacon wrote Shakspere is likely to excite quite as much curiosity as to the condition of the author's mind as about the proofs brought forward. Though we know little or nothing about Shakspere's life, we know a great deal about Bacon's. We know what were his occupations, his turn of mind, his interests, his style both in prose and poetry, what were his acknowledged literary productions; and all these put together make us as sure that he did not write the plays which go by the name of Shakspere as we are that Queen Elizabeth or Coke did not. Nothing short of a miraculous interposition of divine power would have enabled Bacon to do anything of the kind. A belief in the theory of the Baconian origin of the plays can only be explained by insanity, or by a perverted use of the rules of evidence, internal or external, applying to the matter. Carlyle, whose system of criticism was simple and thoroughgoing, explained Miss Bacon's adhesion to the delusion at once by declaring it to be clear that she was "mad"; but no such account can be given either of the learned Judge Holmes, who only a few years ago produced a volume to prove that Bacon was the author of the plays, or of Mrs. Pott, who now comes forward with her "newly discovered evidence." Judge Holmes was an able lawyer, and a recognized authority on the subject of evidence, but no one could read his book without seeing that it was only by disregarding all the canons shown by experience to be necessary in testing questions of fact that he made out his case. The evidence he brought forward as conclusive he would in court have refused to let a jury even consider. He professed to be governed by the rules of evidence on which, if we remember right, he had been just before lecturing, but it was really by resorting to new rules devised for the occasion that he accomplished his task. It was extraordinary that a lawyer, with a reputation to lose, should have done so, but such was the fact.

With Mrs. Pott the explanation is simpler. She knows what the rules of evidence are, and the method she has adopted would, if successfully applied, enable her to prove the Baconian authorship of the plays. The trouble with Mrs. Pott is that she labors under a delusion on the subject of the facts to which she applies her rules of evidence.

To show what her system of proof is, a few specimens will suffice. The 'Promus' was a commonplace book of Bacon, in which, with that love of all sorts of knowledge that characterized him through life, he jotted down proverbs, forms of expression, and phrases which he met with in reading as novel, or for any other reason noteworthy. Of course these include a great many expressions open to use by any one to whom the literature of the day was accessible, and open to Shakspere among others. Mrs. Pott takes an expression found in the 'Promus,' and then puts down all the passages from Shakspere in which not merely the passage, but anything like the passage, or remotely suggesting the passage, occurs, and points triumphantly to the coincidence. We will give a few illustrations of her process, taken at random. Entry No. 1,145 of the 'Promus' is *Lex talionis*. Mrs. Pott finds what she calls an "illustration" of this in "The Merchant of Venice," and quotes *Shylock*: "The villainy you teach me I will execute, and it shall go hard, but I will better the instruction." No. 1,146 is: "You are not for this world." Mrs. Pott finds this reproduced in "Coriolanus" (iii. 2), "His nature is too noble for this world"; in "Timon of Athens" (iv. 3), "I am sick of this false world"; and in "The Merchant of Venice" (i. 1),

> "You have too much respect upon the world;
> They lose it that do buy it with much care."

Entry No. 89 is, "A stone without foyle." Mrs. Pott finds that Bacon, when he wrote "Richard III.," made use of the idea contained in this expression in describing England as "this precious stone set in the silver sea"; and also in the following: "The jewel best enamelled will lose its beauty" ("Comedy of Errors," ii. 1); in "My love to thee is without crack or flaw" ("Love's Labour's Lost," v. 2); in "He is the very brooch, the gem of the nation" ("Hamlet," iv. 7); and in "A gem of women" ("Antony and Cleopatra," iii. 2).

These are fair samples of the kind of "parallelism" between the 'Promus' and the plays which Mrs. Pott makes the basis of her case. Of course, there are better ones, as there might be in the case of any two contemporaneous authors. Dr. Abbott, who writes a preface to say that he considers the work of interest as throwing new light on the style both of Bacon and Shakspere, but disclaims all belief in the author's theory, gives us what he considers one of the most striking coincidences. Entries Nos. 1,207 and 1,215 are, respectively, "Golden sleepe" and "Uprouse. You are upp"—the intermediate entries relating to early rising. Now, we find in "Romeo and Juliet" (ii. 3):

> "But when unbruised youth, with unstuffed brain,
> Doth couch his limbs, then *golden sleepe* doth reign;
> Therefore thy earliness doth me assure
> Thou art *up-roused* by some distemperature."

The author argues from this that Bacon must have written "Romeo and Juliet." Dr. Abbott thinks that the explanation may possibly be that Bacon had seen the play, had been struck with the expressions, and jotted them down in his commonplace book. But this is a real piece of evidence compared with most of Mrs. Pott's efforts. In most cases, such as those we have cited above, what strikes us chiefly is the misplaced ingenuity which has enabled her to find any resemblance whatever. She would have us believe, if we understand her, that she has searched through the entire body of English literature of the Elizabethan period, and cannot find the 'Promus' expressions or ideas anywhere except in Shakspere, to any appreciable extent. We would undertake to find parallelisms as striking as hers between the 'Promus' and almost any given book of the period, for the simple reason that nine-tenths of them are not parallelisms at all. To search through the thousands of volumes which Mrs. Pott declares she has examined for the negative branch of her case would be, as it must have been with her, a labor of many years; and to make it necessary for anybody to verify what Mrs. Pott says on this subject, there must be some plausibility about the positive side of it. The fatal facility with which she finds 'Promus' entries where no one else can see a trace of them, destroys our interest in her labors.

John Greenleaf Whittier: His Life, Genius, and Writings. By W. Sloane Kennedy. Boston: S. E. Cassino. 1882.

THE reviewer may well be slow in noticing a premature book like the one before us. Seventy-five years have not, as might be inferred from the title-page, closed nature's account with the poet; his faculties are not impaired; his producing power is not at an end. Everything points, in his case, to a decent waiting till he has passed from the scene, before the biographer and the critic begin their work of recording and judging. Mr. Kennedy brings no exceptional qualifications to his task. His personal intimacy with Mr. Whittier has apparently not been superior to that of the newspaper interviewer; he has not been diligent or painstaking in revising his facts, and is guilty of several capital errors as to dates; his narrative is very unskilfully put together; his analysis of Mr. Whittier's poetic gift is neither striking nor suggestive. This analysis constitutes the second part of the book, and of course abounds in illustrative quotations, the poems being taken up seriatim and in groups. One whole class is entirely neglected as a class, and has but one or two of its representatives mentioned incidentally. We mean such characteristic and, in the main, such beautiful and elevated poems as those preserving the traits of Mr. Whittier's contemporaries—the Calhoun, Webster, Silas Wright, Garrison, Follen, Channing, Shipley, Pierpont, Leggett, Storrs, Torrey, Neall, of the earlier period; the Sumner, John Brown, Fremont, Cheever, Stearns, Joseph Sturge, of the later. Add to these the kindred verses on the poet's private losses, not a few of which have become household, although Mr. Kennedy dismisses them with the slighting remark: "One cannot embalm the memory of all one's friends in verse." A chapter is devoted to the vexed question of the historical fidelity of "The King's Missive," but the discussion is quite inadequate.

Mr. Kennedy shows (p. 277)—and it is, perhaps, the most interesting original statement in the book, after the indication of a common ancestry for Webster and Whittier—that as many as twenty-two of Whittier's poems do duty as hymns in one collection; two other Unitarian collections have seven each, and Mr. Beecher's "Plymouth Collection" has eleven. The total number in use may thus exceed twenty-two. A bibliography of Mr. Whittier's works in prose and verse, up to date, and a good index, conclude this volume in a worthy manner. We will call the publisher's attention to a fatal typographical blunder on page 102, where Mr. Whittier is represented as giving "six reasons why the African Colonization Society's schemes were *worthy* of good men's support." The context requires "unworthy," which was, of course, intended by the writer.

Ice-Pack and Tundra. By W. H. Gilder. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883. Royal 8vo, 365 pp., maps and illustrations.

THIS volume shows a decided advance, both in mode of presentation and substance of matter, over the 'Schwatka's Search' of the same author, notwithstanding the fact that the latter referred to a region much less known and intrinsically more interesting, while the present volume relates to events which have been for months in the fullest blaze of publicity, and the scene of which was a region more thoroughly known to the reading public than Mexico. We are happy to believe that this difference is chiefly due to the author's personal supervision, unfortunately not practicable in the previous case. Something may also be credited to the more serious nature of the later expedition, as compared with the Morrison crusade after logbooks and bones.

Mr. Gilder's letters from the *Rodgers* and from Siberia have appeared in the *Herald*, and here—pruned, rearranged, and supplemented with some excellent illustrations—are presented

in permanent form. It is strictly a personal narrative, except such portions as are devoted to De Long's journal, the heroic journey of Ninderman and Noros, and the later movements of Melville in the delta of the Lena. No book is without permanent value which contains these records of endurance, fidelity, and courage. It must be said for Mr. Gilder that his selections from the available material in regard to the *Jeannette* party appear to have been made with excellent taste and judgment. The personality of the writer is nowhere obtruded, and incidents which might have jarred the reader in perusal are sensibly ignored altogether. Some characteristic sketches of dwellers in northeast Siberia will be welcome to ethnologists, though the text seems barren of novelties in this direction, or, in fact, in any direction. To those who derive their first notions of life in east Siberia from this book, it will prove a tolerably full and essentially accurate guide in all generalities.

Of that part of the *Rodgers's* cruise relating to the exploration of Wrangell Land, previous to going into winter quarters, little has been made public. In a "Hydrographic Notice," issued by the Navy Department, are contained such data on Wrangell Land as the authorities saw fit to extract from the reports of Lieut. Berry and Captain Hooper, of the revenue steamer *Corwin*. This notice contains two maps, which differ in a marked manner from one another, and from the sketches in Mr. Gilder's narrative. The island in the latter seems to have been laid down without correcting for the variation of the compass, so that it is shifted about 20° in azimuth. In the enlarged sketch the conventional ripple-marks are carried around the base of the high land with a total disregard of the gravelly levels which form about one-half the area of the island, according to the Naval chart; and the ship's track appears to be carried about twelve miles too far north. However, if certain remarks in the text are accurate, it would seem as if Mr. Gilder's sketch, in respect of the relative position of Herald Island and the outlines of the eastern shore, was more accurate than that issued by the Navy. To Mr. Gilder, also, we are indebted for information as to the character, duration, and results of the magnetic observations at Rodgers's Harbor, which the Navy has not yet supplied officially. In view of these discrepancies, it would seem desirable that a reformed chart, or the data upon which the present one was constructed, should be published by the Department for the use of geographers, and that the new chart should contain, besides the local names given by the Naval officers, those previously applied by, or in honor of, the earlier explorers, Long and Hooper, which on the existing map have mysteriously vanished.

Whist; or, Bumblepuppy. Ten Lectures addressed to Children. By Pembridge. From the second London edition. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1883.

WHIST PLAYERS of all grades will be both instructed and amused by this witty and sparkling description, and sharp contrast, of sound and unsound methods of play. According to the author's definition, "Bumblepuppy is persisting to play whist, either in utter ignorance of all its known principles, or in defiance of them, or both"; and he remarks that "between the worst whist and the best bumblepuppy it is almost impossible to draw the line." "Pembridge" teaches the "best whist." In discussing the lead, the plays of the second, third, and fourth hands, and the various exigencies of the game, he enunciates the soundest principles with clearness and incisiveness, occasionally interjecting descriptions of the bumblepuppian methods with a droll air of resignation. He does not, however, confine his good-humored satire to bumblepuppy, but keenly and effectively criticises some of the ultra "scientific" practices. On the whole, we know of no work containing in such small compass so much correct information upon the game of whist. In his epilogue, the author thus comically anticipates a possible criticism of his performance:

"Some readers of these lectures have complained that it is often difficult to discriminate when they are serious and when they 'attempted to be funny'; and have suggested that the attempts should be indicated clearly by a note—thus ☞ this is a goak!—and the remainder printed in red ink. While fully recognizing their difficulty, and sympathizing with them, I am unable to entertain either proposition. The first is an American innovation utterly at variance with the conservative character of the work; and it is a fatal objection to the other, that if whatever is important were picked out in red, many well-disposed children would at once rush to the natural, but highly erroneous, conclusion that they had got hold of a Prayer Book."

The Story of a Shell. Robert Carter & Bros. 1882. 8vo, 265 pp.

BOOK-LOVERS have not failed to observe of late the influx of a multitude of cheap, prettily bound volumes, which on inspection prove to be of English origin. Too often the interior belies the cover, either in its trashy quality or in the evidence the pages offer of being the product of worn-out stereotypes, long discarded in their native land. Rarely, we confess, but still occasionally, one finds a book among these emigrants which combines good printing and paper with contents not unworthy of attention. Of this character is the little work of the Rev. J. R. Macduff, addressed to boys and girls, and printed at the Ballantyne Press. It is an attempt to initiate the young into the mysteries of ocean-life by means of a story in which dreams serve the purpose of the fairies of a past epoch. It is well illustrated, and its natural history is accurate as far as it goes, though the literary machinery is rather cumbrous, and the style somewhat stilted. The small number of books of this class which, out of the many printed, can be conscientiously recommended for young people, impels us to bespeak for this one a kindly, if not an enthusiastic, welcome.

American Hero Myths. By Daniel G. Brinton, M.D. Philadelphia: H. C. Watts & Co. 1882. —*Brinton's Library of Aboriginal American Literature.* No. 1. The Maya Chronicles. Philadelphia. 1882.

MR. BRINTON'S career as a laborer in the province of early American history will soon approach its twenty-fifth anniversary. In reviewing his latest publications, it is but just that we should recall the various addresses, pamphlets, and books which embody the fruits of his long study. The subjects he chose cannot be said to be very popular. They treat of the migrations, myths, and linguistics of faded or fading away American tribes—of the mound-builders, the Codex Troano, the Landa Alphabet, Religious Sentiment and Names of the Gods in the Kiche Myths, and so on. Abstruse as these subjects are, they will never help to bring any writer into prominence, nor can Dr. Brinton flatter himself that he has enriched history with any important revelation. Laying down his book on the 'American Hero Myths,' we ask, What substantial gain is made by reaching the conclusion that the great prehistoric civilizers Viracocha, Pachacamac, and Quetzalcohuatl had, in the conception of the natives, been gradually growing into the ideal forms of *Light Gods?* Moreover, on what positive evidence is our author's assumption based that the American redskin, the most unimaginative creature on this continent, was really haunted by dreams and inspirations of so classic a nature? We are of the belief that the early history of the red man in America cannot be exhumed with the worn-out tools of theologic symbolism. To call to life again the dead past, the student should lend his ear to the sound of the pickaxe and the spade working in ruins and places of sepulture. More trustworthy results are gained by studying bones and stones than by accumulating books to search in them for myths and lore.

However, in publishing the treasures of the late Dr. Berendt's collection of Maya literature, Mr. Brinton is doing a work for which his fellow-students will always remain thankful to him. The first issue contains six Maya manuscripts of chronological and historical interest. We sincerely wish that these publications may not meet with the fate of those undertaken by Mr. Squier and M. Brasseur, which had to stop after the issue of a first volume. How far the numerous linguistic notes with which Mr. Brinton has illustrated the original Maya texts will find the assent of the native Yucatecan scholars, the future will tell. If he has gone as far wrong in his interpretation of the Maya texts as he has done on various occasions with those of the Spanish, we fear for his rising reputation as a competent teacher in this special province. Still, the accomplishment of so much work within so short a space of time bears testimony to Dr. Brinton's energy and indefatigable application.

À Travers les États-Unis. Notes et Impressions, par le Vicomte D'Haussonville, Ancien Député. Paris. Calmann Lévy. 1883. Pp. 400.

M. D'HAUSSONVILLE has reprinted in this volume the articles contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, to which reference has already been made in these columns, giving an account of his seven weeks' tour in this country. Coming here as one of the French delegation to the Yorktown centenary, he made good use of his time and opportunities, and, besides taking his share in the festivities that welcomed his party, he studied with open eyes and sharp intellect all that he could see in New York, Baltimore, Washington, Richmond, Philadelphia, Newport, Boston, Chicago, Salt Lake City, San Francisco, and St. Louis. Speaking English perfectly, a diligent student of many phases of political and social life in this country, the author of capital essays on some American subjects, and of careful reports on our charitable and reformatory institutions, he was particularly well fitted to make sensible observations on what he saw and heard and read in his rapid journey.

He describes the freedom of the young women in society, and finds that it has very good reasons to justify it, far removed as it is from the strict conventional rules of French domestic and social life. He attributes much of the bitterness of the Rebellion to the strong influence of the Southern women, and looks to the rapid growth of the whole country as the best means of instilling pride enough in its greatness to overcome all local prejudices and sectional hostility. One of the French delegation was a Virginian who had taken part with the Southern Army in the Civil War, and then had found a place in the French Army. Returning now for the first time to his native country, he forgot entirely his old sympathies in his pride over the wonderful growth that marked the period of his absence. M. d'Haussonville saw in the absolute tolerance of all political opinions one of the happiest conditions of American prosperity, and noticed that the divisions in each of the great parties were greater than those which separate the country itself into opposing political camps. Thus, Stalwarts and

Half-Breeds he found much more bitter toward each other than Republicans and Democrats, while both parties had in their ranks advocates as well as opponents of civil-service and revenue and other national reforms. He was strongly impressed with the suppleness (it is his own phrase) of the Jesuits in adapting themselves to the manners of the country, by the discovery in their College at Georgetown, D. C., of a reading-room open to all their pupils, full of newspapers of all political complexions and of every shade of opinion—something that he frankly admits could not be found in France in a school or college of any creed or of none. He protests energetically against the exclusion of religious instruction from Girard College, and points to it as a warning against the rapid exclusion of the clergy from instruction in France.

On the other hand, it pleased him that a Philadelphia newspaper, in a notice of his own book on 'The Poor of Paris,' spoke very sharply of the want of just such care of the poor in Philadelphia as that exercised by the religious orders in Paris, and by laymen and women under their direction. His visit to the prisons in Philadelphia satisfied him that his wide experience of similar institutions abroad was largely reproduced in the familiar traits of the professional criminals here. In Boston he compared the elementary public schools with the schools of Paris, and found really very little in the methods of instruction to the credit of the former, in spite of their great reputation; but their school rooms were much better and the employment of women as teachers seemed to him a very great advantage. The English and Latin High Schools he put upon the same footing as the best French colleges, with the advantage of absolute freedom of access to all classes and both sexes. In proof of the sad results of the lack of religious instruction, he was furnished with numerous instances of graduates of the public schools who had gone to the bad—the women easily tempted to dissolute lives, the men to irregular habits. But on this point we should have been glad to learn the names, character, and religious tenees of his informants. In New York M. d'Haussonville visited, under police care, the worst parts of the city, and the prisons and other public asylums on the islands. These he found very bad in many respects, while the Children's Aid Society seemed to him the most promising ally for real reform of the classes within its reach.

From his study of these philanthropic questions, as well as from his social amusements, M. d'Haussonville boldly turned to the West to make a hurried trip of eighteen days to San Francisco. Outward bound he fell in with a young Mormon just returning from a mission abroad, and was favored with the sight of a Mormon household, with its five wives and thirty children, on which he builds a very satisfactory picture of domestic life in Salt Lake. This is followed by an unusually full and fair account of the Mormon Church—more so than could have been expected of a Frenchman having strong opinions of the power of the Catholic Church in state and home.

Returning by way of the Southern Pacific route, he observed with great interest the traces of the old Spanish settlers, and the sharp contrast between the rich country of Southern California and the deserts beyond, recalling Egypt and the desert of the East. At St. Louis he tried to revive his boyish reading of Chateaubriand, but 'Atala' was hard to find in the busy, smoky, foggy city. His voyage home supplied leisure for a chapter of general observations, in which he attributes American success to the home-life and religious faith which underlie all classes of the country, much more than to mere material advantages. He mourns over the fact that France lost its hold upon its old colonies, and has left so little trace of its former power and dominion.

Olympia. Das Fest und seine Stätte. Nach den Berichten der Alten und den Ergebnissen der deutschen Ausgrabungen. Von Adolf Boetticher. Berlin: Julius Springer; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

It may safely be said that no one of the recent excavations of ancient sites more fully deserved success, or has more fully attained it, than the German excavation of Olympia. The undertaking was suggested to the present Emperor of Germany more than thirty years ago by Ernst Curtius, who alone, of the many scholars who have wished that it might be done, has seen his wish accomplished under his own superintendence. It was planned with the utmost care by the best science of the time, and the work was executed with the same knowledge and thoroughness. It was made a matter of special arrangement with the Greek Government, and the work was carried on jointly by commissioners appointed from the two countries. It was, as has been repeatedly said by those concerned in it, the first great work of peace taken up by the Government of Germany after the war which made it a united people, and may be looked upon as a sort of memorial of the unification and a pledge of its peaceful aims. There was no serious calamity in the course of the five years of the work to the persons engaged or to the treasures discovered; and the results are a full satisfaction of the hopes that led to the choice of Olympia as a place to be excavated.

It would be impossible here to give any adequate account of these results, and a bare mention of the hundreds of inscriptions, statues, and reliefs, of the thousands of coins and objects in terracotta and in bronze, would be of no value. A few of the more striking single discoveries, whether of objects of art or of interesting facts, may serve better to give an idea of the importance of the work done. The only known original works from two famous sculptors—one a contemporary and rival of Pheidias, the other his greatest successor—have been brought to light in very fair condition by this excavation: the Nike (Victory) of Paionios (to whose hand or design, perhaps, also the figures from the east pediment of the Zeus temple are to be attributed), and the Hermes of Praxiteles, which latter has been generally recognized as the most valuable work of art discovered since the Venus of Melos The statuary of the two pediments of the Zeus temple form an intermediate step between those of Ægina and those of the Parthenon, so that the history of Greek sculpture has now its greatest gap filled up. The first known building of circular form, with a ring of pillars enclosing a portico around it, on Greek soil is the Philippeion, the remains of which were found just inside the western wall of the Altis. The first known instance of anything like a real arch of Greek building is the vaulted passage from the Altis to the Stadion. The foundations and parts of the pillars of the oldest known temple in Greece—the Heraion—were laid bare, and the striking fact that its columns were originally of wood, and were gradually, as they decayed, replaced in stone (a fact which Pausanias suggests by incidentally mentioning that in his day one of the pillars was of oak) seems established by the varying styles of the stone capitals found. A new style of construction, also, was discovered—stone-work overlaid with a cover of molded and baked clay, of which other examples have since been found on the sites of Greek cities in southeastern Sicily and Italy. Proofs of the use of color on terracotta and on stone, both in sculpture and in architecture, were found in an abundance and excellence of preservation far beyond anything known before, so that the rules of the art can now be fairly studied. Various evidences came to light of the common sense of the Greeks even in the domain of art. They were not bound rigidly by rules, but freely varied the material, the ground-plan, the number of pillars, the position and form of steps, the interior arrangements, according to the requirements of the position or use of the building.

Adolf Boetticher, one of the architects employed for a time in the work, has given us in 'Olympia' the first connected account of it aside from the official record. The book, he says, is designed not for the learned in such matters, but for educated people in all spheres of life who are interested in classical antiquity. Accordingly, a considerable part (one-fifth) of the book is given up to an account of the ancient festival, the games, the judges, the sacred rites, etc.—matter derived from the literature of antiquity, but to which no special addition has been made by this exploration. After this, the history of the place is given briefly in four chronological periods, under each of which the objects discovered belonging to it, whether of architecture, sculpture, or whatever else, are described and discussed. There are fifteen plates (several of them on steel) and seventy-four woodcut illustrations in the text. On the whole, the author has done his work very well. It is a little disappointing to be told here and there that the plan of the work forbids further detail, perhaps where one would especially desire it; but so much interesting matter is given that we will not complain of this. Boetticher has his own opinions, and does not hesitate to express them, differing several times from the opinion of his superior officers in their official report, and giving his reasons for it. Sometimes he makes a little slip, as when he says (p. 135) that Pindar's spirit was saddened by the attitude of his native city in regard to the Persian war as early as his twentieth year, which was ten years or more before the first invasion of Greece; or when he speaks (p. 352) of the choragic monument of Lysikrates, a windowless building some six feet in diameter, as having been Lord Byron's "Wohnzimmer" when he was in Athens. It is amusing also to compare his statement (p. 303) that whoever denies the existence of hypæthral temples in Greece is all abroad in the history of Greek architecture, with the somewhat conflicting one in Von Reber's 'History of Ancient Art' (Am. translation, p. 214, note), that "the existence of a so-called hypæthron is inadmissible from the point of view both of design and of structure." But these are trifles; the book, as a whole, is full of valuable and interesting matter. It would well deserve translation into English, if only the translator could have liberty, and be judiciously guided to omit some portions and to make additions elsewhere from the official reports of the exploration. We have noticed only a few misprints; but the author or the publisher ought to have a warm seat reserved for him in the purgatory of those who give us books without an index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Rev. L. Henry Ward Beecher: a Sketch of his Career. Funk & Wagnalls.
Benton, J. Emerson as a Poet. M. L. Holbrook & Co.
Black, J. R. Young Japan: Yokohama and Yedo. A Narrative of the Settlement and the City. In 2 vols. Baker, Pratt & Co. $1.
Black, W. Shandon Bells. Harper & Bros.
Bradley, Rev. G. G. Recollections of Arthur Penrhyn Stanley. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 66-69. Mammals. B. Westermann & Co.
Dickenson, G. Poems and Essays, with Some Account of Minstrels and Minstrelsy of the Middle Ages. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Discours d'ouverture de MM. les Professeurs de l'École du Louvre. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Du Moncel, T. Electro-Magnets. D. Van Nostrand. 50 cents.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 22, 1883.

The Week.

THERE is a rumor floating about, which has given rise to a question addressed to the Ministry in the House of Commons, that the British Government is going to demand the return of the surplus of the *Alabama* award. We believe there is not the slightest foundation for the story. The "lump sum" fixed by the Geneva tribunal was paid by England as a final settlement, whether it proved too large or too small. The United States were not to get any more if it proved to be insufficient to satisfy the claims recognized by the arbitrators, nor were they to refund the balance if it proved more than sufficient. Therefore, if the United States were now to pay back what they found no claimant for, it would be a work of pure supererogation, honorable perhaps to themselves, but which no one else has any right to demand or expect. "Finis," in short, was written all over the *Alabama* award, and stamped on the bag containing the $15,000,000, and any one who thinks there is going to be any further international controversy about the matter imagines a vain thing.

But neither this nor the late decision of the English Court of Appeal, that the United States had final control of the lump sum, in the smallest degree affects the moral position of the United States in distributing the award. All that the English court has decided is that whatever the United States may do in the matter is legally unassailable. This we knew before. But no court on earth can make it right to claim and receive money on account of a certain loss, which you would not have received had the Judge not believed your story, and then turn round and deny that any such loss existed, and apply the money to something else, for which the Judge said you were not entitled to anything. This we have done. We claimed money, by names, dates, and amounts, for the insurance companies, and got it. We claimed it for the war-premium men, and were refused it. We then took the insurance men's money, and gave it to the war-premium men. There is no way of putting a good face on this, and the less talk there is about it the better.

We ventured to predict in these columns some time ago that the election of General Butler as Governor of Massachusetts would give the people of that State more "reform" of all sorts and varieties in a given time than could be shown by any other community in the world. He has now apparently created a panic among the legislators and politicians by vetoing an act making appropriations for the charitable and reformatory institutions of the State. He does it, he says, partly because there is great extravagance in the management, partly because the act unites different appropriations for utterly diverse objects. He insists that there ought to be an investigation into the institutions and the salaries of the officials who manage them, before a dollar is paid out of the treasury. This has the true reform ring, and shows the single-minded hatred of abuses as such which the General's knowledge of affairs and men, and his practical study of the art of government, led us to expect of him. The anti-Butler press try to make fun of him by calling him *General Boum*, the famous warrior of the Grand Duchy of Gerolstein; but the General himself is evidently hard at work upon the reform sentiment of the masses, which he reinforces by filling all the vacant places with his admirers and henchmen. He still cracks a joke now and then in his old, merry way, as when he informed his entertainers at dinner the other day, that he could hardly tell which were the gentlemen and which the waiters; but in reform the grim old soldier means business.

The nomination of ex-Governor Sprague for the Governorship of Rhode Island by an Independent Convention would a year ago have looked like a wild venture. But to-day it causes in political circles sensations of a very different kind. The seriousness with which it is discussed by Republican journals as a by no means hopeless thing, shows to what extent partisan leaders and organizations have ceased to be sure of their following. Neither party knows in these days what number of votes it can count upon, and in Rhode Island it is now suddenly remembered that a great many people have become tired of the old way of party management, and are capable of doing anything to show their disgust with it; that ex-Governor Sprague has, after all, in spite of his eclipses and eccentricities, a good many elements of popularity with certain classes of citizens about him; that about two-thirds of the Independent Convention which nominated him consisted of Republican voters, and that if the Democrats accept his nomination and support him heartily, he may find Republicans enough to give him a majority by way of protest against the existing state of things. The disintegration of parties in a period of transition like the present is apt to show itself in surprises of this kind.

The London *Times* and *Pall Mall Gazette*, apropos of Sheridan's case, and the leading French papers, apropos of Byrne's, confirm the position taken by the *Nation*, that whether murder or conspiring to murder is or is not a political offence depends on circumstances, and that it is open to a Government from which the extradition of an assassin is demanded so to treat it. The *Pall Mall Gazette* says, that "what is and what is not a political offence is a question the answers to which vary with the temper of the times, the prejudices of the judges, or the political tendencies of the Governments of the day. It has been our custom in England to give a very liberal interpretation to the term, and we need not be surprised if the authorities in the United States, if not in France," do the same. It further adds that it is needless to say what the English answer to a demand for Orsini's or Mazzini's extradition would have been. The Anglo-French Extradition Treaty expressly provides that no person shall be delivered up if the offence with which he is charged is "viewed by the Government from which the extradition is demanded as a political offence, or as an act connected with such an offence," which is simply the formal recognition of the understanding on which "England has always acted." The *Mémorial Diplomatique* says that "in this case (Byrne's) the crime and the political act are closely connected," and that Great Britain has always in such cases "refused extradition, on the plea that a political idea had alone inspired the act." The London *Times* further makes the confession:

> "It is impossible to deny that similar demands addressed to us by other nations have been met in a spirit which neither the Governments nor the peoples of the Continent have appreciated. There is an evident tendency to rejoice that we are now likely to experience the inconveniences which may arise from insistence upon the political aspects of crime. Our own policy has always been founded to a considerable extent upon the implied theory that people are never discontented without legitimate cause, and foreigners note with a certain malicious satisfaction the enforcement of the lesson that malcontents may be unreasonable, impracticable, and criminal no less than Governments."

The popular indignation at the miserable failure of the trial of N. L. Dukes for the murder of A. C. Nutt is by no means confined to Fayette County, Pennsylvania, where the trial occurred, or to the State which the murderer offends by his citizenship and of which his victim was a responsible and faithful officer. The feeling extends throughout the other States which are governed by law. The excitement in Uniontown over the verdict of acquittal is described as "terrific." Dukes and the twelve jurors were hanged in effigy. A public meeting followed "to let the world know," as the call ran, "that the law-abiding citizens of this county are shocked and horrified, and that their feelings are outraged by the verdict." Official emphasis is given to the popular sentiment by Judge Wilson, who presided at the trial. So strong was the case against Dukes that this fair-minded Judge, in the mere statement of it, was compelled to make his charge bear heavily upon the prisoner. When, in the teeth of overwhelming testimony, the jurors, to the astonishment of everybody in and out of the court-room, returned, after a short deliberation, with a verdict of acquittal, Judge Wilson told them that it gave "dissatisfaction to the Court," that "the evidence was sufficient to justify a different verdict," that they had "committed an error" which the Court unfortunately could not correct; and there is little doubt that, if he had been clothed with the power to do so, he would have promptly overruled the judgment. The only consolatory fact connected with this wretched travesty of justice is the instant and energetic popular comment upon it. The telegraphic reports do not show much "gloom" or "regret" in Uniontown. The feeling manifested was of a far livelier

sort. The murder was not regarded merely as a "painful affair," and the murderer, upon his discharge, was not allowed to resume his place in "society" amid congratulations upon his escape, or at least with silent toleration. The people of Fayette County evidently believe that the failure of justice concerns them quite as much as the murder itself. They permitted the criminal to be turned over in an orderly way to the courts, and trusted to a jury to dispose of his case.

A bill now before the California Legislature is a striking illustration of the horrible confusion which results from the absence of a Federal marriage law. Senator Cross introduced it, and it provides in substance that where a husband and wife have lived separate for four years, whether by agreement or not, the Attorney-General may, on the application of *any citizen of the State*, bring an action to have the bonds of matrimony dissolved, and the Court may thereupon dissolve them on simple proof of the four years' separation, and may, in its discretion, "provide for the support of the wife and children, if there be any, what may be reasonable and just." The bill had reached a second reading when its true nature was exposed by a letter from the wife of Dr. W. F. Smith, denouncing it as a device of her husband to get by legislation a divorce which the courts would not give him. The letter is a powerful one, and winds up with some indignant sarcasm on the clause which empowers the Court to provide for the support of Smith's family, the only reason being Smith's unwillingness to do it himself. She declares that she will not give Smith up, and defies the Legislature, under the Constitution of the United States, to take him from her, and has throughout the best of the argument, both as regards the law and morals.

From Tennessee comes the startling news that the Legislature of that State has passed a bill "pensioning all Confederate soldiers who lost one or both eyes during the war, and all Federal soldiers not pensioned by the United States Government." It will be remembered that this is the same State which repudiated a large part of its debt on the ground, among others, that its people were too poor to pay the whole of it. Does it not strike the statesmen of Tennessee that if their people are rich enough to go ahead of all other States in establishing a pension system of their own, they might also be rich enough to restore the character of their State as an honest commonwealth by discharging its obligations to its creditors? However, the notions of public faith prevailing there, as they encouraged Treasurer Polk to "appropriate" to himself the interest due to the creditors, may also encourage some future official to run away with the pension fund. Tennessee is making a reputation as a school of public morals.

The ladies in and about Boston, who have had what is called the "Harvard Annex," for the higher education of women, in charge during the past four years, have made a very modest statement and appeal in behalf of the continuance of their work. The small sum of $15,000 with which they began it four years ago has been exhausted, in spite of the fact that a good deal of the instruction was given by the professors gratuitously, and that there were no expenses for buildings. The promoters now seek to raise a sum of $100,000, which would be sufficient, it is hoped, with the aid the College would give, to put the Annex on a permanent footing as a dependency of the University, in which studiously-inclined young women could get the same kind and degree of instruction as are given to young men in the College proper. There is, however, no other "co-education" properly so called in the matter. The students of both sexes would pursue the same studies under the same professors, but not at the same hours or in the same places. We have little doubt, too, that if Harvard were as rich, or nearly as rich, as Columbia, the expenses would not have to be raised by subscription. The College would give the women what they ask for out of its own treasury, were it so overflowing that it could afford to put up $1,000,000 worth of buildings out of its income, without cutting down its expenses, within seven years. Harvard, however, owing to its happy policy of publicity, and close moral and intellectual contact with its graduates, rarely needs to pay for a building at all. It has had since the war three large and expensive dormitories presented to it by private donors, a large and expensive building for recitation-rooms, besides a gymnasium, and a law school, each costing $100,000 at least. In fact, as soon as it makes a want in buildings known, it is not long before some one makes his appearance, to say that the work shall be done. The other gifts for the direct purposes of instruction are also very large. But the College unhappily receives but little money by donation for its general fund, over which the Corporation has complete control, owing to that not ignoble weakness of human nature which makes nearly every giver anxious that his gift should in some manner commemorate him to posterity. It consequently has no money to meet new demands on it, or open new fields of usefulness like that known as the higher education of women; and there is among those who are most interested in it in Boston probably as strong a dislike to what is called co-education, or education of both sexes in the same rooms, as exists here—perhaps, even as strong as that which burns so fiercely in the breast of Dr. Dix.

The gentlemen mixed up in the Star-route "trouble" are one by one losing their tempers in a very sad way. Dorsey the other day assaulted an old man of seventy with great brutality, hitting him in the face and kicking him in the stomach. Now comes Mr. Blaine's friend, Mr. Bosler, the old Indian contractor, in whose return to Congress he expressed so much affectionate interest in a letter written last summer, and is held to bail on a charge of assaulting a Deputy United States Marshal. The Marshal says he went quietly into Bosler's bedroom to serve a subpœna. Bosler says he forced his way in. The Marshal says that Bosler was in bed to avoid service. Bosler says he was in bed because he was sick. The Marshal says he entered silently and had to shake Bosler to wake him up. Bosler says he came in drunk and swearing. Both agree, however, that Bosler jumped out of bed and hit the Marshal several times with a billet of wood, which is the offence with which he stands charged.

The Philadelphia *Evening Telegraph* makes the astounding assertion that we, in our article on the Dude, said that "American boys are either Cads, Anglomaniacs, or Dudes. Taking this sad misinterpretation of our remarks as a text, it points out that, as the poet teaches us, the boy is father to the man, and that it is our boys who must, as time goes on, develop into the "props and pillars of the State," who are to manage our governments, local and national, build our railroads and steamships, be our teachers, lawyers, physicians, authors, artists, and preachers. It then proceeds to show that we need not despair of the Republic, because fops, and dandies, and swells have before now, at critical times in the history of this and other countries, turned out to be full of manliness and vigor. Many an English dandy of thirty years ago proved himself a hero in the Crimea, and so did the corresponding class here in our war. This is true, and we hope that when the time comes for testing the Dude in war, he will give as good an account of himself. But he is less aggressive by nature than his predecessors, less warlike, less full of mettle, more shrinking, even in time of peace; so there is no safety in prophesying how he will behave in war. The Cad will not behave well, because it is the nature of the Cad to behave ill under all circumstances, whether in war or peace. The Anglomaniac might do his duty in a war in which England was our ally; but of course in a struggle with England he would be terribly tempted to go over to the enemy. But the fact is that the *Telegraph* wilfully perverts the truth, for we never said that all the boys of the United States, or even of New York, were either Cads, Dudes, or Anglomaniacs. We simply said that *some* boys were Dudes, and tried to account for the development of the type—a position which the merest tyro in logic must perceive at once is totally different from that attributed to us.

The opponents of jury trial will derive some encouragement from the Dukes-Nutt verdict, especially in the light of a newspaper interview with one of the jury, who has been requested to explain how it all happened. Mr. George Washington Breakiron is the juryman's name. He seems to have been a perfectly fair man, and had no prejudices derived from reading about the case, for he does not know how to read. He says that the first thing that happened on retiring was that some one asked, "Are we all Democrats?" upon which it appeared that they all were. Mr. Breakiron suggested that that was all wrong; but, as it was a misfortune that could not be helped, they went to work to decide the case, first, however, joining in a prayer. To reach a decision they took part of the evidence given at the Coroner's inquest and part of that given at the trial, and, by combining them, arrived at the conclusion that the killing was done in "self-defence."

Mr. Joseph Arundell, of Rabun County, Ga., killed one of his neighbors in 1876. He has only just been brought to trial, and has been acquitted. Both he and his victim are reported as moving in "high circles." It is also reported that though twenty-seven homicides have been committed in Rabun County since the war, no conviction has ever taken place. Under these trying circumstances, the Dukes-Nutt affair is naturally giving a good deal of comfort to the Southern apologists of homicide, if we may judge from the letters we receive. Even if the Dukes-Nutt verdict, however, had not filled the State and county in which it was rendered with horror and indignation, even if the jury which dared to return it had not had to conceal themselves from the public gaze, it would not furnish materials for a respectable *tu quoque*, as we have already several times pointed out. One unpunished business or social homicide does not prove as much as dozens annually, although some of our Southern brethren seem to have fallen into this very droll mode of reasoning. According to them, one murder in ten years proves just as much about the insecurity of life in a particular locality as fifty.

They have recently been treated to a spectacle in England which probably but very few ever expected to see again—a conviction under the old statute against blasphemy. The Christmas number of an infidel paper called the *Free Thinker* contained the blasphemous libel on which the indictment was founded, ridiculing the leading doctrines of Christianity in a very offensive way, but not worse than Col. Bob Ingersoll's way in this country. The prosecution was set on foot by a body called the "Society for the Suppression of Blasphemous Literature." The first trial ended in a disagreement of the jury; the second resulted in conviction, and the editor has been sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment with hard labor, and the publisher to three months' hard labor. The severity of the sentences has excited considerable indignation, not because of sympathy for the offenders, whose language the sceptics generally acknowledge to have been outrageous, and a real wrong to believing Christians, but because the Judge was evidently animated by "theological bias" in passing sentence, and made no secret of it. He treated Foote, the editor, as a servant of "the devil," and gave him, apparently as such, a crushing sentence; whereas, if punishable, he was only punishable properly as a person guilty of annoying his neighbors. The sceptics hold, and with considerable force, that Judge North knows no more about the devil than Foote, and should have confined himself to his proper sphere. That the affair has done religion no good was plainly inferrible from the conduct of the crowd of free-thinkers who filled the gallery. They rose *en masse* when sentence was passed, and heaped execrations on the Judge, calling him names, and reviling Christianity, while Foote hurled defiance at him from the dock; and the tumult was only brought to an end by clearing the room. The Society now talks of prosecuting Tyndall, Huxley, Spencer, Morley, and Dr. Martineau for blasphemy; but, as this would result in having its labors brought to a speedy end, it will probably seek some less conspicuous field of labor.

We felt, on reading the first news of the assault on Lady Florence Dixie, that, considering the nature of some of the other crimes committed in the course of the Irish agitation, there was nothing wildly improbable in an attempt on her life. It was an extraordinary story, it is true, as told in the first meagre despatch, but we presumed that later news would supply confirmatory and explanatory details. We are compelled to say, however, that these have not come, and, as the matter stands, it begins to wear a somewhat unpleasant look for Lady Florence, and to give plausibility to the denial put in by the Irish members of Parliament. The smallest shred of circumstantial corroboration would be most valuable, and yet nothing of the kind is forthcoming. It is to be observed, in the first place, that the whole story is most romantic. The affair might have been taken bodily out of one of Rhoda Broughton's novels. Nothing could be more picturesque than an attack by two disguised assassins on a lady, in broad daylight, in her own grounds, with daggers, and her rescue by her faithful St. Bernard dog, without the slightest injury. There is hardly a sensational novelist of the better class in our day who would venture on such an incident, and yet there is probably not one who on reading Lady Florence's account did not wish that he or she had ventured on it.

In the next place we have two men bent on murder, disguising themselves for a walk on the public highway, and a much frequented one, in a costume that would not only be likely to attract attention, but greatly to impede their escape if pursued, and make their arrest and detention certain if stopped or suspected by any peace officer. They met Lady Florence at a wicket gate opening from her grounds on the high road, at some little distance from her own house, it is true, but not in a secluded place. On the contrary, their attack on her seems to have been made only a few yards from the road. They knocked her down and began stabbing her with daggers, but although powerful men, and bent on her death, only stabbed through the strongest and thickest portions of her corset, and in every case failed to inflict even a scratch upon her person. One terrible blow, she says, she parried with her right hand and another with her left, but in neither case did she suffer any damage beyond the cutting of her glove. Not even the skin of her hand was touched. At this point—4 P.M.—she swooned, and the last thing she remembered was seeing the dog pulling one of the assassins off her. The assassin, although he might have killed the dog with a blow of the dagger, refrained from injuring the animal. His mistress lay in the swoon for three-quarters of an hour, and then got up and walked home. The dog, however, did not reach the house till after she had done so, and she concluded that he had in the meantime been in pursuit of her assailants. He does not appear, however, to have barked at all, for a gardener was at work thirty yards, or the width of four or five New York houses, from the scene of the outrage, and says he heard no noise whatever and saw nobody, although Lady Florence says "she called loudly for help" when first attacked. Moreover, the first accounts represented Lady Florence as "greatly prostrated" by the affair, which was not surprising. But the correspondent of the New York *Herald* had an interview with her on the following day, within twenty-four hours of the outrage, and found her "in the road, surrounded by gentlemen," "her dress (cardinal jersey), animated appearance, and manner showing no traces of the severe and terrible ordeal through which she had gone." It will be easily seen from all this that there is another side to the affair, which calls for close examination in the interest of everybody. Any mystification under such circumstances would be hardly less criminal than the assault.

The complete failure of the Socialist demonstration in Paris is something of which the new Ministry may well be proud, and it will do much for the reputation of the Republic, too, which has been suffering ever since Prince Napoleon's escapade. The Socialist celebration has, ever since it was announced, had a most unfavorable effect on business, and has kept away from Paris a large number of visitors, who did not care to witness street-fighting. The day has come and gone, however, with perfect quietness. The Government kept a powerful military force ready but invisible in barracks, and had the streets well patrolled by police, so that the would-be rioters, or demonstrators, were converted into peaceable promenaders, and had to give vent to their feelings by retiring to their restaurants, and drinking confusion to society, and government, and laws, and religion, and morals, and manners, and marriage, and paternity, and maternity, and property, and order, and everything but food and clothing.

Prince Bismarck has published the decree of the Bundesrath, prohibiting the importation of American hog products into the German Empire. The decree goes so far as to require proof positive that such products are not from America. That is to say, if a consignment of bacon comes from England, or France, or any other country, it must be accompanied by proof that it is of the growth and production of that country, or of some country other than America. The commercial effect of the decree will be to cause England, France, and other trading nations to import more American hog products for their own consumption and to export their own to Germany. This will raise the price of pork to German consumers by as much as the new channel for obtaining their supplies is more costly than the old. This is manifestly the object of the decree—that is, it is a protectionist measure in the interest of the German landowners, swineherds, and pork butchers. The pretence that it is a sanitary measure intended to prevent the spread of *trichina spiralis*, from which the inhabitants of the United States are perishing in large numbers in consequence of eating their own pork, has been held up in a rather glaring light by the commercial bodies of Hamburg.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 14, to TUESDAY, March 20, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON Thursday the President appointed A. W. Wyman, Assistant-Treasurer of the United States, to be Treasurer in the place of Mr. James Gilfillan, whose resignation has been accepted, to take effect on the 1st of April.

The President on Tuesday appointed George R. Page United States Judge for the Southern District of Ohio, vice William White, deceased.

The Naval Advisory Board, in conformity with Secretary Chandler's instructions, submitted to him on Wednesday a report embodying the general features of a plan for the 3,000-ton cruisers authorized by the Act of Congress of August 5, 1882.

Secretary Chandler on Thursday sent a cable message to Lieutenant Harber, authorizing him to continue the search for Lieutenant Chipp and his party during the coming summer, if he thought it advisable. This was in answer to a suggestion to that effect made by Lieutenant Harber in his recent report to the Secretary.

In response to inquiries from Collectors of Customs at various ports, in regard to the new tariff law, the acting Secretary of the Treasury has instructed them that duties should be assessed upon the full invoice value of merchandise, covered by invoices stating the value of the goods free on board at the foreign port of shipment; that is, the value including charges, costs, and commissions, without regard to the provisions of Section 7 of the new tariff act, which abolishes the duties on such charges. He suggests that importers pay the duties under protest, so as to protect any rights they may have in the premises. The question whether an estimate may properly be made in such cases by the appraising officers to cover the charges and commissions, and whether the amount of such estimate may thereupon be deducted from the invoice value, is reserved for future consideration, and until after he shall have received reports in regard to the matter from the proper officers.

Special Agent Townsend, in a communication from the Sac and Fox Indian Agency, under date of March 15, writes to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs that a reign of terror prevails among the Creek Nation, owing to internal dissensions, and that he thinks it advisable that the Government should interfere.

General Crook, commanding the Department of Arizona, on Thursday reported to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs at Washington that there were fifteen Indians sick with smallpox at Peach Springs, near the Atlantic and Pacific Railway. The Commissioner directed the physician at the San Carlos Agency to attend to the medical wants of the Indians, and informed General Crook accordingly. On Friday the Commissioner received a despatch from General Crook, dated Whipple Barracks, A. T., March 15, 1883, saying: "The Indians need something besides medicine. They have nothing to eat, and in their efforts to get something may inoculate the whole country." Commissioner Price telegraphed General Crook that there was no fund with which to purchase supplies for these Indians, but suggested that if the War Department would supply their immediate wants he would endeavor to have Congress reimburse the Department at the next session.

Returns to the Department of Agriculture of the cotton sent to market from plantations show an aggregate of 5,900,000 bales gone forward up to March 1. This is about 86 1-3 per cent. of the crop as indicated by the last return of product.

An investigation of the consumption and distribution of corn and wheat up to March 1 has been completed by the Department of Agriculture. It makes the stock of corn on hand at that date about 580,000,000 bushels, or 36 per cent. of last year's crop. Of this, 380,000,000 bushels are in the States of the central basin, north of Tennessee, and 166,000,000 bushels in the Southern States. Most of the remainder is in the Middle States. The proportion of wheat on hand, March 1, is 28 per cent. of the crop, or about 140,000,000 bushels. The proportion of the last five years at that date is nearly the same. In the States of the central basin the total reported on hand is 104,000,000 bushels.

O. W. Denny, Consul-General of the United States at Shanghai, China, has forwarded to the State Department $2,355, United States gold coin, to be placed to the credit of the Garfield Memorial Hospital Fund. Of this amount $300 was contributed by Chinese friends of Mr. Denny, who, in forwarding their subscription, said they "would be most happy to head a Chinese circular and send it around among our friends, but to ask our countrymen to subscribe to a hospital to be built in a country which will not permit the Chinese to enter it for ten years is more than we dare do." The remainder of the contribution was obtained from citizens of the United States residing in China.

Thomas J. Brady, one of the defendants in the Star-route trial, was called to the witness stand on Wednesday. His testimony consisted of denials. He had never had the conversation with Walsh which the latter had described; he had never been bribed by any of the defendants, and had never entered into any combination or any agreement with them to defraud the Government by means of costly increase and expedition. He had never been intimate with Stephen W. Dorsey, and had never liked him until they were persecuted together. As for the Star service, he had tried to build it up for the benefit of the people, and had acted under the instructions and with the approval of Postmaster-General Key, who had favored even greater liberality than he had advocated. Brady was cross-examined by Mr. George Bliss on Thursday and Friday. The questions were confined for the most part to the orders for increase and expedition made by Brady when in office, and although numerous inconsistencies in the witness's testimony were brought out, nothing of very great interest was elicited.

Senator Blair, of New Hampshire, in an open letter, denies the newspaper reports that he has combined forces with Mr. Rollins in the coming Senatorial contest in that State, and declares that he never will form an alliance with Rollins, Briggs, or Chandler, nor make a combination with any candidate. He says further, that while acknowledging himself a candidate, he will not fight for re-election.

The Rhode Island Independent State Convention met on Wednesday and nominated ex-Governor William Sprague for Governor. No other nominations were made, and a committee of seven was appointed to confer with any organization in regard to the remainder of the ticket. It is believed that they will endorse the Democratic nominees for the minor State offices. On Thursday the Republican Convention met and nominated Augustus O. Bourn, of Bristol, and Oscar J. Rathbun, of Woonsocket, for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, respectively. The present incumbents of the remaining offices were renominated. The Democratic Convention on Tuesday nominated William Sprague for Governor by an almost unanimous vote. Charles H. George, of Providence, was nominated for Lieutenant-Governor.

The Republican State Central Committee of Georgia met on Thursday and appointed a special committee of ten to manage the campaign for Governor. It was deemed inadvisable to hold a convention.

The bill to settle the Tennessee State debt at fifty cents on the dollar, with three per cent. interest, passed the Senate on Thursday, and has been signed by the Governor.

The report of the Massachusetts Legislative Committee on Education upon so much of Governor Butler's message as refers to the defects of the school system, and the bad showing of Massachusetts as regards illiteracy in comparison with other States, enters a protest against the arraignment of the State on these grounds. The Committee points out that the foreign-born population of Iowa, the State with which the comparison was made, comes mostly from countries where education is universal, while the foreign-born population of the cities and large manufacturing towns of Massachusetts is of a wholly different class.

The jury in the case of N. L. Dukes, on trial at Uniontown, Pa., for the murder of Colonel Nutt, whose daughter Dukes had seduced, returned a verdict of not guilty on Wednesday. The Judge expressed his amazement and condemnation of the verdict, and the excitement in the town was intense. Stuffed effigies of Dukes and the twelve jurors were carried about in the streets of Uniontown, and on Thursday an indignation meeting of citizens of Fayette County was held, at which appropriate resolutions were passed. The verdict has been much commented on by the press. Dukes is a member of the Lower House of the Pennsylvania Legislature, and on Tuesday the sub-committee of the House Judiciary Committee decided to recommend his expulsion without a hearing.

William H. Bright, Clerk of the United States Circuit Court for the Northern District of New York, has tendered his resignation, in consequence of a notice in writing received from Circuit Judge Wallace that a change in the clerkship was intended. In giving this notice Judge Wallace expressed regret at being obliged to make a change, saying he was entirely satisfied with Mr. Bright's performance of his duties, but was so situated that he had no choice in the matter. District Judge A. C. Coxe, Conkling's nephew, is understood to have written in similar terms, and conveyed the impression that the change was against his wish. Judge Wallace's avowal that he is not acting on his own motion suggests that the same influence that made "Tim" Griffith Clerk for the Southern District has been at work in Bright's removal, viz., Conkling's influence.

The Longfellow Memorial Association of Cambridge has received a letter from Mr. Bennock, in London, which says that all the preliminaries for placing a bust in Westminster Abbey are now arranged, sufficient capital having been subscribed, the sculptor engaged, and the position for the bust selected. The latter is a column standing between the memorial niche of Chaucer and the Independent bust of Dryden, with a full and uninterrupted stream of light falling on the position, so that the bust will occupy a central and conspicuous place in the poets' corner.

It was announced some time ago that the Prince of Wales was contemplating a visit to America, and the manager of the Louisville Southern Cotton Exposition sent him an invitation to visit that city during the Exposition. In reply to the invitation the Prince says that there is no foundation for the report that he intends to visit America during the present year.

FOREIGN.

On Thursday great excitement was caused in London by a heavy explosion which occurred in the Local Government Board Offices near the Houses of Parliament. The concussion was felt in the House of Commons, and the noise was heard for a distance of several miles. Investigation indicated that either dynamite or gunpowder had been used to cause the explosion. The damage is placed at £4,000. The affair was ascribed to the Irish conspirators. A reward of £1,000 has been offered for the discovery of the perpetrators of the act. The English press commented in the strongest terms upon the affair. The *Times* said on Friday: "If the Irish Extremists are really going to reply with dynamite to any measures they

disapprove, it is certain that the day of remedial legislation is over." On Saturday the excitement caused by the explosion was intensified by the statement made by Lady Florence Dixie that, while walking near some woods at Windsor, she was attacked by two men disguised as women, who assaulted her with daggers. Lady Dixie says she fell in a swoon at the sight of the daggers and did not recover for three-quarters of an hour. She then found that her gloves had been cut in the palms and that there were two dagger-holes in the breast of her dress. She was, however, not wounded at all, nor was her St. Bernard dog, to which she attributed the saving of her life. The cause ascribed for the attack was her charges against the Land League officers in relation to the disposal of the funds of the League. Later despatches throw doubt upon Lady Dixie's story, and it is suspected to be another "Whittaker case."

The explosion being the subject of consideration in the House of Commons on Thursday night, Sir William Harcourt, Home Secretary, said he did not think it would be right to say anything about the matter until an official inquiry had been made. He had heard that an attempt had been made to blow up the *Times* office, but that no injury had been done.

Mr. Gladstone, in a speech in the House of Commons on Wednesday afternoon, on Mr. Parnell's amendment to the Land Act, said that tenants were willing to pay the rents fixed by the courts. He hoped Mr. Parnell would give assurance that the new crusade would be conducted in a strictly legal manner. It would be in violation of the duty of the Government to demand further sacrifices from landlords. Mr. Gladstone's remarks were repeatedly cheered by the Tory members. The second reading of Mr. Parnell's bill was rejected by a vote of 250 yeas to 63 nays. On Friday a motion was made by Mr. Kennard, declaring that in view of the complete satisfaction of all demands of American citizens upon the sum allowed by the Geneva Conference for the *Alabama* claims, the balance should be restored to Great Britain. The consideration of the motion was, however, deferred, owing to the counting out of the House. On Monday, Lord Edmund Fitzmaurice, Under Foreign Secretary, in reply to questions, said that the Government had never proposed to appoint an English resident at the Vatican. He also said that no demand for mediation in the trouble between France and Madagascar had been made, and that the Government had no intention of increasing the number of British ships in Malagasy waters.

The Most Rev. John MacEvilly, Archbishop of Tuam, replying to Earl Spencer, the Lord Lieutenant, in behalf of the Catholic Bishops in Ireland, writes that the action of the Government in insisting on extending relief to the distressed people through the workhouse is an outrage on humanity, and a covert system of exterminating the native race.

At a meeting of the Cabinet at Windsor on Monday, Lord Carlingford took his seat as Lord President of the Council, in place of Lord Spencer, resigned. Lord Carlingford will also assume the duties of Minister of Agriculture.

Lord Dunraven intends to propose at the present session of Parliament motions in favor of legislation in behalf of Irish laborers and for a large scheme of emigration, in order to prevent a recurrence of distress in Ireland.

A meeting of Irish, Scotch, and English members of Parliament was held in London on Wednesday, at which it was decided to form a political committee with a view to informing public opinion in regard to Irish reforms. The committee is regarded as an impartial one. No Parnellites are connected with it.

Mr. Parnell is now in Paris. He spent Sunday with M. Clémenceau and Henri Rochefort. It has been arranged that he shall go to America, Mr. Sexton remaining to watch proceedings in Parliament.

It is expected that the emigration to Canada from Europe during the ensuing season will be unusually extensive. The steamer *Parisian*, which sailed from Liverpool for Halifax on Thursday, took 450 emigrants. A large number of Scandinavians and Germans will proceed to northwest Canada in the course of the next five weeks.

The annual boat-race between Oxford and Cambridge Universities took place on the Thames on Thursday, and resulted in a victory for Oxford by three lengths. The betting at the start was seven to two on Cambridge.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Monday, a Radical motion relative to the grievances of the mining population was rejected by a vote of 294 to 116. M. Ferry stated that the Government after Easter would introduce a bill for the relief of distressed workmen. In the debate upon the motion to grant amnesty to political press offenders, M. Waldeck-Rousseau, Minister of the Interior, insisted that the present moment was untimely for such action, and that a calmer condition of popular feeling should be awaited. The motion was rejected by a vote of 399 to 83. The Chambers have adjourned for a month.

The French Government has resolved to expel, upon the completion of their sentences, all the foreigners who were convicted of implication in the recent riots in Paris. They are most of them Germans. Twenty-two Communist banquets and meetings were announced to take place in various parts of Paris on Sunday, and the Government took precautions accordingly; but the day passed off very quietly, and the mass-meeting of Communists which was advertised to take place at Père-la-Chaise Cemetery was not held.

The Russian Government has proposed to the other powers that an international detective force be organized to cope with Anarchists, Nihilists, Fenians, and Socialists. France, Switzerland, and Austria have acquiesced in the proposal.

A despatch from St. Petersburg on Wednesday said that two dynamite depots had been discovered there. Forty persons were arrested on Monday. Last week's arrests number 200. The Government has decided to expel all Italians who are without permanent occupation. The Governor of Moscow has received a letter warning him that the Kremlin, where the Czar is to be crowned, will be blown up during the coronation ceremony if the Czar refuses to grant a constitution.

The funeral of Prince Gortchakoff took place from the Russian Chapel at Baden-Baden on Wednesday. An autopsy disproved the allegation of poisoning.

The existence of a branch of the "Black Hand" Society has been discovered in the northern part of Portugal, and troops have been sent to that locality. Several arrests of members of the society have been made and important papers seized.

Signor Mancini, Minister of Foreign Affairs, replying in the Italian Chamber of Deputies to criticisms on his policy, said that to those who reproached him for having vainly sought an Austro-German alliance he would answer, that a power whose subjects numbered 30,000,000, and which possessed an excellent army and navy, only offered its alliance to those desiring it after ascertaining that it was desired. The statement that the Cabinet had met with a refusal at Berlin and Vienna was untrue. He said there was a manifest conformity of action between Italy, Germany, and Austria. The Government, he said, would repress with vigor all Irredentist manifestations. The recent demonstrations of the Irredentists had not affected the relations between Austria and Italy. Signor Mancini concluded by asking the Chamber for an explicit vote of confidence.

A despatch from Berlin says that Prince Bismarck has written to the Bundesrath recommending that, in order to prevent an evasion of the law, hog products be admitted into the country only on attested proof that they are not from America. A decree has been gazetted prohibiting the importation of American hog products, including sides, bacon, and sausages.

The London *Post's* correspondent at Berlin says Prince Bismarck has abandoned his intention of submitting a bill for the revision of the May laws until more positive and conciliatory results are obtained from the negotiations with the Roman Curia.

The Upper House of the Prussian Landtag has adopted the budget in the same form in which it was adopted by the Lower House. The Landtag has been prorogued until April 15.

The Lower House of the Austrian Reichsrath has adjourned, after adopting the budget and the bill for the relief of the sufferers by the floods.

The Spanish party of the Dynastic Left have appointed a committee to manage the party, as Marshal Serrano desires to resign the leadership.

The representatives of France, Italy, Belgium, Spain, Portugal, Rumania, Servia, Switzerland, Brazil, the Argentine Republic, San Salvador, and Guatemala signed on Tuesday the convention adopted by the conference which has been in session in Paris, securing to the citizens of the various States the same advantages with respect to patents, designs, trade-marks, and commercial names that other countries accord to their own subjects. England is holding off, and will defer action until the bills now pending in Parliament are passed.

The news from China is that the French transport, with the first instalment of troops for the Tonquin expedition, has arrived. It is currently reported in Shanghai that the British authorities propose to resort to forcible measures if private business is obstructed by the Chinese. The British Telegraph Company desires to land a new cable at Shanghai, but has acknowledged doubt of its right to do so, and has asked permission from the Chinese officials, who have withheld their answer for several weeks. The British Foreign Office is said to have telegraphed instructions to land forcibly, if necessary.

A despatch from Bombay says that the Indian budget fully discusses the competition of Indian with American wheat in the London market. The budget report states that India, though at a great disadvantage with regard to internal communications, has a great advantage through free trade. Railway rates from the north to Bombay are to be reduced immediately 18¼ per cent., which is equivalent to a reduction in the price of wheat of 1s. 6d. per quarter in the London market. The report anticipates a reduction in rates on other lines directly.

In the Canadian House of Commons on Monday, Mr. Ross, of Middlesex, moved for the correspondence between the Governments of Canada and the United States, or any board of trade of Canada or the United States, upon the question of reciprocal trade relations between the two countries on the general basis of the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854. He spoke at considerable length in favor of an attempt being made to reëstablish reciprocal trade relations with the United States, quoting a quantity of statistics to show that the natural market of Canada for her surplus products was the United States. He thought the present an opportune time for opening negotiations, on account of the proposed abrogation of the Washington treaty. Canadians would have in their fisheries a valuable consideration to offer in return for reciprocal trade. After some discussion the motion was carried.

THE LONDON EXPLOSION.

The explosion in London may have been gas, but it was most likely dynamite, and Fenian dynamite it will undoubtedly be believed to be by most Englishmen. It, consequently, in the present state of the relations of Ireland and England, may be considered a political event of much importance. It will probably increase the panic and exasperation caused by the Carey revelations in Dublin, and strengthen the Tories and reactionary Liberals who are in favor of a more energetic policy of coercion and repression than that which Mr. Gladstone is pursuing, or is willing to pursue. For one of the unfortunate effects of the government of one people by another and a very different one (which is the kind of government that exists in Ireland), is that the Minister of the governing country can never wholly consult his own judgment as to the kind of legislation the governed country requires. He has to be guided in the main by the feelings, opinions, hatreds, or prejudices even, of the other and it may be very different country. This has been Mr. Gladstone's difficulty all through in dealing with the Irish question. He has never been able to do just what even the best and most rational Irish opinion called for. He has had to do what English opinion, however poor or ill-informed, would permit.

Now, there is no tendency more marked in English opinion on Irish matters than the tendency to consider the whole population of Ireland as responsible for the assassins, incendiaries, and outrage men of the last three years. It is not an unnatural tendency. It is fostered if not justified by the apparent sympathy of the Irish people with the criminals, and by their unwillingness to give evidence against them. But the very worst mistake a statesman who is occupied with measures of healing can commit, is to make this presumption a basis of his policy. No measure can be healing which does not give the people for whom it is intended credit for being worthy of it, and entitled to it. He has to pretend to think well of them, even if he really does not. He cannot indict them, and he ought not if he could. Nevertheless, this presumption is in a measure forced on Mr. Gladstone by the state of English feeling. It has taken full hold of several of his colleagues. Lord Hartington, for instance, though he admits that Ireland ought to have a representative county government, instead of the grand juries, avows his unwillingness to give it in the presence of the Carey revelations. Sir William Harcourt probably shares this feeling in the fullest degree. That the bulk of the Liberals share it was pretty clearly revealed the other day in Mr. Forster's attack on Parnell, in which he let it be seen that he thought the outrages furnished the true indication of the kind of legislation Ireland most needed; and since the Dublin discoveries, Mr. Forster has become to most Liberals the great authority on Ireland.

Consequently, the London explosion must be considered a great calamity for both countries. It will satisfy tens of thousands of doubting Englishmen that Irish Home Rule in any form would mean the rule of those who are now prominent in agitation by assassination and dynamite, which it would therefore be madness, and cruelty to decent people, to concede. It will increase their determination to wait till Irishmen become peaceable before redressing even their undeniable grievances. The fact that this waiting has now lasted some centuries without result will fade from their minds, and they will sit on as patiently as Horace's peasant on the bank of the stream.

The worst of it, and, in fact, one might in this case accurately and truly say the devil of it, is, that the more frightened or exasperated these outrages make Englishmen, the better pleased the authors of them are. The policy of the extreme Irish party was frankly revealed by Patrick Egan here a day or two ago to a reporter, when he said that the more coercion England was driven into the better. They do not want healing legislation at her hands. They do not want reconciliation. They want separation—either complete or partial. They know they cannot get it by force. They hope to get it by wearing out English patience. The more alarm, disgust, and fury they excite in English breasts, therefore, the better they are pleased, and they are able to reconcile the more moderate of their own countrymen to their policy by pointing to the undeniable fact that the redress of Irish grievances has always been procured not by appeals to the reason or humanity of Englishmen, but to their fears. Probably, therefore, thousands of Irishmen chuckle over the English panic who would on no consideration aid in producing it. The senselessness of blowing up the office of the Local Government Board, therefore, when the real seat of the Government, the Parliament House, was so near at hand, is not, from the Fenian point of view, so great as it seems. The same thing may be said of the attempt on the *Times* building. It does not much matter what building is blown up as long as the explosion produces panic or even fury among Englishmen. Of course, the destruction of the Houses of Parliament, on the scale once attempted by a conspiracy of English Catholics, would be a greater blow, but the Parliament Houses are well guarded. If the blowing up of something else produces the desired effect —that is, makes Englishmen look on it as the Irish answer to Mr. Gladstone, or Mr. Forster, or no matter whom—the dynamite men are satisfied.

We have not the smallest belief that Parnell or the leaders of the Land League have anything to do with the society of murderers who are carrying on their operations in both England and Ireland, but they unquestionably encourage them, not so much by failing to condemn the murders and outrages, as by decrying and denouncing all the attempts made to punish them. We have looked in vain through the utterances of the Leaguers during the past six months for an admission that anybody arrested by the Government was a murderer, or deserved to be punished, or was fairly tried. No matter on whom the police lay their hands on suspicion of crime, the Land League organs talk of him as an innocent man, the witnesses against him as perjurers, the judge and jury as corrupt, and the sheriff as an assassin. Mr. Parnell's speeches are full of denunciation of the courts which are trying, or are to try persons in Ireland accused of murder; but not one word does he say of the necessity of pursuing and punishing the murderers in some way. Mr. Patrick Egan, the Treasurer of the League, who is now over here, is speaking in various parts of the country and denouncing "the hanging of innocent men" through spies and informers and packed juries; but, so far as reported, he says nothing indicating that murders have been committed on the Irish side, or that it is anybody's business to punish them, or that any such murderer has ever been caught. It is both curious and shocking that nearly all the late expressions of feeling about Carey's revelations which have come from the same quarter consist in abuse of Carey. Of abhorrence for the accused or belief in their guilt, of any reason for believing them not guilty, or of any desire to see them punished if guilty, not a word.

The Land League has among its constituents a very large body of people who are really still—to the shame of Englishmen—in an almost savage condition. A large part of the Irish population have really never been civilized enough even to profit by such moral culture as the Catholic Church bestows. Their evil tendencies have been fostered by the land system, the arbitrariness and violence and injustice of which furnished a constant incentive to crime. The wholesale evictions, which were one of its incidents, and occurred every year, kept alive from generation to generation the worst passions of human nature in the hearts not only of the evicted but of their neighbors and friends. People with this sort of training have to be carefully talked to by leaders who wish to keep on terms with the civilized world. Mr. Parnell and Mr. Egan cannot with impunity tell them that the Government "is a brutal and coercive foe, which is hanging innocent men, bayoneting women, and shooting down children." This may be all true; but if so it is one of those truths which Irish orators for their own sake would do well not to repeat too often to promiscuous audiences.

There is little use in trying to predict the more remote outcome of this deplorable situation. It presents such a problem as English statesmanship has never before been called on to solve, and, no matter what way it is solved, Englishmen must pay the penalty of long and now deeply deplored persistence in wrongdoing. For it is now well established that political sins, even of past generations, cannot be atoned for by any repentance, however deep or sincere, on the part of their descendants. They have to be expiated by the loss and suffering and mortification of the children. This is the lesson which the history of the last century in nearly every country has brought out with startling force—in our own among the number.

THE UNITED STATES AND MADAGASCAR.

It would be somewhat ludicrous if our sudden friendship with the Queen and people of Madagascar should get us into a diplomatic quarrel with the French Republic. But, unless we are greatly mistaken, the elements of a lively diplomatic controversy are already at

hand. The Queen of Madagascar claims sovereignty over the whole of that island. But the inhabitants of a part of it refuse to recognize that sovereignty, and are sustained in their refusal by the French Republic, which at this moment has some armed vessels there to sustain its claims by force. Now, the treaty between the United States and Madagascar, which was recently ratified, but the text of which we have not before us, is said to contain in one of its articles a direct and emphatic recognition by the United States of the dominion of the Queen comprising the whole extent of Madagascar. This is directly in the teeth of French pretensions.

Moreover, the clergy of this country seem to be anxious to take part in this interesting controversy by manufacturing public opinion. The Malagasy ambassadors are strong Presbyterians. On Tuesday of last week they were called upon at their hotel in the national capital by a delegation of clergymen representing the Pastors' Union, of Washington. That delegation presented to them a set of resolutions adopted at a "meeting of ministers of various denominations in the city of Washington," setting forth the deep interest with which "the Christian people of the capital of the United States have watched the remarkable progress of the Government and people of Madagascar in civilization and Christianity," and also "that we have learned with deep regret that the peace and prosperity of Madagascar are imperilled by the present aggressive policy of the Government of France, which must, if persisted in, lead to a disastrous war, in which the highest interests of religion, civil order, and education will suffer unspeakable damage." And finally the meeting of ministers "requests the embassy to convey to the Government and Christian people of their country our salutations and sympathies, and unite with Christians in Great Britain and the continent of Europe in earnest prayer to Almighty God, in whose hand are the hearts of men, that this disaster may be averted, and the peace and prosperity of Madagascar assured." In response to these resolutions the chief ambassador, Ravoninahitriniarivo, availed himself of his opportunity to represent the French as waging an unjust, selfish war, a war against civilization and against the progress which had been accomplished in Madagascar. "The French," he said, "seek to pluck us up as tares because we will not grant them greater privileges than those which other nations are contented to receive; but they cannot uproot us without uprooting the wheat also."

The campaign, therefore, seems to be fairly started. M. Roustan, the French Minister at Washington, who has already made his mark as a somewhat excitable gentleman, not entirely inaccessible to the charms of sensational diplomacy, is said to be "in a state of mind" about it. A fortnight ago, when the State Department had arranged an excursion to Mount Vernon in honor of the Malagasy envoys, to which all the members of the diplomatic corps were invited, the French Minister shone by his absence. When the Pastors' Union, of Washington, protest against the assault upon the Malagasy Christians by the pagan French, he may perhaps remember the undisputed fact that in this country the Government cannot be held responsible for such demonstrations, because it has not the means of preventing or repressing them. But when the envoys of a power virtually at war with France are received by our Government with unusual displays of cordiality, and especially when our Government in a solemn treaty formally recognizes claims of sovereignty openly disputed by France, M. Roustan looks upon such things as exceedingly "grave," and we have no doubt his despatches to his Government about this time furnish very lively reading.

But when he has been here a little longer he will satisfy himself that in this country things of this kind usually do not mean very great harm. The American people are not at all anxious for a quarrel with France or anybody else. It may confidently be said that they care very little whether the Queen of Madagascar governs the whole of that island or only a part of it. They would like to extend their trade that way, but it is after all a matter of comparatively small interest to them. They may come to the conclusion that the French are all wrong in their warlike enterprises against the Malagasy Government, and sympathize heartily with the Queen, but they are not at all inclined to undertake the task of setting right every wrong in the world. The State Department may have thought the Queen entitled to the whole extent of the island, and permitted a clause to that effect to go into the treaty, without giving quite as much thought to the meaning of such a clause as it deserves; but while this may not be complimentary, it is also well known that the Secretary of State is not at all in favor of a brilliant and adventurous foreign policy with pyrotechnic displays. He is undoubtedly well aware that the people of the United States want as little of foreign policy as possible. While this Madagascar business, therefore, contains all the elements of a brisk diplomatic scrimmage, the French will not get a real quarrel out of it unless they provoke one by excessive and altogether unnecessary touchiness.

COUMOUNDOUROS.

FLORENCE, March 3, 1883.

ONE of the most interesting visits in Athens used to be to a small, plain house in one of the least frequented quarters of the city, surrounded by dirty, unpaved streets and squalid houses, among which it was noble. The front door stood always open till far into the night; no servant or porter was there, and no one who came rang a bell. The visitor entered, passed through the hall of the ground floor between two casts of the monuments recently discovered on the Street of Tombs, and mounted the staircase to the first-floor antechamber, where stood generally an attendant—not always, however—sometimes a group of Greeks discussing eagerly some topic of the day; but no one noticed the comer until he asked for direction, which the habitués never did. The visitor passed into a long reception room, with a table in the centre, on which were a lamp and a huge pot of tobacco with cigarette papers. Along one side of the room was a row of chairs, along the other a divan, at the end of which, in the corner remotest from the door, was an arm-chair. When the *genius loci* was at home these chairs and this divan were generally occupied by a crowd, motley and democratic, of his adherents and clients, who came there evening after evening and mostly sat in silence from half-past 6 to 10 P. M., and then went away, saying simply good night, to come again the next night and repeat the ceremony. In the chairs, and on the portion of the divan nearest the arm-chair, sat those who had business for the evening. At the other end of the room was a door that opened into a small library, which was also the room for Cabinet councils; and on evenings when the council used to be held there the crowd of clients waited till half-past 8, or thereabouts, when the door opened and a smiling, bowing, good-humored little man came out and passed down to his arm-chair, giving hand-shakes and salutations right and left to all familiars—always the same: imperturbable, jesting, bantering, laughing, gracious to friend or foe, most cordial to the latter if anything; genial, amiable, and, no matter what was happening, apparently at one with fortune. There was a merry twinkle in his eye, a crafty side-look, a curious manner of attention and deference to every one with whom he talked, which was a most subtle kind of flattery to plain people; and when you had talked an hour with him, differ as much as you might with him—violently, abusively even—he was the same imperturbable, genial, cordial man, unmoved by your bitterness and your compliments alike, and you finally came to the conclusion that neither his words to you nor yours to him had for him any meaning whatever.

This little wily, watchful, smiling man was Coumoundouros, a politician who had in him all the making of a statesman except what honesty would have given, but who for twenty years has been the leading spirit of what answers to politics in Greece. He was a man of Messene, and entered political life in the most humble offices and poor. A Deputy, Minister, President of the Council, he has been longer in public life than any man now living in Greece, and too long for his own reputation. He began well, and I remember him when the Cretan insurrection of 1866 brought all the best minds of Greece forward to sustain by any and all sacrifices the struggle, and Coumoundouros took and kept direction of the affair until the King, timid and utterly blind to the importance of the crisis, yielding to any and all diplomatic pressure from certain of the powers, notably Russia, dismissed him, with his Cabinet, and then dissolved the Assembly, which, with such a unanimity as has rarely been seen in Greece, determined to stand or fall with the Ministry. The country was stirred to the furthest corner and entirely in sympathy with the Ministry, and if at that moment Coumoundouros had given the word, King George would have taken the first steamer for Europe. The King had made a *coup d'état* with no one behind him but Bulgaris and the Russian Minister. The excitable Greeks were boiling over, and the King was publicly cursed and insulted. "Why don't you make a revolution and drive him out?" I asked Coumoundouros. "Why? Because Europe has already so bad an opinion of us that if we were to make another revolution they would give us up as unfit for any government. We can't afford to sink any lower in the opinion of Europe." And so, with a three-fourths majority of the Chamber, and a nine-tenths majority of the people ready for any lead he chose to give, he gave up the power, permitted the King to call in Bulgaris to make a new Assembly, to keep Coumoundouros out of which he was outlawed on some trumped-up charges, and compelled to take refuge in a stronghold of his country. Here he was besieged by the troops until the elections were over, excluding him from the new Assembly.

Had he died then, he would have been one of

the heroes of modern Greece. He had so well organized and carried on the insurrection in Crete—though it was begun against his judgment—that it had worn out all the best generals of the Turkish Army. Ismaïl, Mehemet Kiritly, Hussein Avni, Omar, Reshid, backed by 22,000 Egyptian and nearly 100,000 Turkish troops, regulars and irregulars (eighty full battalions of the former having been under the command of Omar), had all come and done their worst, and gone back baffled, worn out, more by Parthian flight than Spartan fighting, and the Turkish Government was in despair. Insurrections were preparing in many quarters, and six months more would have seen the precipitation of the Eastern question, with Greece in the lead. It didn't suit Russia, and the Russian Minister at Athens had orders to stop it unless Coumoundouros would accept the lead of the Czar, and let the Hellenic plans be subsidiary to those of the Emperor. He refused, and was dismissed. Yet so great was the difficulty of meeting the crisis that after the Coumoundouros Ministry had gone out, the Russian Minister, M. Novikoff, came to him and offered to replace the Ministry if he would accept the Russian plans, and they would carry the work on together. Coumoundouros replied that he would never sacrifice the interests of Greece to those of Russia, and refused to treat with a Russian Minister concerning a matter of Greek internal policy. Coumoundouros went into practical exile. Had that ended his political career, he had been a happy man.

He, of course, came back to power as soon as the people were free to elect again, but he came back in some way a changed man, thirsty for power; and thenceforward he bent and truckled and connived at corruption and intrigue till he was the most pliant of Ministers to the corps diplomatique, and the most largely followed by all the rascals and thieves of Greek politics of all the publicists of Athens and the provinces. The next great Greek crisis—that which came on with the conference of Constantinople—found him playing the part which Bulgaris had acted in 1868, while Tricoupis was in his old character of defender of the Greek policy and interests. It happened that I went to see him again when the question of acceptance of the compromise on the frontier question was in the balance, and he said emphatically, sitting in the old arm-chair in that long reception-room, to me on the end of the divan, "Not only my Government, but no other Greek Government, *dare* accept that compromise. I mean war, and we shall fight if Turkey does not yield." Yet, two hours before, he had signed the reply of the Ministry to the diplomatic body accepting the compromise and keeping the peace. It was understood by every one that he acted under the dictation of the King and against his convictions, and, as afterward appeared, his interests. This time it was Tricoupis who refused to assent to insurrection or accept foreign dictation, and when the new elections came Coumoundouros was swept out of power and influence with a unanimity never before seen in Greece. He had typified and exemplified in political life all the worst and some of the best traits of the Greek character, and he fell without a hope of rising again—not so much because he was corrupt as because he had shown himself not to be the clever and far-seeing man the country had taken him for.

M. Coumoundouros entered public life in 1853, and the first notable incident of his career was the burning of the records of the commune under his care, by which he is accused of having profited indirectly—as, indeed, public scandal says he has done all through his public life, so that he has accumulated a fortune which, being mainly in real estate and hence easy to estimate, is known to amount to 2,000,000 francs, though he always declared that it was heavily mortgaged. His good luck is contrasted with that of Tricoupis, who, having begun with 500,000 francs left him by his father, has already spent the half of it in his public service, which no one even in Athens has ever accused of the least shade of corruption. Of Coumoundouros it was said, as has been said of other men in other countries, that he himself never stole, but cared not how much his friends stole. And when a man whose official emoluments were never, as Prime Minister even, above $2,000 a year, accumulated a fortune of $400,000 without ever having been known to embark in any business but politics, the Greeks have a clear right to assume that he profited by his friends' thieving.

TWO BIOGRAPHIES.

LONDON, March 11, 1883.

Two biographies of eminent men have lately appeared which in their several ways have attracted an unusual amount of notice. The first of these is the Life, or rather the third and concluding volume of the Life, of the late Samuel Wilberforce, Bishop first of Oxford and afterward of Winchester. In his own generation—the generation which is now just disappearing—he was one of the most conspicuous and remarkable figures—remarkable not more for the quantity of his powers than for their surprising variety. He was a good preacher and a still better platform speaker, who drew immense audiences wherever he went; moving men, and still more women, not so much by his argument as by his skill in touching the emotions. He was an unwearied ecclesiastical politician, always involved in discussions and controversies, sometimes, it was thought, in intrigues; without whom nothing was done in Convocation, nor, where Church interests were involved, in the House of Lords. In literature he was not idle, for besides producing a Life of his father, the famous philanthropist and abolitionist, he wrote religious tales, and not seldom contributed articles, whose anonymous character was soon stripped off, to the *Quarterly Review*. However, it was as a man of society that his fame was perhaps greatest. He was not merely a brilliant talker, full of anecdotes and ideas, admirably quick in repartee, but also, what many good talkers are not, a most agreeable companion, whose charm of manner could hardly be resisted even by those who came inclined to distrust him. There was a brightness and flow about his conversation, together with a sympathetic way of putting things, which made him more sought after for dinner parties, or as a guest at country houses, than any one else in England. There was probably no other public man, and certainly no other ecclesiastic, who was so constantly in the public eye, whose doings were watched with so much curiosity and excited so much controversy. In spite of his winning ways, he had many enemies; for he was a strong partisan, dealt hard blows, and was deemed, not only by his opponents, but by some of his friends, to be neither straightforward nor trustworthy. His abilities no one could deny. But was he sincere? Was he truthful? Was his ecclesiastical zeal the outcome of real religious feeling or only an engine of personal ambition? Could a man externally so worldly, and at least as welcome among worldlings as to the good, be really pious? These were the questions which the mention of his name never failed to raise, and which were debated with that zest which specially belongs to personal questions. However, even his enemies felt a kind of pride in so remarkable a contemporary; and his sudden death, caused by a fall from his horse while riding over a Surrey down in company with Lord Granville, in 1873, excited universal regret and stilled the voices of censure.

The first volume of his Life, which appeared some years ago, and was prepared by a respectable Anglican canon (since deceased), was dull and decorous. The second excited no great notice, but the third, which has just appeared, the work of one of his sons, has fallen like a bombshell among the ecclesiastical and political circles of London. The Bishop, it seems, kept a diary—another instance of the truth that it is the busiest men who do the extra work of life—and in this diary he recorded a great deal of the gossip which he heard, and which of course related to the people he lived with. The extracts from this gossip which his biographer has given to the world touch up these eminent persons with a freedom quite unusual in English books, however common it has become in English newspapers. Politicians and literary men come in for their share. But the oddest things are those which the Bishop writes, or reports, about his episcopal colleagues, and those more particularly who were preferred to him when the great sees of Canterbury and London were being filled up. In 1868, just before Mr. Disraeli's Government was defeated at the general election of that autumn, the Archbishop of Canterbury died, and Mr. Disraeli, as Prime Minister, had to choose a successor to the chair of Thomas Becket. He proposed a Bishop, still living, who had somehow gained his favor. The Queen, who interests herself a good deal in ecclesiastical appointments, rejected this nomination, and a pretty warm scene appears to have followed, the result of which was that the Bishop of London, Dr. Tait, was transferred to Canterbury, and the Bishop of Lincoln sent in his place to London. Bishop Wilberforce was naturally thought of by his friends for both vacancies, and could not help thinking of himself. Their condolences and his reflections are fully chronicled here, together with a narrative and criticism of Mr. Disraeli's behavior which has been painful reading for that great English party which, while reverencing the memory of Bishop Wilberforce, has erected Lord Beaconsfield into a sort of saintly hero. The whole incident is a curious illustration of the way in which the gravest ecclesiastical affairs are managed in England, and the wonder is that the results of such causes are not worse and more unworthy of a religious body than they turn out in practice.

For a month after this third volume of the Life appeared, we had a running fire in the newspapers of letters denying and complaining of the tales which the Bishop's diary and letters contained. The Archbishop of York, to whom Bishop Wilberforce bore no good will, began; bishops and deans and literary lights joined in, till the reader got the impression that nearly everything in the diary had been impeached. The biographer meanwhile coolly answered that it was his duty to use the materials he found, and that if people only knew how many lively things he had omitted which he might have printed, they would wonder at his self-restraint. The Bishop's reputation has certainly received a shock in the minds of those High Churchmen and Conservatives who chiefly cherished his memory. But those who had distrusted him while he lived have been led to think better of him now. For his diary and letters show that if he was full of weaknesses, ambitious, fond of praise, shifty, he was also warm-hearted, constant in his friendships, unquestionably sincere and earnest in his piety. If there was in him an element of what is commonly called humbug, there was at least no hypocrisy. The effusion of his sermons and confirmation addresses was genuine; and though he passed rapidly from it into an atmosphere of worldliness, this was a part of his curiously variable and impressionable nature, which felt the present keenly and forgot the recent past.

Wonderful, too, is the picture which the diary presents of the man's incessant activity in so many directions. Every day in the year had two or three, often four or five, engagements, many of them engagements which involved speeches or written sermons, and required hours of previous preparation. His whole time was bespoken weeks or months beforehand, and he bore this constant load of work not only without complaining, but obviously enjoying the sense of his own vitality and variety and importance which it gave him. It was such a life as can hardly be led anywhere but in England, where one metropolis gathers all the political and ecclesiastical leaders and all those who make up what is called society; and where people of great note are called upon to bear a part in almost every kind of work, and forced into contact with those who have come to the front in other walks than their own.

The other biography I have referred to at the beginning of this letter is like that of Bishop Wilberforce in one point only, that the career it describes is a typical one, and possible to an Englishman only. It is the Life of Lord Lawrence, the most famous of all those whom England has sent to conquer or rule in the East. He died four years ago, full of years and honors, and was buried in Westminster Abbey, where now a striking bust has been placed over his grave. The Life, which is the work of Mr. R. Bosworth Smith, known to literature as the author of books on Mohammed and on Carthage, is somewhat diffuse, but otherwise very well written. It contains a judicious selection from his letters and despatches, with a powerful narrative of the stirring events in which he bore a part. As a rule, Indian exploits are little known in England. Though the nation is proud of ruling so vast and populous an empire, it knows very little about the East, does not read much on the subject, and imperfectly understands what it reads. Persons who have played a great part in India, and whose merits and faults are perfectly familiar to every European who has lived in India, often remain unknown to the English public, and when they return home are disgusted to find how little they are considered. Lawrence is in our own time almost the only conspicuous exception to this rule. He came from the North of Ireland, whose half-Irish, half-Scotch population has contributed a good many eminent persons to British history. At nineteen he went to India, in the service of the old East India Company, rose through the various grades of office without gaining any reputation beyond that of an energetic and conscientious man, whose work was always well done, and in 1846 attracted the notice of Lord Hardinge, then Governor-General, who sent him to administer a large district in Northwestern India, recently taken from the Sikhs, whence, after the second Sikh war, he passed on to the government of the Punjab, that vast territory, inhabited by warlike tribes and surrounded by dangerous neighbors, which lies between the Indus and the Sutlej. Here his magnificent talents for administration were speedily revealed. He established perfect order through the province, resettled its agricultural system, planned and carried out splendid public works, and, in spite of the expenses of this reorganization, succeeded in raising a considerable surplus revenue. The lately conquered population became contented and loyal, and, while the Governor formed native regiments from among them, he managed to surround himself with a band of subordinate British officials whose like for capacity and energy India had never before known. The result was seen when the great crisis of the Mutiny came in 1857. When the wave of rebellion swept over the rest of Northern and Central India, the Punjab alone remained quiet. Wherever symptoms of danger appeared, they were promptly suppressed by Lawrence and his lieutenants, and suppressed so completely that he was able to strip his province almost bare of British soldiers and military stores, sending all its resources against the rebel army which had seized Delhi. It was, in fact, from the Punjab and by Lawrence that Delhi was recovered and the tide of fortune turned. He was hailed both in the East and at home as the saviour of India, and, after some years, received the honor, almost unprecedented in the case of an Indian civilian, of being named Governor-General.

The great interest of his career, apart from that which belongs to his singularly lofty and simple character, centres in two points, which make him a sort of model for those who are called to rule over inferior races. He took infinite pains to know the natives, and did succeed in acquiring an extraordinary knowledge of them, their ideas and habits. He lived among them in his earlier days almost as one of themselves, constantly traversing his district in the saddle, and deciding their disputes in a patriarchal sort of way. And he combined unshrinking firmness with the most scrupulous justice, gaining by the display of these two qualities a reputation which made him feared and respected by the natives over all India as few Europeans have ever been in the East. The English Empire in India rests more upon the personal ascendancy of the ruling race than upon material force; and this ascendancy was in his case acquired not by any single exploit, such as those of Clive, but by the impression, derived from his peaceful though energetic administration, of an inflexible will and an equally inflexible rectitude. He was as near an approach to a hero as it is possible for official life to produce; and he retained to the end of his days the truly heroic virtue of perfect simplicity. No contrast could be greater than between this externally grim and severe, yet really genial and warm-hearted, man, with his Spartan manners, blunt and unadorned speech, his directness, his tenacity of purpose and consistency of ideas, and the bright, witty, eloquent Bishop, fond of display, of novelty, anxious to be all things to all men, dazzling his contemporaries, but leaving no mark either on the literature or in the history of his country. Y.

MARIVAUX.—II.

PARIS, March 1, 1883.

THE relations of Marivaux with the philosophers form a curious chapter in the literary history of the eighteenth century. Voltaire was in Paris on the 8th of June, 1732, the day of the first representation of the "Serments indiscrets," and he wrote to M. de Fourmont, to whom he announced the bringing out of this play: "You may be sure that there is much metaphysics in it, and little *naturel*: the *cafés* will applaud, but honest people will understand nothing." In the famous "Pucelle," Voltaire speaks with contempt of the

"Vers de Danchet, prose de Marivaux."

Marivaux took his revenge when he could. "M. de Voltaire," he once said, "is the perfection of common ideas"; and again, "M. de Voltaire is the first man in the world for writing what others have thought." But Marivaux had a generous nature. When, in 1735, Voltaire's 'Lettres philosophiques' had made their appearance, a bookseller, knowing the feelings of Marivaux, asked him to write a refutation of them, and offered him five hundred livres—a large sum for the time. Marivaux refused. Voltaire, hearing of it, wrote a letter very flattering to Marivaux: "I should be sorry to count among my enemies a man of his character. I respect his *esprit* and his probity. There is in all his works a character of philosophy, of humanity, of independence; it is true that I sometimes wish for a style less *recherché* and for more noble subjects," etc. The bookseller offered double the sum to Marivaux, and Voltaire for a moment became very much alarmed. He was very nervous; he lost his temper. "Let this miserable man gain money, like so many others, by throwing insults at me; it is just that the author of the 'Voiture embourbée,' of the 'Télémaque travesti,' of the 'Paysan parvenu,' should write against the author of the 'Henriade.'" Voltaire was needlessly alarmed, as Marivaux had refused again, in the most decided manner, to make a refutation of the 'Philosophical Letters.'

This was all the more meritorious in that Marivaux did not share the views of Voltaire; he had a liberal mind, but he had retained religious sentiments—he did not like the intolerance of the philosophical school; he laughed at the "esprits forts." One evening, at Madame de Tencin's, Bolingbroke, who was at the same time very irreligious and very superstitious, made a great profession of anti-religious ideas. "If you do not believe," said Marivaux to him, "it is not for want of faith." At another time, a discussion took place before Fontenelle and him as to the nature and essence of the soul. Somebody asked Fontenelle to give an opinion. "You are wasting your time," said Marivaux; "M. de Fontenelle has too much *esprit* to know more than I do myself on the subject." He once said: "I only know that the soul is spiritual and immortal, and I know nothing more." It will not surprise those who live in 1883, that the expression of such ideas required some courage in Marivaux's time, in a society completely imbued with the ideas of the philosophers. Helvetius was a materialist and an atheist, and he was among the most intimate friends of Marivaux. "I like my repose," said Marivaux to Madame de Tencin, "and I respect the repose of others." He avoided quarrelling, but he could not avoid criticism; he bore it more patiently than Voltaire and Montesquieu and Beaumarchais. The eighteenth century had great powers for fighting; it is full of the battles of the Desfontaines, the Frérons, the Marins. "Everybody," said Marivaux, "has his own delicacies of self-love; mine go so far as to believe that some people cannot even offend me." Once, however, Marivaux was obliged to give blow for blow. Crébillon, *fils*, the too celebrated author of 'Tanzaï et Néadarné' (Paris, 1734), a novel full of allusions to Cardinal de Rohan and the Duchesse du Maine, parodied Marivaux in a novel called 'L'Écumoire.' Crébillon, in this licentious novel, imitated the subtle style of Marivaux. In his 'Paysan parvenu,' Marivaux took his revenge, and criticised the manner of Crébillon, the license of the 'Sopha,' the bad use he made of his natural talent. This page shows that, if he had taken the trouble, Marivaux could have been an excellent critic and a dangerous polemic.

Marivaux consoled himself for his ruin in the best society; he was the constant guest of certain literary salons. Some of his contemporaries accuse him of having had too nervous a sensibility. Grimm, who was always severe, says of him: "The most innocent words wound him, and he easily supposes that people wish to mortify him." Collé says that Marivaux needed to be treated like a woman, constantly flattered like a young beauty. D'Alembert says that he was touchy, but as ready to pardon as to take offence. President Hénault, who was probably the best and the most impartial judge, says that Marivaux was a little "pointilleux." A little susceptibility did not deprive him of a number of

charming qualities. His conversation was original, witty, in the style of his writings. He was not very *naturel;* he had a great horror of commonplaces. Sainte-Beuve justly says that "there is a certain public, a certain order of minds, on whom the ingenious *harcellement* of the lovers of Marivaux can take no hold." It was probably so with his conversation; but he had his own public, and he has it still.

Marivaux remained to the end a man of the world; the world was his study, his school, his inspiration. He was neat in his dress, fond of an elegant simplicity; he liked the society of women. At Madame de Lambert's and Madame de Tencin's he was almost at home, as well as Fontenelle; he was also a constant guest at Madame du Deffand's. He was not so much at ease at Madame Geoffrin's, as she was a little too tyrannical. Toward the end of his life, he was often seen at Madame du Boccage's. Marmontel tells us, in his amusing memoirs, that there was always a circle round him. Madame de Tencin was very devoted to him. Piron, in some light verses sent to her on New Year's Day, says:

"Tenez-vous en de grâce à vos sept sages,
A Mirabaud, Mairan, Boze et Duclos,
A Fontenelle, Astruc et Marivaux."

At the age of fifty, Marivaux did not yet belong to the French Academy, though La Chaussée, Destouches, Danchet were "immortals." He was too modest, too proud, at the same time. Madame de Tencin and Fontenelle at last succeeded in overcoming his resistance, and he became a candidate in 1742, on the death of the perpetual secretary, the unknown Abbé Houtteville. Madame de Tencin began the campaign. She wrote to the Duc de Richelieu, who had a great influence over Louis XV. The name of Voltaire having been pronounced (he did not, however, come forward openly as a candidate), a great quarrel began between the *dévots* and the philosophers. Marivaux was elected unanimously, but there was a great shower of songs and of satires against the Academy. D'Alembert tells us that it was commonly said in the *cafés* that "Marivaux would have been better placed in the Academy of Sciences, as inventor of a new idiom, than in the French Academy, the language of which he did not understand." In the *Journal de Police,* which follows Barbier's Journal, we read:

"Pour couronner ses travaux,
Fontenelle met Marivaux
A la célèbre Académie;
N'a-t-il donc tant vécu que pour cette infamie?"

Voltaire was at the head of the cabal. Was it not horrible that the doors of the Academy should not have opened themselves at once to the author of the 'Henriade' and of 'Zaïre'? Voltaire was not yet, in 1742, the great god of the eighteenth century. Marivaux took no part in the great quarrel; he really felt that too much honor had been paid him. He took his seat on the 4th of February, 1743, and was received by the Archbishop of Sens, Languet de Gergy. The Archbishop was obliged to speak well, in the name of the famous company, of comedies which he was supposed never to have seen and of novels which he was supposed never to have read. He did not play his part well: he contented himself with speaking of the private qualities of Marivaux; he praised his amiability, his modesty; he criticised a little his "marivaudage"; he said such things as these: "Those who have read your works say that . . . the celebrated La Bruyère seems to live again in you. . . . Such are the ideas, I am assured, which are spread in a number of writings, of novels, of comedies, of amusing pamphlets, which you have given to the public with a prodigious fecundity." The Archbishop blamed Marivaux for having given descriptions of the passions of mankind, which, in his opinion, were always dangerous.

"I have learned," said he, "that you proposed to yourself as your object a wise morality, inimical to vice; but, on your way, you stopped often at tender and passionate adventures, and, while you propose to yourself to combat licentious love, you paint it with such candid and tender colors that you make on your reader an impression different from what you wished to do—your descriptions are so natural that they become seducing. The ingenuous picture of human weaknesses is more apt to awake passion than to calm it. Whatever may be your precepts, a young man will acquire from your descriptions more taste for vice than your morals can inspire in him for virtue; and your 'Paysan parvenu,' who is carried to fortune by his intrigues, will in vain preach a modesty and a reserve which he has not practised."

This singular eulogy (and I have only given a small part of it) put Marivaux quite beside himself; he was on the point of asking immediately some sort of reparation of the Academy, but, fortunately, he kept his temper. When we read now the 'Paysan parvenu,' it is impossible to deny that there was some truth in the remarks of the Archbishop. We cannot, certainly, classify Marivaux as a licentious author; but if we study the history of the French novel in the eighteenth century (and there can hardly be a more interesting study), we see that from Lesage and his 'Gil Blas' to the indecent novels of the end of the century, there is a continuous march toward immorality. Marivaux, with his 'Marianne' and his 'Paysan parvenu,' the Abbé Prévost, with his 'Manon Lescaut,' are, unconsciously, the predecessors of Duclos, of Crébillon, *fils,* and of Rêtif de La Bretonne.

Madame de Tencin did not content herself with making Marivaux an Academician: she gave him an apartment near Saint-Roch, near her own hôtel; she took care of him as of a child. He had nothing to live upon but the product of his pen, and he could say with Marmontel: "The man who makes shoes is sure of his wages; the man who makes books is never sure of anything." He was unpractical, and somewhat indifferent to his own fate. When he lost Madame de Tencin, he was obliged to accept Madame de Pompadour as a benefactor. The favorite had doubled his pension of fifteen hundred livres. Marivaux did not know at first that he owed this augmentation to her; he found it out by an indiscretion of Voisenon's, and the discovery was very painful. He spent his last years with the philosophy of a Christian philosopher; he lived with an old friend, Mlle. de Saint-Jean. He died almost in obscurity, and the journals of the time take no notice of the event. Grimm gives only a few cold lines to it. Posterity has placed Marivaux in the forefront of the second-rate dramatists; he comes immediately after the group formed by Corneille, Racine, Molière. He has qualities which have been found inimitable. His place will always be preserved in what we call the "répertoire" of the French theatre. His strange idealism; his elegant unreality; his imaginative and dreamy turn of mind; his dialogue, which reminds one of the conversations of birds or insects in an enchanted garden; his exquisite art in the analysis of chaste, noble, and restrained passion, will always give him a chosen place in French literature.

Correspondence.

THE SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In last week's *Nation* (No. 923) President Magoun, of Iowa College, accuses me of "following the old exaggeration" about the preponderance of Roman Catholic influence in the early settlement of Maryland, and makes the curious suggestion that my paper on "The Migrations of the American Colonists," in the *Century Magazine,* could hardly have been written after the publication of Doyle's 'English Colonies' and Bancroft's "Last Revision"! But the well-guarded statements made in that article in regard to the Maryland settlement—which statements Dr. Magoun cites in a fragmentary and rather exasperating way—were founded upon the original authorities. Of these authorities, I do not see that either Mr. Bancroft or Mr. Doyle has any monopoly.

I am not concerned to prove that the Catholics were more numerous than the Protestants among the emigrants, but that "in its motive and mainspring the *first* Maryland settlement was Roman Catholic." If Dr. Magoun doubts this, let him take the cautious, but very explicit, statement of the motive of his expedition put forth in the "Declaratio" of Cecil, Lord Baltimore, himself:

"First, and especially, in order that he may carry thither, and to the neighboring places, . . . the Light of the Gospel and of the Truth."

And further on:

"The first and most important design of the Most Illustrious Baron, which also ought to be the aim of the rest, who go in the same ship, is, not to think so much of planting fruits and trees . . . as of sowing the seeds of Religion and piety."

When a Roman Catholic speaks in this vein, we are warranted in saying that the motive and mainspring of his action are religious—that is, Roman Catholic.

The controversy is by no means a new one, nor is it one that will be settled by passages from Bancroft's "Last Revision"—certainly not by President Magoun's absurdly irrelevant citation from Doyle. This is one of those unhappy historical questions that have become entangled with religious prejudices; and as the records are pretty meagre, it bids fair to be debated to the end of time. In 1866, the Rev. Ethan Allen, D.D., published an able paper in the *American Quarterly Church Review,* setting forth more strongly than my critic does what may be called the Protestant side of the question, though it is pitiful to have to confess that there is a Protestant and a Catholic side to what should be merely a question of historic fact. A recent paper by the Rev. E. D. Neill, which I cannot find in the New York Historical Society's Library, and of which my own copy is out of my reach at this writing, presents the evidence on Dr. Magoun's side of this question more completely than any other document I know, and presents the very testimony upon which Mr. Bancroft probably has based the statement cited in Dr. Magoun's letter.

But when we consider that the *first* settlement—and it is explicitly of the first settlement that I spoke—contained no clergymen but Jesuits; that the various parts of the ship were put under the protection of God, the Virgin, St. Ignatius, and all the guardian angels of Maryland (*omnium angelorum Marylandiæ*); that Father White, in prayer during a storm, declares the purpose of the voyage to be "to raise up a kingdom for the Saviour"; that the colony was named for a Catholic Queen, who was already objectionable to Protestants; that islands, promontories, and rivers took on the names of saints, so that even the Potomac masqueraded for a brief space as "St. Gregory's"; that a mass was said and a cross erected at the first landing, there can be no doubt that the Catholic was the dominant influence. That the Lord-

proprietary, Governor, and Secretary of the province—the latter appointed some years after the settlement—were Catholics, will not be denied. I do not say that the Protestants were all, but that they were "*for the most part*, people of no great consequence, and without strong religious convictions and purposes." The fact that they lived in Maryland for sixteen years without a clergyman is sufficient evidence of the truth of this proposition. They may have outnumbered the Catholics at the start, and they certainly did out-count them a short time afterward, and in their number were included some men of station; but proprietary and official influence, and an unflagging zeal in proselyting, made Roman Catholicism powerful and successful while Maryland Protestantism remained yet little more than a name.

I write this letter at a great disadvantage: all my notes and references are two hundred miles away; but I see no reason to doubt the soundness of my conclusions in regard to Maryland. On reading over the Jesuit Relation of 1656, I am not sure but that in a single point I am inexact. Without consulting my notes, I cannot be sure that the phrase, "sending one of them in irons to England," on page 731 of the magazine, is a mistaken reference to the disposition made of Father White, which took place after Ingle's invasion. If so, it is one of those inaccuracies which seem inevitable even with most vigilant writers of history, and which, though quite unimportant in their reference to the main question, are nevertheless humiliating.

EDWARD EGGLESTON.

MARCH 15, 1883.

BACON AND SHAKSPERE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mrs. Henry Pott's lately-published edition of Lord Bacon's 'Promus,' the lady—evidently a most industrious and intelligent scholar, whatever we may think of her theory—makes much of the fact she alleges, that "the forms 'good-morrow,' 'good-night,' 'bon-jour,' now seem so commonplace that without these notes to draw attention to them it would probably not strike any one that they were new in the time of Shakespeare, still less that they were of Bacon's introduction; yet this appears to be the case." And elsewhere Mrs. Pott enlarges upon this singular theme, going so far as to say, in one place, that these "forms of salutation . . . were, so far as can be ascertained, unknown here three hundred years ago." At the end of her book Mrs. Pott gives a list of nearly six thousand works that have been carefully read, "with a view to ascertaining whether or not the literature of the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries contains all or any of the turns of expression, similes, proverbs, *morning and evening salutations*, quotations, etc., which are entered in Bacon's 'Promus.'" Among the writers quoted in this list is Chaucer, all of whose poetical works are mentioned by name. Yet, without going far, the following lines come to the memory (they are all taken from "The Knight's Tale"):

> "The besy lark, the messager of day,
> Saleweth in hire song the morrow gray."
>
> "There n'as no good day, ne no saluing."
>
> "And home went every man the righte way,
> There n'as no more, but farewel, have good day."

The first of these quotations would seem to imply the existence of a general custom, of which the other two give particular illustrations.

On page 47, in connection with the same subject, Mrs. Pott mentions the word "Albada," noted by Bacon in the 'Promus,' and does not seem to be aware—though I apologize for the suggestion—that it is the original of the French "Aubade"=a morning serenade, just as "Alba"=the dawn, from which it is derived, is the original of the French "Aube." Littré quotes Villon for the use of "Aubade."

At the risk of making this communication too long, I would add that I do not find the resemblance between the following two passages—the one in "Hamlet," the other in Montaigne—pointed out by any of the commentators on Shakspere; but, though it be a trifle, may it not be worth noting?

"*Hamlet* [to *Polonius*]. My lord, you played once i' the university, you say?

"*Polonius*. That did I, my lord, and was accounted a good actor." ("Hamlet," Act iii., sc. 2.)

"I have under-gone and represented the chiefest parts in the Latin Tragedies of Buchanan, Guerenti, and of Muret; which in great state were acted and plaid in our colledge of Guienne: . . . and my selfe (without ostentation be it spoken) was reputed, if not a chiefe master, yet a principall Actor in them." (Montaigne, Essays, Book 1, 'Of the Institution and Education of Children,' Florio's Trans., 2d ed., 1613.)

In the sentence that introduces the passage in Montaigne, quoted above, there are turns of expression, and something in the sense, that recalls the Advice of Hamlet to the Players. "Shall I," says Montaigne, "account or relate this qualitie of my infancie, which was a kinde of boldnesse in my lookes, and gentle softnesse in my voice, and affabilitie in my gestures, and a dexteritie in conforming myselfe to the parts I undertooke?"

The edition of Florio's Montaigne I quote from is the second. The book first appeared in 1603, and it is in a copy of this first edition, now in the British Museum, that Shakspere's name is written; and whether he owned this particular copy, and wrote his name in it with his own hand, or not, we know, from *Gonzalo's* speech in "The Tempest" (Act. ii., sc. 1), that he had read the essay, "Of the Cannibals." And although Florio's translation was not published until 1603, the year in which the First Quarto "Hamlet" appeared, yet, as was common enough at that time, the MS. may have circulated for some time previous to its publication. The passage I have quoted is differently worded in the First and Second Quartos. The Second Quarto was published in 1604, and in this the passage is settled in its present accepted form.

In the long list of authors quoted by Mrs. Henry Pott in her recent edition of Lord Bacon's 'Promus,' Florio is, strangely enough, not to be found. Nor is the 'Arcadia' of Sidney mentioned, though his Poems and Sonnets are. But Florio's Montaigne and Sidney's 'Arcadia' offer vocabularies rich in Shaksperian words and turns of expression, and would well reward the miner for his search.—Truly yours, C. C.

NEW YORK, March 17, 1883.

WOMEN'S INTEREST IN PUBLIC AFFAIRS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* notices the complaint of "C. P. W.," in *Lippincott's*, "that a woman will abandon herself with painstaking assiduity to the study of early Italian art, . . . and lapse into a state of placid speechlessness if some subject is introduced into conversation like the latest election, the defeat of Arabi, or the Irish troubles"; and adds that "the type of woman who will discuss matters of the same kind and in the same way that men do . . . is still to come." All which is very true; and it might further say that the feminine type suggested never *will* come till women, like men, are made to feel that they have a personal interest and responsibility relating to the administration of public affairs. Whenever, as in notable instances in England and France, women have had the opportunity to wield political influence, they have readily mastered the situation. But the great mass of women grow up with the feeling that they have nothing to do with public affairs, taking what political opinions they have unquestioned from father, brother, or husband. And when, as time goes on, these props are removed, they are left floundering in helpless bewilderment, incapable, to a great degree, of apprehending the bearing and significance of current events, and thus debarred from intelligent discourse upon them.

The woman, indeed, who reads but one newspaper, and pins her faith to it, will chatter all day without doubt or misgiving; and it is "C. P. W.'s" "intellectual" woman who is perplexed. So long as she reads only the *Tribune*, she thinks she understands the tariff; but when she takes in the *Nation* and Professor Sumner, she is all afloat; and so with numberless other questions. Men, accustomed all their lives to consider these things, and forced to practical decision, and who have daily opportunity to discuss them with other well-informed men, can have no idea how difficult it is for most women to know what to believe respecting passing events and present issues, to evolve *the truth* amid conflicting sources and statements. What marvel that her fancy

> "Seeks
> Some solid ground to rest upon,"

and delves into the most abstruse and recondite themes if they only rest upon an assured foundation? That women, under such circumstances, choose to hold their tongues rather than discuss matters they do not understand, shows a reserved power which has not been credited to them, and *almost* demonstrates their ability to understand such matters if they fairly gave their minds to it. What they need is a stronger motive than mere desire for information—a sense of *personal obligation* that will make them feel that they have patriotic as well as domestic, social, and religious duties. The woman's-rights advocates claim that a *ballot* in their hands will furnish the stimulus, but cannot goad them on to demand and use it, and all their arguments and appeals from the standpoint of right and privilege have had far less obvious results than a simple suggestion from Mrs. Doremus. The appeal to duty and Christian obligation has enrolled multitudes of women in efficient organizations, reaching into the most distant corners of our own land, carrying Christian institutions and influences into thousands of heathen homes, and at the same time marvellously developing and strengthening the women engaged in them. And when the right chord is touched, and these conscientious American women are thoroughly convinced that their participation in public affairs will tend to the good of the nation and the maintenance of its institutions, we may be sure that they will rise to the occasion, and heartily carry forward what they see to be their duty. And when that time comes, they will be able to discourse upon public questions, even if not "in the same way that men do." E. D. L.

MARCH 15, 1883.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL IN ATHENS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The opening of the American School for classical studies at Athens is a most praiseworthy effort to free American scholarship from a charge to which it has been only too justly liable.

It is a fact, which none can deny, that the study of classical archæology has not received

enough attention from American scholars, whatever may be said in explanation of such neglect, and however much some may be disposed to question the utility of such study at all, or the propriety of spending American money for such an object. To the Archæological Institute of America, as the *Nation* has justly observed, is due the entire credit of initiating this movement, which has already received the hearty approval and coöperation of many of our best institutions, and which, it is most earnestly to be hoped, will be generously and promptly sustained by all true lovers of classical studies in America.

The energy and zeal with which Professor Goodwin has set to work, the personal inconvenience and annoyance to which he has patiently submitted, and the sacrifice of time, strength, and money which he has so cheerfully made, in the performance of this task, are beyond all praise, and can be fully appreciated only by those who know Professor Goodwin and have had some experience in the ways of the East—who have been so imprudent and unsophisticated as to try to do anything quickly, cheaply, and well, in these lands of the eternal "to-morrow," foreordained backshish, and that exasperating refuge of lies and carelessness, "it does not make any difference." It is superfluous to say that the School has been organized, and set agoing, with the hearty good-will of all who are able to appreciate its object, or near enough to see what has been accomplished. There have been weekly readings, by the students, of carefully prepared papers, on Wednesdays; weekly translations, by Professor Goodwin, from Æschylus, a self-imposed task, on Fridays; while on Saturdays, for some time, the whole school together made visits to the principal points of interest in and about Athens—Professor Goodwin himself, or some one of the students who had made special study of these points, acting as cicerone for the day. Any one who can return to the study or teaching of the classics, after such exercises as these, and not have his interest in them greatly stimulated, might as well despair of ever feeling an increased interest in anything.

It would be unreasonable to compare an enterprise so young with the long-existing French and German sister institutions, and unkind to criticise too closely an arrangement which is confessedly only temporary and tentative. The object of this letter is to do neither the one nor the other, but only to make some remarks which, it is humbly hoped, will be of some little use in exciting an immediate and increased interest in the institution, and to offer, at the same time, some suggestions which may help its founders somewhat in the further and more perfect organization of the same, and the attainment of their most worthy object.

Of course, earnest efforts should be made to secure, so soon as possible, sufficient money to buy or build a suitable house in which not only, as now, the director should live, and a room be furnished for the library, etc., but also some rooms be available for the use of the students. This last will be a desirable addition. Both the French and the German school have a few such rooms, and any one who knows anything about the conditions of living in Athens is aware how very different these are from what one finds in Germany for instance—how hard it is to find lodgings at all in the most desirable localities; how dear they are in the hotels; and how poor the accommodations elsewhere. It is almost impossible to get into a Greek family. The testimony of all students, past and present, will be unanimous on these matters. The building at present occupied is in many respects, as to situation and size, at least, a most desirable one, and, so long as a house is to be rented, it would be exceedingly unfortunate to give it up; possibly it might be the best one to buy. The Greek Government, however, would, no doubt, gladly give a lot for the erection of a building, if that was thought most desirable and the funds were on hand.

But a far more important matter than this is the securing at once of money enough to employ, or at least begin to prepare, a permanent director, or one who shall hold the position for a term of years. Professor Goodwin, who is by general consent a grammarian of the very first rank, has always insisted that he was not a professional archæologist; and we cannot readily believe that he knows less on this subject than most of those who will be likely to succeed him. Yet archæology, embracing geography, topography, architecture, inscriptions, pottery, and numismatics, is *one* of the branches which the School has, or should have, prominently before it, not, however, to the depreciation of literature and art; and it is the one branch which can be studied with especial advantage at Athens or in Greece. In the departments, however, of art and archæology, Prof. Goodwin has often confessed himself to be "a blind leader of the blind." This was naturally to be expected of any American professor up to this time, even the most accomplished, and is pardonable *during the first year*. But should one of the students remain next year, or in any future year—which is not only not impossible, but probable, on the present rotary, Democratic (or Republican lately deceased) system—the new director might not find it very pleasant to be confronted each day with a young man seeking his assistance or advice, who knew more than he did, or at least was not quite so blind as himself.

Aside from this, however, the School would, without such permanent direction, not only never be able to do anything real, or worthy of comparison with the other schools, in archæological research, but it would have at the head of it a series of gentlemen who would be the first to confess that they were neither able to teach others anything about art and archæology, nor even themselves capable of deriving full benefit from a stay in Athens without some assistance and special study of these subjects.

Familiarity with archæological literature in French, German, and Greek is to be presupposed in such a director, but a moderate ability to use the modern Greek practically is absolutely indispensable, unless he is to be placed at the mercy of servants, guides, or his newly-made friends, all which implies a waste of time and money, and a degree of dependence and obligation which it is not pleasant to contemplate. It would, no doubt, be a grand thing for the professors of all these coöperating colleges (and others, too) to have the benefit of a year's study and travel in Athens and Greece, and it is to be hoped that they will still be permitted to come on the present plan; but assuredly they will not profit less by having some one to assist them in that branch of the work with which they will of necessity be somewhat unfamiliar.

The first, most important, and indispensable thing, then, to make the School a success, by the example of existing schools, common consent of its friends on the ground, and common sense of those who are not, is a permanent director, or co-director, who shall give continuity to the life of the School, who shall have given special attention to the study of art and archæology, and who shall be able to speak modern Greek, be familiar with the names of places, men, and things, and whose past experience shall be a treasury, or sort of reserve fund, for the School upon which each fresh company of indigent Americans may draw at sight. Possibly the man for this position would have to be prepared by a year or two in Germany, but it is to be hoped that as little precious time will be lost as possible. The plan here advocated is not a change of the present one, but only a necessary supplement to it. Without such a director, whose services will extend over a term of years, the School will inevitably become, after a few years, ridiculous in the eyes of all whose opinions are worth consideration. For it will look like children at play planting sticks in the sand and pulling them up every five minutes to look at the *roots*, and the few students who pass through it will be the first to condemn it as a useless piece of machinery.

There is also large room for liberality in the library. A good beginning has been made, and the comfort and convenience afforded the students by this alone would warrant all the expenses so far incurred for the School; but still, a great deal of valuable time is lost running around to the German, French, and Greek libraries to secure books they need, and which they should find in their own. Is there not money enough in America among the friends of the School to correct this too? These evident deficiencies in an excellent enterprise it is confidently believed will not long be left unsupplied by American liberality. It is not a distinguishing feature of our countrymen, at home or abroad, to allow themselves to be outstripped by others in anything that money and enterprise will do, still less to fall into contempt for the lack of anything that money can buy.

It would also, perhaps, save no inconsiderable embarrassment, criticism, and pain to future directors if it was distinctly understood that the traditions of our American colleges in regard to the Sabbath, which are fortunately uniform, should be followed here. As is well known, European habits and customs differ in this regard radically from our own, and Greece is ahead of all other Continental countries in Sabbath desecration. Not only are balls given on the Sabbath, but it is not thought improper for students and professors with their wives to attend them. The School would usually be invited to these, at the Palace and elsewhere, as a body, or, at least, the director as a representative. Now, while one director might not on principle object to accepting such an invitation, and, in his private capacity, feel at liberty to do so, another might find himself unable to do so, and obliged to refuse. Some confusion and misunderstanding would be sure to arise from such inconsistent action. Some of the students have had to *act* such refusals already, for themselves, under circumstances in which to make an explanation would have been very awkward, if it was not impossible. It is to be hoped that the School will not have many friends who would care to see this unanimous tradition of our colleges trampled under foot.

Having already encroached too largely upon the space of your valuable paper,

I hasten to subscribe myself,

A Well Wisher.

Athens, February 22, 1883.

THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have before me the 'Histoire de la Louisiane,' by M. Barbé-Marbois, with the map referred to by General Walker in his letter to the *Nation* of last week. The map and the accompanying text would seem to close this discussion regarding the limits of Louisiana on the west forever and beyond a peradventure, but not as apparently suggested by General Walker. Upon page 311 of the 'Histoire' M. Barbé-Marbois writes concerning the want of precise definition of limits in the treaty:

"Il importe en effet de ne pas introduire dans les traités des clauses ambigues; cependant les plénipotentiaires américains ne firent plus d'ob-

jections ; et si, en paraissant se résigner à ces termes généraux comme à une nécessité, ils les trouvèrent en effet préférables à des stipulations plus précises, il faut convenir que l'événement a justifié leur prévoyance. *Les côtes de la mer de l'Ouest n'étaient certainement pas comprises dans la cession, mais déjà les États-Unis y sont établis.*" (The italics are mine.)

This not only expresses clearly what the French Plenipotentiary believed he was doing, or, rather, what he was not doing, but explains the legends upon the map. The colored area comprises, as indicated by its legend, the "addition to the United States by the treaty and by its effects"; its effects being the occupation by the United States of the "contiguous unsettled territory" on the west of the purchase. The purchase and the effect thereof are then separately defined by the two subordinate legends, the former of which, as quoted, defines the purchase as extending to the 110th meridian (which, in the crude condition of geographical knowledge fifty-five years ago, may have been supposed to roughly outline the Mississippi basin on the west) ; and the latter—"territories and countries occupied by the United States, following the treaty of cession of Louisiana"—defines the region which fell into our hands, not as a part of the purchase, but, to a certain extent, as a natural result of it.—Very truly yours,

HENRY GANNETT.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 17, 1883.

GOETHE'S "EAGLE AND DOVE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In Conway's 'Emerson at Home and Abroad,' recently noticed by you, a chapter which takes its title from Goethe's poem, "The Eagle and the Dove," contains a translation of that poem in which the last few lines, conveying its point, are so rendered as completely to invert their sense and that of the poem itself. The last line Mr. Conway makes to read thus :

"O Wisdom, ever thou speakest as a dove."

In the original, the word "wisdom" is an ironical ejaculation, followed in all editions—I have in hand four—by a mark of exclamation ; the English word "ever" has no German equivalent, but is inserted quite gratuitously ; and the word "thou" is addressed, not to Wisdom, but, in derision, to the silly bird who could find contentment in a bush.

Goethe is gone, and his memory should be protected. As Carlyle reminded others, he was "not in the least a spooney." Neither was Mr. Emerson.—Yours, B. B.

BROOKLYN, March 12, 1883.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. will shortly publish two English works: 'Retrospect of a Long Life,' 1815–1883, by S. C. Hall; and a 'Glossary of Terms and Phrases,' by the Rev. H. Percy Smith, one more effort to supplement the common dictionary and the encyclopædia.

Mr. W. W. Newell's 'Games and Songs of American Children,' announced by Harper & Bros., promises to be an original work of no slight interest and scholarship. The same house will publish a collection of short stories by Sherwood Bonner, called 'Dialect Tales.'

Renan's charming 'Recollections of My Childhood and Youth' will be published simultaneously by Calmann Lévy in Paris, Chapman & Hall in London, and G. P. Putnam's Sons in New York.

A series of lectures on 'The English Novel, and the Principle of its Development,' almost the last work of the late Sidney Lanier, is in the press of Chas. Scribner's Sons. They also announce 'In the Shadow of the Pyrenees,' an illustrated book of travel by the Rev. Marvin R. Vincent; 'Music in England and America,' by Dr. F. L. Ritter; a new and extensively revised edition of Dr. S. Wells Williams's 'Middle Kingdom'; and 'Chats about Books,' by Mayo W. Hazeltine, consisting of this writer's book reviews in the New York *Sun*.

Messrs. G. L. Gomme and H. B. Wheatley have undertaken to reprint a series of the chapbooks or penny histories in vogue in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and even earlier, using the earliest editions, with outline representations of their quaint woodcuts (why not facsimile?). They will be handsomely brought out, each complete in itself, with a prefatory note and some editing. Each series will cost a guinea. The first includes The Seven Wise Masters of Rome (Wynkyn de Worde, 1505); Patient Grisel (seventeenth century); Thomas Hickathrift; Mother Bunch of the West (seventeenth century); and Sir Richard Whittington (seventeenth century). The edition is small. Mr. Gomme's address is 2 Park Villas, Lonsdale Road, Barnes, S. W., London.

In our recent notice of 'The Woods and Timbers of North Carolina,' we made an error in regard to the publishers, who are Messrs. E. J. Hale & Son, of this city.

The two latest volumes in the Riverside edition of Hawthorne's works (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) are 'The Scarlet Letter' and 'The Blithedale Romance,' bound together, and 'The Marble Faun.' Mr. Lathrop's introductions, particularly to 'The Scarlet Letter,' are full of curious personal revelations concerning the novelist. The edition, in twelve volumes, is now half completed.

Miss Gordon Cumming's 'At Home in Fiji,' and Frances M. Whitcher's 'The Widow Bedott Papers,' have been brought out in new editions—the former cheapened—by A. C. Armstrong & Son.

The *Library Journal* for February contains an 'Index to some Recent Reference Lists,' by H. J. Carr, directing to the bibliographical sources of over one hundred prominent topics. In the same issue is begun a department of 'Literature for the Young,' edited by Miss C. M. Hewins, librarian of the Hartford Library Association.

In the *Magazine of American History* for March Mr. De Costa discusses the journey of one of Hawkins's sailors, David Ingram, from the Gulf of Mexico to the Bay of Fundy in 1567–69, and prints Ingram's narrative from the MS. in the Bodleian Library. Mr. A. P. C. Griffin contributes a bibliography of the discovery of the Mississippi.

Mr. T. W. Parsons continues his metrical rendering of the 'Divine Comedy' with the thirtieth canto of the Purgatory, in the *Catholic World* for April.

No. 22 of the Proceedings of the U. S. Naval Institute (January) devotes a hundred pages to a compilation, from official papers, concerning the operations of the British navy and transport service during the Egyptian campaign of last year. It is the work of several writers, and is illustrated with diagrams and maps.

A curious paper on the organization and material of field artillery in the United States Army before the Civil War, by W. L. Haskin, Captain First Artillery, opens the twelfth number of the *Journal* of the Military Service Institution.

The fifth number of the Statistical Abstract of the United States (1882) has just been published from the Government Printing Office. Its tables usually cover a series of years—in one case, as far back as 1830. The topics are Public Revenue and Expenditures, National Debt, Customs and Internal Revenue; Banking, Currency and Coinage; Imports and Exports; Production; Immigration; Shipping, Area, Population; Postal Service; Population; Education; Railroads; Agriculture; Coal; Petroleum.

"Maternal Schools in France" and "Technical Instruction" in the same country are described in the two latest circulars of the Bureau of Education.

'Local Government in Michigan and the Northwest,' by Edward W. Bemis, has just been added to the Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, edited by Mr. Herbert B. Adams. It is the fifth in this instructive series of monographs.

Director J. T. Gardiner's report of the New York State Survey for the year 1881, with accompanying maps, has been published at Albany.

The extraordinary growth and extent of the industries relating to electricity, directly or indirectly, are exemplified in the second edition of 'J. A. Berly's British, American, and Continental Directory and Advertiser' for 1883 (New York : George Cumming). This large octavo volume opens with a summary of the year's progress in electrical development, gives many useful tables and formulas, and then classifies alphabetically the tributary arts and trades. The large membership of the British Society of Telegraph Engineers and Electricians; the management, capital, etc., of telegraph and telephone and electric-light companies; the rules of fire risks; a summary of patents—also come within the scope of the Directory. The American portion has been well done. The advertisements are, of course, a valuable addition to a work of this character, and are very abundant.

Architects will be interested in two forthcoming publications of Bernard Quaritch's, London, viz., 'Examples of Carved Oak in the Woodwork of Ancient Houses, chiefly of the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries,' by William Bliss Sanders, whose original sketches have been photolithographed; and a posthumous work of George Edmund Street's—'Christ Church Cathedral, Dublin,' being the restorer's own account of his proceeding, with an historical sketch of the cathedral by its precentor, Edward Seymour. This last will be an *édition de luxe*. Mr. Quaritch is also publishing in parts 'The Butterflies of India and Ceylon,' a descriptive handbook, with illustrations.

Specimens of the late Dante Rossetti's work as a designer are given in black and white in the April number of Cassell's *Magazine of Art*.

Among the last batch of books *indexed* by His Holiness we find Mme. Henry Gréville's 'Instruction morale et civique des jeunes filles' and Paul Bert's 'Instruction civique à l'école.' No person, whatever may be his age or rank, can hereafter publish, or read, or keep these works in any language, but must deliver them up to the ordinary or to the inquisitors, under the penalties prescribed in the index. The French bishops are accordingly now holding up Paul Bert's text-book "à la défiance et à l'horreur des chrétiens."

Dr. Elliott Coues is still engaged with apparent success in what may be called the reconciling of science and paganism. His lecture on "The Dæmon of Darwin," in which the transubstantiation of matter from the corporeal to the spiritual state is imagined, and the bearing of the theory of evolution on the Platonic philosophy is discussed in a dialogue between Socrates and Darwin in the world of spirits, was, we observe, lately delivered in Boston under very respectable auspices.

Some years ago the deposit of the copies of books required by the Copyright Law was made

in the Clerks' offices of the United States District Courts. The consequence was that it was very difficult to find out whether any particular book had been copyrighted, and the books deposited in so many different hands were said to have been not always kept with scrupulous care; moreover, the required deposit was not always made. A change took place, and now the Library of Congress receives everything. France still prefers the old system, with occasionally curious results. It is a not unfrequent habit of French publishers to print their works in parts in two or three offices in different parts of the country, either because they find it cheaper or because they can get a large work printed more quickly, or to be sure that the printers do not strike off some extra copies to sell themselves. Now the law exacts the deposit, not from the publisher, but from the printer, so that the sous-préfecture of Meaux may receive one end of the volume, and that of Nogent-le-Rotrou may receive the rest from another office. What chance there is of the preservation of these detached sheets, often without any author's name upon them, and sometimes without even a running title, may be easily estimated.

We have already referred to the approaching sale at auction of the Toscanelli gallery, perhaps the most interesting private collection of early Italian, especially Florentine, pictures in Florence. It is catalogued on the *lucus a non lucendo* principle—so eccentrically, indeed, that no value whatever can be attached to the names appended to the pictures; but there are several signed and authenticated pictures of great interest for the history of art, among which are two little pictures attributed to Masaccio, but more likely of his school, others attributed to the Memmi, Orcagna, Gaddi, Lippi, etc., etc., over some of which many battles will be fought as to the attribution. But the genuineness of the works as of the epoch to which they are referred is generally out of question, and no sale has probably taken place in our time of so large a number of works of early Italian art.

The daughters of John Sterling would like to have copies of any American editions of his 'Poems and Sonnets,' or information as to when and where they were published. The books or any statement in reference to them can be sent to the editor of the *Nation*.

—Some weeks ago we made from the *Neue Freie Presse* a translation of a letter addressed by Mr. Darwin in 1873 to Mr. N. D. Doedes, of Leeuwarden, Holland. Through the spontaneous courtesy of this gentleman we are now enabled to present the great naturalist's *ipsissima verba*. They are as follows:

"It is impossible to answer your question briefly; and I am not sure that I could do so even if I wrote at some length. But I may say that the impossibility of conceiving that this grand and wondrous universe, with our conscious selves, arose through chance, seems to me the chief argument for the existence of God; but whether this is an argument of real value, I have never been able to decide. I am aware that if we admit a first cause, the mind still craves to know whence it came and how it arose. Nor can I overlook the difficulty from the immense amount of suffering through the world. I am, also, induced to defer to a certain extent to the judgment of the many able men who have fully believed in God; but here again I see how poor an argument this is. The safest conclusion seems to be that the whole subject is beyond the scope of man's intellect; but man can do his duty."

—We have received from Mr. Elliot Stock, 62 Paternoster Row, London, the first three numbers (January-March, 1883) of the *Folk-Lore Journal*, published by the Folk-Lore Society, and gratuitously distributed to its members. The form is very pretty, and the typography open and inviting, and the contents already insure an ample return to the subscribers. The leading contribution, not yet completed, is the Rev. James Sibree's translation, with running commentary, of extracts from the Rev. Louis Dahle's 'Specimens of Malagasy Folk-Lore,' a work published on the island of Madagascar in 1877 in the native tongue. The samples here given of Malagasy eloquence, imagination, poetry, and song, cannot fail to deepen the interest just awakened by the political imbroglio with France. In the January number we remark Mr. H. C. Coote's interpretation of the Roman practice of breaking up statuary for the foundation of buildings. He regards it as a modified survival of the barbarous custom, observable among many peoples, of sacrificing a human being and burying the body in the foundations in order to give stability to the structure. He cites a number of corroborative illustrations; *e. g.*, the Rumanians bury a rod or stick of the length of the unattainable victim. In the February number Mr. James Britten reports some Irish folk-tales, of which the second, "The Miller and the Cat," is identical with a Norwegian story in Moe and Asbjornsen's collections. In the March number, Mr. William George Black treats of "The Hare in Folk-Lore," and is to be envied because he has evidently yet to make the acquaintance of Br. Rabbit in 'Uncle Remus.'

— The death of the late Mr. Wordsworth, the last son of William Wordsworth, is likely to have an indirect influence upon the reputation of the poet which will cause no little sensation in literary circles. Southey once said that "poets nearly always found their best advisers among their female friends," and cited the instances of Wordsworth and his sister as a remarkable case in point; but it has never yet been realized to how great an extent the gentle lake poet was really indebted to his sister for his poetry. There were, however, in the possession of the Mr. Wordsworth who has recently died a whole cabinet full of MS. letters; some from the hand of his father himself, but the greater proportion of them written by the other members of that little college of authors who did so much to dignify the name of literature at the beginning of this century—Southey, Rogers, De Quincey, Lamb, Coleridge, and Sir Walter Scott. The evidence of these letters, it is asserted, goes to prove incontestably that a great portion, perhaps the greater portion, of Wordsworth's reputation as a poet should be in justice transferred to his sister Mary. She it was who, in the majority of instances, supplied the sentiment, and in many cases the diction also, of his poems; and certainly from internal evidence alone it would be easy to find in the tenderness and softness of the Wordsworthian muse corroborative traces of a female hand, while for external evidence these MSS. must be allowed an authority far superior to any other records, traditional or documentary, which bear upon the question, and before long the public will have an opportunity of judging for themselves of the validity of the case against the poet. The late Mr. Wordsworth was too jealous of his father's reputation to publish these records, which could not fail to damage it; but the present Mr. Wordsworth is equally anxious that justice should be done to his grandaunt, even at risk of discrediting his grandfather. Some time ago arrangements had been made by Mr. Gordon Wordsworth and another member of the family for the careful collation and annotation of the precious documents with a view to publication, and now the work will probably be pushed on with energy. It will of necessity be some time before the entire mass is ready to be given to the world; but when the letters are published they will make a volume which can scarcely fail to occupy a notable place in the history of literature. Just as in astronomy a star has often been regarded for centuries as a single body until the evidence of a stronger telescope has shown it to be double, so "the poet Wordsworth" may henceforward be recognized to be a "twin-star"; and if England loses by the forthcoming disclosure half a poet, she will gain a new poetess.

—Apropos of Wordsworth and the Lake District, we have before us a number of documents issued by the Derwentwater and Borrowdale Defence Fund. It appears that a slate-quarrying concern has taken the preliminary steps to obtain of Parliament the right to run a narrow-gauge railroad, chiefly for mineral but also for passenger transportation, from Braithwaite, in Cumberland, about three miles from the outlet of Derwentwater, to the top of Honister Pass. The route lies along the west shore of the lake, and then follows up the Derwent through the wild and beautiful Borrowdale, and will involve extensive cutting of the precipitous sides, as well as disturb the peace of the valley and seriously imperil those who drive along the adjacent steep highway. It is felt in England that this spot at least is sacred, both from its unmatched beauty and from its literary and historic associations. A committee has accordingly been formed to coöperate with the Commons Preservation Society in resisting the granting of a charter. The three names at the head are Tennyson, Browning, and Ruskin; and by way of securing pecuniary support in this country, also, an American member has been found in the person of Prof. George H. Palmer, of Harvard College, who, we presume, will receive and account for any contributions to the fund that may be sent to him.

—We talk much about the future of American literature and the prospects of American art. Here is a foreshadowing of the future of American architecture. "The Truaxes' planing mills at Walkerton are turning out material for ready-made houses at a rapid rate," says the London (Ont.) *Advertiser*. "Orders for a whole row of houses can be filled in a few days, and it is not uncommon to see an entire street sent out on a train. Next spring the enthusiastic house-builders expect to receive orders for entire villages, after this style: 'What is your lowest figure for five stores, two wagon and two blacksmith shops, one Methodist and one Presbyterian church, twenty-five cottages, a town hall, and a lock-up, to be delivered July 1?'" It is easy to imagine the "entire street," each house exactly like its neighbor, and the "whole village," made, of course, from one design. This is in Winnipeg, to be sure, but the *Northwestern Lumberman* asks why a similar industry should not be established at Minneapolis, Duluth, or any other lumber point in the Northwest. If it is, European travellers will find more uniformity than ever in the land of equality.

—There is at Hebron a mosque so venerated by the Mussulmans that only one European, the architect Pierotti, has ever been allowed to enter it. Beneath it is a tomb ascribed by very ancient tradition to Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob. Of course no Christian now knows anything about it. But in 1119 Hebron was in the hands of Frankish monks, one of whom discovered a cave and obtained of Baldwin permission to make a search. After some days' work, they found a passage about thirty-five feet long leading to a circular hall which would hold forty persons. In the wall of this the canon Arnould discovered a stone which, though like the rest in form, was not cemented and could be moved. This let them (on the 25th of June) into a chamber with an earthy bottom in place of rock. Here, after two days' search, they discovered the bones of Jacob. In an inner chamber which

was presently found were the bones of Abraham and Isaac. How they knew them apart, and how they knew them to be the bones of the patriarchs, is not said. Perhaps they had no other proof than the tradition of their burial in this place. Behind what they chose to regard as the tomb of Abraham were a mass of bones and inscriptions, which they could not read. The relics, after being carried in procession for the veneration of the faithful, were apparently restored to the tombs, where they may still lie. Arnould and his companion, Eudes, wrote an account of their discoveries, and in the fifteenth century a copy was taken in a manuscript that has survived in a library which is not named in the account before us. M. Riant has received a transcript of the manuscript and laid it before the Académie des Inscriptions. It suggests to scholars a possible source of new knowledge of the early history of the country. The bones of the patriarchs might rest in peace if the Academy could only procure rubbings of those inscriptions!

—Reginald Stuart Poole, as Honorary Secretary of the Egypt Exploration Fund, published in the *Academy* of February 24 and March 3 statements concerning the identification by the Fund explorer, M. Naville, of the site of Pithom, one of the two "treasure cities," more properly "store cities," built by the Israelites in Egypt for the Pharaoh of the oppression (Ex. i. 11). Pithom, the Patumos of Herodotus, and Thum of later Greek geographers, is explained by Egyptologists to signify *abode* (*pa* or *pe*) *of Tum*, the Egyptian divinity representing the setting sun. The name was common to several cities, including An, or Heliopolis. The site of Pithom was sought, however, east of Heliopolis, inscriptions indicating the existence of a Pe-tum situated in the district of Thuku, "at the entrance of the East." Ebers located it first at the western end of the Wady et-Tumilat, near the now famous Tell el-Kebir, but subsequently yielded to reasons adduced by Brugsch for locating it further east, north of Ismailia; Thuku being identified by the latter Egyptologist with the Biblical Succoth, the place of the first encampment on the route of the exodus. M. Naville conjectured Pithom to have been situated between the places indicated by Brugsch and originally by Ebers, and, following the advice of M. Maspero, began his excavations at the mound called Tell el-Maskhuta, a few miles west of Ismailia. The site, with its thick enclosure of crude brick, seemed at first to reveal a fort rather than a town, but a statue of a priest was discovered bearing an inscription which shows him to have been "the chief of the store-house of the temple of Tem [Tum] of Theku [Thuku]." The explorer found this a convincing evidence of the identity of the place with the "store city" Pithom, and in a letter of February 13 thus joyfully reported his success: "Tell-el-Maschuta *is* Pithom; or, in other words, the temple of Tum, in the city or region of Thuku, which Dr. Brugsch has identified with Succoth." On February 19 he communicated a fresh discovery, confirmatory of the identification. He had found at the mound a Roman *milliarium*, indicating the distance of "Ero"—evidently the Hero of the Itinerary of Antoninus—from Clysma, or Suez. He had thus discovered that the store city of which the sacred or temple name was Pe-tum, or Pithom, and the civil name Thuku, or Succoth, was the Heroöpolis of the Greeks and Romans, a name which he now easily traced to its Egyptian source: "Ero would be the transcription of Ar [Ari or Aru], which means the store-house, and which is found on the statue of the priest." Heroöpolis, thus explained, simply signifies *store city*. Mr. Poole is delighted with this discovery, and thinks "we may reasonably hope soon to gain some positive evidence of the dates of the oppression and the exodus," having "found the very walls on which the enslaved Hebrews worked." Bible critics of a more sceptical turn of mind will deem this a very sanguine hope, believing that at best—that is, if the identification is fully confirmed—M. Naville has only found walls on which the enslaved Hebrews of the story of Exodus are *related* to have worked.

—MM. Oppert, Halévy, and Lenormant, at a late meeting of the French Institute, pronounced the characters found by Mr. Stillman engraved on the stones of what he considered the remains of the Labyrinth of Gnossus (Reports Am. Arch. Inst.) to be probably proto-Assyrian. They recognized the sign for "God," and another which signifies the plural number. Supposing, as Mr. Stillman does, this work to be of the Dædalian epoch, and the dynasty of Minos to indicate the earliest arrival of the Asiatic civilization in Crete, symbolized by the rape of Europa (personification of an Asiatic religion) by Zeus (the peculiar deity of the Pelasgic races), the result of which combination was the dynasty of Minos (a name which, like that of Pharaoh, probably applied to a family, as it recurs at dates separated by several generations), the attribution of the French savants would accord as nearly as anything may with the date to which Mr. Stillman assigns the work. The scantiness of the inscriptions at present makes definite conclusions impossible, but there is evidently an indication, in this recognition, of an interesting field of research, which it is to be hoped the obstinacy of the Turks will not prevent from being opened.

—The January number of Petzholdt's *Neuer Anzeiger* is of unusual general interest. It begins with a biographical sketch and a bibliography of Professor Zöllner, of Leipzig, the physicist, whose explanation of spiritualism by the geometry of four dimensions has brought his name more before the public than his strictly scientific writings would have done, though they were numerous enough (Petzholdt enumerates eighteen books, and alludes to numerous articles in scientific journals and transactions). In the February number is a postscript of four pages, adding two more titles, and mentioning two other works that were partly printed at his death, one of them a new edition of his 'Natur der Cometen,' the other 'Ein Beitrag zur deutschen Judenfrage.' This latter, a thick volume, is a collection of sketches of noted Germans, intended to show, in opposition to those who have lately insisted upon the number of German Jews, or Jews of German descent, or friends of Jews who have reached eminence, that there are quite as good and great men of undoubted German origin who are equally worthy to be held up as models for true Germans. At which the dispassionate foreigner will be inclined to sing, "Which nobody can deny," and yet to doubt whether it affords any solid justification for a *Judenhetze*. The next article, "Index librorum prohibitorum," is a list of books locked up as dangerous in a south-German library in the fourth decade of this century. Of the sixty-seven titles many are forgotten now, and one can only guess at the cause of sequestration. But it is not surprising that De Lamennais's 'Worte eines Gläubigen,' Mickiewicz's 'Die Bücher des polnischen Volkes,' Freiligrath's 'Glaubensbekenntniss,' and several writings of Heine and of Börne should have seemed dangerous to sensitive politicians. Probably no one would object to them now—the fight is on another ground; but Germany still has her Index, for the Socialists at least. Presently we meet with some remarks on a little controversy which Professors Schramm-Macdonald and Thamm have been conducting with the usual German amenity. It appears that a year or more ago Professor Thamm reviewed Oettinger's great 'Moniteur des Dates,' and having found a certain number of errors, as was to be expected in a work containing a million of dates, immediately proclaimed the 'Moniteur' to be of no use whatever. It was a foolish remark, and the editor of the 'Moniteur' would have been wiser if he had left it unnoticed, quietly inserting corrections in his supplement. But the late Dr. Oettinger had proclaimed the absolute accuracy of the 'Moniteur' on the housetops, as it were, and his successor, Dr. Schramm-Macdonald, could not resist the temptation to reply in his post-face, on the completion of the work, by allusions to a "kritikaster," "a gymnasium-teacher in Lauban," and to show triumphantly that this criticaster is entirely wrong in his remarks about a certain Lappalie, as if that were the only error pointed out by the Lauban Professor. Here the matter rests; but neither angry disputant can convince us that the 'Moniteur' is not an exceedingly convenient book of reference which ought to be in every library, or that it can be always implicitly relied on.

RELIGION AND PROGRESS.

Gesta Christi; or, A History of Humane Progress under Christianity. By Charles Loring Brace. Second edition. 1 vol. 8vo. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1883.

Mr. Brace, so well known for his enlightened labors in what may be called preventive charity, has performed a seasonable and estimable work in this volume, and we are pleased to see, from the announcement already of a third edition, that it has met the appreciation which it merits. From a wide variety of sources, he has drawn materials for considering the condition and progress of society from the time of Christ to the present day, presenting almost every aspect of human relations in succession. The book is divided into three parts, devoted respectively to the Roman Period, the Middle Ages, and the Modern Period, and under each he treats of the constitution of families, the condition of woman (including marriage and divorce), the state of morals, slavery and serfdom, the distribution of property, the laws of war, the administration of law, education, international law, and other cognate topics, covering the whole subject with sufficient thoroughness to show how great has been the advance in all that makes life worth living, among those fortunate nations which have accepted the teachings of Christ as their standard in motive and conduct.

Yet, as a contribution to the philosophy of history, the work has defects which greatly diminish its value. With every disposition toward fairness on the part of the author, and with readiness to admit much that bears against his argument, the whole is little more than a special plea. Mr. Brace starts with the preconceived theory that all which is praiseworthy and hopeful in our modern civilization, as distinguished from those which have preceded it, is directly attributable to the divine revelation brought to man by Christ. Of course, the palpable objection to this theory is the fact that so little of this special Christianizing influence has been felt until within the last hundred years—so little that the greater part of the work is occupied with the enumeration of evils that have endured for eighteen centuries since the birth of the Redeemer, and are only beginning to be relieved in our modern times. It is true that the author seeks to meet this by suggesting (pp. 468–70) an analogy between the development of the moral forces of Christianity and the slow evolution of physical nature, and concluding that

"we may, therefore, fairly say that Christianity has merely begun its workings in the world, and many hundred centuries must pass away before it will show any important part of its true influence." Not only is the comparison thus instituted wholly an illogical and misleading one, but the conclusion would seem virtually to give up the question. Man cannot, of course, undertake to set bounds to the plans and purposes of Divine Wisdom, but in a matter involving the whole welfare of the human race he has a right to doubt the soundness of a theory which thus coolly sets aside the fate of the countless millions of human beings who have suffered, and are to suffer, for the lack of these Christian influences; and he may humbly suggest that such a theory is hardly consistent with the idea of a divinely beneficent purpose in revelation and in the tremendous sacrifice of the Atonement.

Moreover, the special pleading to which we allude is shown throughout the work by the manner in which the Church is treated as a thing separate and apart from Christianity. "One must not," he says in the Preface, "confound Christianity with the Church." Yet, what other exponent had Christianity than the Church? The independent action of the laity in religious matters is altogether modern—a thing unknown since the times when the technical "Church" ceased to mean the whole body of believers; and at any period save our own, the outcome and result of Christianity is to be sought for in the Church, its conduct and its teachings. The moral condition of the laity has been but the effect of the efforts of the Church, and by that condition the Church and the religion it professed, considered historically, must be judged. Under Mr. Brace's system, however, he considers himself justified in attributing to Christianity everything which he finds creditable in human development, and to the Church everything discreditable. Certain humble and unknown persons, filled with the principles of the new faith, are assumed (p. 3) to have influenced for good the currents of thought and legislation in spite of the Church. Granting these premises, and admitting the distinction thus drawn between the great body of believers and their authorized exponent, the object of the book proves itself; but this is surely not a scientific mode of treating a most complicated and difficult subject. The fact remains that the Ages of Faith were precisely the ages in which, as Mr. Brace himself shows, the humanizing precepts of the Gospel received the scantiest observance. The Renaissance, which brought about the Reformation, was in many respects a Pagan revival, and yet almost everything which has been gained for practical Christianity has been gained since then—gained, too, in many cases, in spite of the earnest opposition of devoted and single-hearted professors of the Christian faith.

In truth, the mutual interaction of man and his religion is a much more complex subject than Mr. Brace seems to imagine. The factors which contribute to our modern civilization are numerous—some of them plainly visible, and others eluding analysis and only to be conjectured from their results. It is difficult for the wisest to explain the sudden development of humanizing influences which has occurred within the last one hundred and fifty years; certainly the short and simple solution so confidently advanced by Mr. Brace cannot be accepted by any one who has thought upon the subject. Influences which had lain almost dormant for more than seventeen centuries cannot be assumed to have suddenly sprung to life and to have wrought, within a time so comparatively short, changes so beneficial and promising so much in the future.

No thinker, whether he be a believer or not, will underrate the power of religion on man; but no one who has made a dispassionate survey of the great religions of the world can fail to see how much religion is modified by race and time and apparent accident. All the great religions have many features in common—features which are among their best—yet how different have they been in their development and how varied in their results! The Christianity of America is not that of Russia, nor the Buddhism of Tibet that of Ceylon; and all have wandered far in practice from the precepts of their founders. Those founders taught essentially the same doctrines of humanity—so nearly alike that Mr. Brace is tempted (p. 451) to regard Buddha as divinely inspired—but perhaps neither Sakyamuni nor Christ would recognize their followers of to-day. Dogmatic Christianity, especially, has two features which have militated greatly against human progress and the development of the true Christian spirit: the theory of the origin of evil and the doctrine of exclusive salvation. The one makes God responsible for all suffering, and thus renders the effort to relieve it, rigidly speaking, an opposition to God himself—and, however shocking this may seem when nakedly put, it has repeatedly been urged by the orthodox conservative against audacious innovation; the other renders persecution a religious duty, and thus justifies the Crusades, the Inquisition, and the suppression of the freedom of thought. Even the horrors of the African slave-trade found in this their apology (pp. 365, 366), and the wild rhetoric of Victor Hugo's "Torquemada" has its foundation in historical fact. The watchword of irreverent Voltairism—*Écrasez l'infâme*—was not wholly without apparent justification.

Mr. Brace realizes the elevated conceptions of some of the great teachers who preceded Christ, though he fails to do justice to the rabbis of the school of Hillel, who formulated much that we are disposed to claim as distinctively Christian; and he takes no notice of Zoroaster, who founded what is perhaps the most practical body of religious teaching of which man has had the benefit. Had he studied the religious books of Mazdeism, he would probably have modified some of his remarks, such as those relating to cruelty to animals and to the prevention of epidemics; and he might have recognized, from the robust avoidance of all asceticism in Mazdeism, that perhaps the Gospel is not quite so free from responsibility for the ascetic vagaries of Christian practice as he assumes it to be, seeing that Christ makes it the duty of the believer to sunder all human ties and devote himself to the care of his own salvation.

Throwing the last century out of consideration, a Parsi might have little difficulty in drawing a comparison between his own faith and Christianity not very flattering to the latter. In the dualistic theory of Zoroaster, every worshipper of Hormazd was bound to aid him in his conflict with Ahriman by good thoughts, good words, and good works. By restraining his own passions he was striking a blow at Ahriman; by cultivating truth, honor, justice, charity, love, in himself, he was expelling the Daevas, or demons, and welcoming the Yazata, or angel, who was perpetually on the watch to assist him. "If, perhaps, I must give up my body for the sake of my soul, I give it with contentment," formed part of the regular confession of faith, even at a time when Mazdeism had become corrupted with fatalism. But all this was not merely a subjective and ascetic theory. The evil in nature as well as in man was the work of Ahriman, and thus to contribute to its diminution was the highest and most sacred duty, not only by charity to the indigent, by feeding the hungry, and clothing the naked, but by cheerfulness, by thrift, by well-directed and sagacious industry, to promote the well-being of society at large. One of the most noted of the Zoroastrian hymns says: "We give the kingdom to Ahura [Hormazd] when we afford succor to the poor"; and this charity toward the good creation of Hormazd was not confined to man, but extended to the brutes serviceable to man. A legend relates that Zoroaster, in one of his conferences with Ahura, saw a man plunged in hell except as to the right foot, and was told that he was a king who had reigned over thirty-three cities, and who had been guilty of cruelty and injustice, but who once, on seeing by the wayside a sheep tethered out of reach of its food, had pushed with this foot the fodder up to the animal. Useful labor, in the Zoroastrian theory, is not a curse inflicted on man as a punishment for ancestral transgression, but a religious duty, to be performed with contented cheerfulness as man's share in the supreme universal task of rescuing the world from the grasp of Ahriman; while idleness is a sin leading inevitably to hell.

When the Dinkard enunciates the law of the good religion on the duties of kings and rulers, it says nothing as to the building of temples or the maintenance of priest and ritual, but it enlarges upon the religious obligation of removing as far as possible from among men misery, want, hardships, filth, and pestilence. While throughout Christendom hungry priests preached the profitable doctrine that largess to the Church would purchase absolution for a life spent in rapine, the Pazend text sternly warned off all such polluted gifts by attributing the merit of charity bestowed from wrongfully-acquired wealth not to the donor himself, but to those from whom he had plundered it. While Constantine was laboring at Nicæa to reconcile the subtle dogmatic quarrels of Arius and Athanasius, the humble mobed was telling the magnificent Sassanid monarch that the first duty of a king is to see that husbandmen have bullocks and other things needful for the cultivation of the earth; that artisans have implements requisite to their handicrafts; and that women and children, the aged and the defenceless, receive due protection: "The light to crush misery of this description is the light of religion." While the churches of Rome and Alexandria and Constantinople were hastening the fall of a worn-out civilization by eagerly disputing every fragment of wealth and power that they could win from its fears or its weakness, and while hordes of squalid monks in the Nitrian desert were leading lives of abject and self-inflicted wretchedness as the most efficient means of propitiating a benignant Saviour, the Mazdean priest was preaching that the religious duty of princes was to erect hospitals in all cities, to provide them with skilled physicians and all remedial appliances, and to order investigations into the best means of cure. While the self-abnegation taught by Jesus was developed into a system which proclaimed idleness and beggary to be sacred virtues, the Mazdean law-giver was true to his doctrine of the duty of self-supporting labor, and bitterly reproached the professional mendicant—"Always thou standest there, going to the doors of others to beg for food!"—though he held also that "Poverty which is through honesty is better than wealth which is from the treasure of others." While Christian teachers for ages imagined that they magnified the power of an all-wise and beneficent God by proclaiming that war and famine were the direct results of his volition, that the plague and typhoid were his creatures, whose blows should be endured with pious submission, and that to invite disease by squalor and filth was the highest Christian perfection, Mazdean Dualism has taught for

more than fifteen hundred years that "measures of all kinds should be taken in cities whereby the city may flourish and be industrious, and famine and misery and want may be annihilated; also, fire, water, and the earth should be kept fragrant, and the air should be kept pure from all noxious substances and matter liable to decay, so that owing to them man may not suffer from disease and pestilence." While, in the outraged name of a suffering Redeemer, outward conformity with transcendental dogmas was pitilessly enforced with sword and dungeon and axe and faggot, the Guebre held that his religion was weakened by those who professed it with their lips but did not aid it with their good works; and he welcomed as his ally in the struggle with the powers of evil the man whose words condemned his faith, but whose deeds were just and pure. While vicegerents of Christ openly taught the world that faith and oaths pledged to heretics and excommunicates were not to be observed, even the Magi of a corrupted Mazdeism declared that a promise was to be sacredly kept, whether given to the believer or to the infidel, and that its infraction would bring distress upon a whole district.

It is true that enmity to Ahriman logically included enmity to those who, in not worshipping Hormazd, might be classed as Daevayasnians, or Devil-worshippers, but this did not express itself in the fierce brutality of the Crusades or of the Dragonnades. While theology explained that the false religions of the world were the work of Ahriman, a kindly charity stepped in to relieve their followers of moral responsibility, because "every one believes that much, and considers it good, which his teaching in religion has included, and particularly that religion the purest which exists with his government"; and while the unbeliever is not admitted to Garothman, or the highest heaven where Ahura dwells, there are three lower abodes of bliss and splendor which are open to the righteous of all creeds.

Between the principles of one faith and the practice of another it is easy to establish one-sided comparisons such as this, and it would be profitless were there not something to be gained by merely showing how easily they can be made, and how much there is in other religions worthy of respect and imitation. The true Christian is he who can recognize not only the common brotherhood of man, but the common impulse which has led men of all races and in all ages to elevate the moral and material standards of their fellow-men. In this sense, all the great religions are at one, however much human passion and folly have degraded them from their purpose. As the wise Sheikh Baha-ud-din Muhammed Amali says:

"In the kâbah and the fire-temple the perfect saint performed his rounds
And found no trace of any existence save that of God;
As the splendor of the Almighty sheds its rays in every place,
Knock thou either at the door of the kâbah or the portals of the temple!"

We cannot take leave of Mr. Brace without acknowledging how much there is to inspirit in the hopefulness with which he looks forward to the eventual triumph of Christian principles throughout the whole organization of human society. He regards the wonderfully rapid progress of the last hundred years as merely the beginning of what is to lead to the final condition of mankind, when men shall regard each other as brothers, when wars shall be no more, and when sin, and crime, and poverty, and all preventable ills shall be removed, in so far as it can be accomplished by a regenerated and purified human nature. The tendency of his work throughout is wholly good, and it is largely calculated to aid in the result to which he aspires, by showing how much has been already accomplished, and the directions in which further progress can most readily be made.

CLOUGH.

Arthur Hugh Clough: a Monograph. By Samuel Waddington. London: Geo. Bell & Sons. 1883. Small 8vo, pp. x.-333.

THE intention of Mr. Waddington's study of Clough's life and poems is better than its execution. It shows abundant good-will and a competent knowledge of external facts, but it lacks keenness of critical insight and fails alike in vigor and in delicacy of touch. It may be commended to readers not yet familiar with the poet as a compendious and easy introduction to the knowledge of what he was and what he did, and of the esteem in which he was held by his contemporaries. It is interesting as an indication of the ripening judgment of the later generation concerning Clough's position in the galaxy of English poets, and the character of his work as representative of the deeper intellectual and moral tendencies of his time.

The great change—a change unparalleled in its rapidity and extent—in the beliefs of thoughtful men in respect to life and the world which has been wrought in the last twenty-five years, has had the effect of making Clough's poetry seem more truly contemporaneous with the present than with his own generation. He was a forerunner; he felt the breath of the new morning, he delivered with surprising exactness "the earliest messages of light," and he died before the day had fully broken. It is natural that the work of such a poet should receive during his life but scanty recognition and meet with but imperfect recognition from the general reader. In giving clear expression to his own convictions, he shocked deeply-rooted prejudices and prepossessions. He made many readers uncomfortable by the distinct utterance of thoughts which they had partially admitted, but which they desired to quell, of emotions which they had experienced, but from the acknowledgment of which they shrank. It was easy to charge him with scepticism, with inconclusive and unfruitful doubt, with dangerous questioning; and these charges had effect upon his repute. But, as the years have gone on, such scepticism as his has become the mood of many of the most serious minds, such doubts as his have proved to be fruitful of wise inquiry, and such questionings have undermined many of the old supports of error. The term "agnostic" had not then been invented, but Clough was an agnostic in the true sense. So long ago as 1847, he wrote: "Until I know, I will wait; and if I am not born with the power to discover, I will do what I can with what knowledge I have, . . . and neither pretend to know, nor, without knowing, pretend to embrace." And about the same time, in a striking review of Francis Newman's book on 'The Soul,' he said: "Let there be priests, if you please, to preserve the known, and let them, as is their office, magnify their office, and say, It is all. But there shall also be priests to vindicate the unknown; nor shall it be accounted presumption in them to maintain, It is not all."

Such doctrine, familiar enough in our own days, had a strange sound thirty-five years ago; and to announce and maintain it required a sincerity and a courage of rare quality. The position assumed by Clough was not reached without a struggle, the severity of which told on his later years. It involved the sacrifice of what are called his prospects in life, the cooling of the regard of friends, the interruption of many sympathies. Clough was strong enough to endure all manfully, without complaint, but not without suffering. His natural reserve was, perhaps, increased, but his temper did not lose its sweetness, and the serenity of his spirit was undisturbed.

His moral position is displayed in his poems. The sincerity of nature manifest in the formation of his opinions is one of the main qualities of his greatness as a poet. It gave clearness not only to his outward perceptions and observation of conduct, but even more to his imaginative vision. His poetry is essentially poetry of conduct; so far as it is reflective, it is with the reflection of a student of human life and character. The beauty and fidelity of his sketches from nature in "The Bothie," of his descriptions in the "Amours de Voyage," show his fine eye for scenery and the aspects of things; but the scenery of the Highlands or of the Roman Campagna is only the background or stage for the exhibition of character and action. To him nature was, in his own words,

"Fair in itself, and yet fairer with human completing creations."

He cannot withdraw himself from the concerns of men and women. He has been called a philosophical poet, but he is not so in the sense of dealing with abstract speculations and philosophical opinions; it is with the metaphysics of the spiritual, not of the intellectual region, that he is concerned; with the antinomies of doing and not doing, with the perplexities of practical action, with the mysteries of good and evil.

Mr. Ward, in his generally appreciative criticism of Clough's poems, in his 'Selections from the English Poets,' complains that "we find a prevailing indecision in them that injures their moral effect in most cases." But this is to miss the very essence of their worth. The indecision so called is the evidence alike of the sincerity and the sensitiveness of the poet. If there be in Claude, the hero of the "Amours de Voyage," something of "Hamlet-like weakness," it is required by dramatic consistency. Claude is the type of the delicate, introspective, reserved, and conscientious nature, given to questioning, and unaccustomed to action, brought by force of circumstances and of emotions hitherto unexperienced into a position of mental and moral perplexity in which a ruder nature would have cut the knot of difficulty—a procedure which to a character like Claude's would have seemed but a brutal solution. The moral effect is surely not injured by the story's lacking the end which would content the average reader of novels of incident.

If we look at the poems in which Clough directly reveals himself, and not indirectly through dramatic personations, such indecision as we find in them is but the noble hesitancy in respect

"Of a completion over soon assumed,
Of adding up too soon."

There is nothing in them of the weakness and melancholy of Hamlet, and no want of moral decisiveness.

"'Tis better to have fought and lost,
Than never to have fought at all,"

is the sum of their teaching. Clough was, indeed, an idealist, and the irony of the ideal and moral life was present to his imagination even more strongly than that of the practical life. The contrast between intention and performance, the conflict between inclination and duty, the mistakes in choice, the competition of motives—all this he recognized, and in giving such expression to this side of human experience as no other poet has given he exposed himself to the misinterpretation of the trivial or the merely formal critic. "The Latest Decalogue," the poem beginning

"Each for himself is still the rule,"

the lyric in Dipsychus, scarcely to be matched

in pregnancy of wit or excellence of form, that begins

> "'There is no God,' the wicked saith,
> 'And truly it's a blessing;
> For what he might have done with us
> It's better only guessing'"—

these, and other poems of a similar vein, lose nothing of positive significance by the lightness of their touch, and the absence of a drawn-out moral. Clough does not preach to his readers, he does not lay down the law, he does not assume certainty where doubt may legitimately exist; truth is no simple thing to him—it is difficult to find, it is complex and multiplex, and he bids the seekers for it consider carefully the grounds of the faith within them:

> "'Old things need not be therefore true,'
> O brother men, nor yet the new;
> Ah! still awhile the old thought retain,
> And yet consider it again!"

Is this "an indecision that injures the moral effect of his poems"?

Clough had no worldly aims which could set him at strife with himself, and this total absence of secondary motives gives worth to the form no less than to the substance of his verse. He never wrote for the mere sake of writing acceptable poetry; never tried after false effects; and had no sympathy whatsoever for the doctrine of art for art's sake. His art is the expression of what was substantial in his nature. With large and quick sympathies, with keen and tender insight, with delicate and strong sensibilities, with a sincerity of vision, whether applied to himself or to the world outside, undimmed by mists of passion or prejudice, with imagination of a Shaksperian range and depth, and with his powers disciplined by the best culture that his age could give them, Clough expressed as no other poet has done the spiritual tendencies of his time; and the increasing band of lovers of his work may rest assured that posterity will confirm their judgment of its interest and its excellence.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

A Treatise on Proceedings in Rem. By Rufus Waples. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 1882.

The Lawyer's Reference Manual of Law Books and Citations. By Charles C. Soule. Boston: Soule and Bugbee. 1883.

A Treatise on the Law of Mechanics' Liens on Real and Personal Property. By Samuel L. Phillips. Second edition, enlarged. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1883.

The American Decisions. Containing the Cases of General Value and Authority decided in the Courts of the several States from the earliest issue of the State Reports to the Year 1869. Compiled and Annotated by A. C. Freeman. Vol. XLI. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. 1883.

An Introduction to Municipal Law. Designed for General Readers, and for Students in Colleges and Higher Schools. By John Norton Pomeroy. Second edition. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. 1883.

THE first work on our list is one of great research and learning, as well as originality. It differs from previous works covering the same field in proceeding upon a fundamentally new classification. Mr. Waples divides proceedings *in rem* into three kinds: proceedings against things *guilty*, proceedings against things *hostile*, and proceedings against things *indebted*. Things belong to the first class, by fiction of law, "when some act is done in, with, or by them, in contravention of some law having the forfeiture of such misused things as its sanction" (*e. g.*, in the Roman law, the noxal action; in modern law, cases of goods and vessels liable to confiscation for violation of the marine or navigation laws); to the second, when they are enemy's property in time of war; to the third, "when, by operation of law, they become liable for the payment of a sum of money, and may be proceeded against without personal citation of the owner as the debtor" (*e. g.*, bottomry, respondentia, salvage, and other liens). Of this classification, Judge Cooley says, in an introduction contributed to the book by him:

"At first, it may strike the mind that this arrangement is rather fanciful than substantial; but this is far from being the case. It has been made as the result of a careful consideration of the whole subject, and because, in the nature of things, it is needful and scientific. . . . Great labor has been carefully and conscientiously expended upon this work, and the illustrative cases have been patiently examined and studied. Where they have not been found satisfactory, the author has criticised freely; but the reader will not fail to perceive that the criticism is the result of conviction, and is not hasty or captious. As the author bears for himself the exclusive responsibility for his criticisms, another may be at liberty to say for him that the learning exhibited in these pages, and the familiarity with the general subject which is everywhere obvious, justly entitle him to express freely his mature convictions."

This is high praise, but not at all too high. Mr. Waples's book is a contribution to legal literature of great value, and will be found, both by practising lawyers and the courts, of the greatest possible use. Historically, we may quarrel with him for insisting that proceedings *in rem* are the outgrowth of a legal fiction. The idea of the guilt of things is a primitive legal or moral conception, long antedating the age of development at which legal fictions appear. We do not know, however, that for the practical purposes of a legal text-book this misconception makes much difference.

Mr. Soule's manual is an invaluable book of reference for lawyers. The work comprehends a list of American reports, digests, and statutes, with brief and valuable notes in regard to editions and peculiarities; lists of the English, Irish, Scotch, and British colonial reports, with notes; an index of authors, etc., which serves "both as an index to the proper names in the first two parts, and as an original list of short titles of the principal law journals and of the elementary works now in use and often cited"; an index of subjects, and an index of abbreviations. Mr. Soule has been at work upon the book for many years, and his task—a gigantic one—has been performed with care, discretion, and accuracy. We can cordially recommend it to the profession; the information it gives can be got nowhere else.

Mr. Phillips, in his preface, is fortunate in being able to make the announcement (unusual in the case of a law-book) that, in the numerous references to his book made by courts of last resort, "in no one instance has any proposition announced by the author been contested." The author has in this second edition made important additions to the work, increasing its bulk about a fifth. The success with which Mr. Phillips has met is due in great part to his refusal to fall into the custom of making a treatise a mere digest of decisions, getting together as many citations as possible, without discussion or exposition. The "true system of law-writing for practitioners," Mr. Phillips very justly said, in his first edition, "indicates a less extensive scope of subject to be treated, and the incorporation of all that is of value to be found in the reports applicable thereto." This is the system which he has adopted. The number of cases cited is not very great, as such books go, but the reader has a comfortable feeling that they are cited sufficiently and correctly, and in such a way that the reader can learn from them what the law is. The subject of mechanics' liens is a difficult one, owing to the fact that, so far as real estate is concerned (and this is by far the more important part of it), it is entirely of statutory origin, and consequently the discussion of the cases involves a continual reference to statutes. Mr. Phillips's rule, to cite the exact language of the legislature "whenever the decision is founded, not on the general principles of law, but on the words of a particular statute," is the only true one.

The forty-first volume of 'American Decisions' contains cases from seventeen different series of reports belonging to the years 1844 and 1845. The very competent editor, Mr. Freeman, has, as usual, enriched it with a great deal of annotation, including long notes on Perils of the Seas, Acknowledgment of Deeds, and Regulations of Railroad Companies, which the practitioner will find of value.

Mr. Pomeroy's treatise on municipal law has established its claim to recognition among lawyers and teachers of law, and it has many merits which no other work of its kind possesses. Mr. Pomeroy's style is a model of clearness, and his familiarity with the best Continental and English works in his own field makes him specially well qualified to treat of the general principles of jurisprudence. The appearance of his second edition ought to be of special interest in this State just now, because of what it contains on the subject of codification. While Mr. Pomeroy is a believer in the possibility of codification, he seems to have a poor opinion of the code adopted by California (where he is engaged in teaching law), which is substantially the same as the civil code that has been so long before the Legislature of this State; and his acquaintance with the practical working of the code in California leads him to say:

"It is perhaps inevitable that the system of codifying the private civil jurisprudence—the common law and equity—shall finally prevail in this country and in England. One fact, however, is true, if any certain conclusion can be drawn from both reasoning and experience. The benefits which are claimed for the system of codification avowedly belong only to a complete code—a code which shall embody the entire existing civil jurisprudence of the State, absolutely all of the legal rules which are recognized as operative, whether originally created by statute or by judicial decision. Such a code should cover the whole domain of civil jurisprudence, so that courts should find in it the source of all their decisions, and should never be obliged to go behind it and borrow a rule from the pre-existing common law or equity. Austin, who is the leading advocate of codification among the English jurists, bases all his reasoning upon such a complete and exhaustive code; but, while holding it up as an ideal, he fully admits the great difficulty of framing a code which shall at all fulfil the conception and produce its anticipated benefits. It seems to me that reasoning and experience alike show that a mere partial civil code—a code which only professes to contain elementary definitions, the most general doctrines, and a few special rules, leaving the great mass of practical rules and doctrines still existing as a part of the common law and equity by its side—is only an additional source of uncertainty and confusion introduced into the jurisprudence of a State."

To those who know what the proposed code is, this is as weighty an opinion against it as has been pronounced in any quarter.

Paladin and Saracen: Stories from Ariosto. By H. C. Hallway-Calthrop. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1 vol., 8vo.

ARIOSTO soars supreme among the Italian epic poets of the Renaissance; and their name is legion. He was among the first to break loose from the servile following of the Classics, and compose the most wonderful romantic epic known to literature, the 'Orlando Furioso.' Taking his subject from the Carolingian Cycle

which had been introduced into Italy by the *improvisatori* and street story-tellers and two or three writers of eminence, Pulci, Bojardo, and others, he carried it to perfection in order to amuse the semi-feudal "ladies and chevaliers" of the Court of Ferrara. These compositions, however, were of foreign derivation, and never took a *serious* hold on the people, except as pastime. But, though taking the subject-matter from the Frankish legends, and recasting it to suit the tastes of the Italian courts, Ariosto superadded all the imagery, wit, satire, and irony of his wonderful poetical genius.

Ariosto, however, was an artist—a great artist—but without any strong feelings either of patriotism, morality, or religion; he gave full play to all his poetical fancies, elaborated them in form, diction, and style, but aimed only at an artistic effect, in which his power was marvellous. Like Shakespere, who from the crude novels of Boccaccio, Ser Giovanni Fiorentino, Bandello, Da Porto, took the plots of some of his inimitable plays, Ariosto did not create, but, continuing the story begun by Bojardo, and collecting all the most extravagant stories of knight-errantry, erected a truly extraordinary monument of Romantic art. There is no aim whatever in the poem, beyond that of entertaining his readers, except the glorification of the Estense family, in whose service he was as Court poet. The great merit of Ariosto, therefore, is in neither the originality nor the scope of his poem, but the wonderful artistic treatment of the innumerable episodes. In this he is like an exhibitor of tableaux vivants, shifting one scene after another, without much connection among them, but invariably presenting to the delighted audience new and surprising events. All the heroic and supernatural tales of Charlemagne and his Paladins are brought out as upon a stage irradiated by the electric light of his poetical genius, in episode after episode, beginning with the fair Bradamante seeking her lover, Roger, in the enchanted castle of Atlas, till he is found alive and restored to her by Prince Leo—which is the only connected link of this unconnected story. But the thousand and one episodes that intervene between these two events are so many pictures worthy of the best masters of the Renaissance, from whom Ariosto derived his highest inspiration. Like them, he is thoroughly finished even in the minutest details, leaving no flaw to criticise either in his language, style, or versification; and the delineation of his characters is so perfect that we recognize them the moment they appear on the scene, even when not named. In the versification, above all, he is called the magician, for in the purity of his vocabulary, the structure of his periods, the harmony and melody of his verses, which flow like a limpid, running stream, he surpasses every author of that age, with the exception of Tasso. But this was not attained without enormous labor, for he spent ten years in composing his poem, and sixteen more in polishing it.

In the work before us, the author properly apologizes for the title, 'Stories from Ariosto,' because of the changes which he has introduced in their details. But we object to the title entirely, for the stories were not Ariosto's, but common property, to be found in all the vast romance literature of that period. In narrating these stories in prose, and for the use of young people, the author has merely retained Ariosto's chronological order; but what made the poem one of the greatest epics of the Italian muse—form, imagery, humor, wit, satire, passions—are all gone, leaving only the bare nursery tales, which existed before Ariosto invested them with the halo of poetry. We must acknowledge, nevertheless, that as Charles and Mary Lamb made charming reading for young people out of the plays of Shakspere, so Mr. Hallway-Calthrop has successfully done with these tales of mediæval chivalry. The language and style are chaste, the stories interestingly told, and purified of all original taint of grossness. Young people should be thankful to him for having thus opened the way to a better appreciation in their mature age of the famous poets of the Renaissance.

English Literature of the Eighteenth Century. By Thomas Sergeant Perry. Harper & Bros. 1883.

WHILE we may consider English literature, as a whole, to be an original and continuous intellectual development, yet at no time, or at least at no time since the Norman Conquest, has it been altogether self-determined. We do not here allude to the occasional influences of its neighbors, to transient and superficial reflections of form or color, but to the notable fact that at each of its great productive periods some foreign influence has been visibly dominant. Thus the literature of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries took, naturally enough, form and tincture from the Norman French; the Elizabethan and Jacobean literature, from the French and Spanish; that of the Restoration, from the French of the *grand siècle;* and that of the Revolution and the eighteenth century from the Latin.

With regard to some of these, it might not be so easy to decide how far the preference was determined by internal, and how far by external causes. At the Restoration, for instance, the reaction in favor of the house of Stuart, and the peculiar relations of the king and court to France, were of themselves powerful determinants; while, on the other hand, just at that time French literature had reached what was admitted to be its culmination of elegance and splendor. But in the case of the literature of the eighteenth century, we have no such influences to balance; and the extraordinary domination of Latin could only have been due to internal circumstances—to something in the Latin modes of thought and expression that was peculiarly in harmony with the thoughts and feelings of the time.

It was an age of moderation and of compromise. The nation, weary of the loyal enthusiasm of the Cavaliers and the sombre enthusiasm of the Puritans, had come to the conclusion that the highest wisdom lay in cool expediency. Nobody felt any very passionate devotion for Low-Dutch William, the insignificant Anne, or the High-Dutch Georges; but it was felt that with them, under the Constitution, the nation was safe. A reasonable *modus vivendi* seemed the highest goal of the truest patriotism. And the same spirit of expediency and security ruled the literature of the time: its most essential requisite and highest merit was that it should be safe, that it should follow correct models, and have plenty of sound precedents. And nowhere in the world could it have found models so exactly to its taste as the Latin writers of the Golden and Silver Ages, themselves the product of similar influences. Hence, what we know as specifically the literature of the eighteenth century is crushed flat under the pressure of Latin; and from Dryden at its beginning, to Johnson at its close, every man of letters moves under the weight of Vergil, Juvenal, Tacitus, Statius, or Claudian, like Dante's sinners under their cowls of lead.

This, to our mind the key-note and *differentia* of that literature, has been well seized by Mr. Perry in the readable book before us, and would probably have been brought forward more prominently had these criticisms not been originally delivered in the form of public lectures, demanding lively and varied illustration rather than close analysis or well-grounded generalization. He sketches, in a slight but agreeable manner, the characteristic features of the preceding age, shows the advance, the domination, and the weakening of the classic spirit, noting, step by step, the changes that came over each great department of letters—in ethical writing, from Addison and Pope to Johnson and Cowper; in the drama, from "Cato" to "George Barnwell"; in the poetry of nature and sentiment, from the pastorals of Pope and Philips to Burns and Wordsworth; in the novel, from 'Colonel Jack' to 'The Vicar of Wakefield.' Attention is called to the first appearance of romanticism, and what the disgusted critics of the day called "the Gothick taste," which, like Faust's *Pudel*, the more they objurgated and exorcised it, grew and swelled the more, until the uncouth, bristling monster filled the whole room and threatened to burst its way through the roof—a hideous apparition to the Classicists then, though familiar enough now.

Mr. Perry has made liberal use (with due acknowledgment) of the works of Symonds, Leslie Stephen, and M. Beljame, whose excellent book was reviewed in our columns at the time of its appearance. He has not himself, that we observe, shed any new light upon the subject, and perhaps, under the circumstances, was not called upon to do so. His mode of treatment strikes us as a little discursive. It was hardly necessary, for instance, to give so many pages to the mediæval *fabliaux* and the *picaresco* romances of Spain, France, and Germany as an introduction to the novels of Defoe and Richardson. Still, the discursions are entertaining, and the book, on the whole, is one that may be read with pleasure by those who are familiar with the subject, and with profit by those who are not. We have noted two or three typographical errors, of which the only one of consequence is "oblige" for "obey," on page 63, second line.

Bullet and Shell. By George F. Williams. Illustrated by Edwin Forbes. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

As the war recedes, the books relating to it multiply. The fruit of the accumulated leisure of the actors in it ripens and falls in the shape of partial histories, monographs of battles, and personal reminiscences. These are generally attractive in proportion as they reveal actual participation in the scenes they describe. The book before us, however, in spite of its title, gives little suggestion of this. It is a slight and superficial narrative of the career of an officer through the war, in the lively and florid style of a newspaper report. He is made to share in several of the largest Virginia battles, and takes his turn at almost every kind of special duty. Plenty of adventure falls to his lot, with the best positions and opportunities for seeing what is going on. His least hackneyed experiences are as hospital guard and spy, and the performances of a newspaper correspondent are among the most natural and interesting of the story. The humor, which is of the thinnest, is supplied by an Irish corporal whose brogue is given with tiresome phonetics. Some of the loathsome horrors of war are dwelt on with a minuteness which is unnecessary, and most of the description gives a much better idea of the general appearance of army life as seen by a spectator than of the real experiences of the rank and file. The book hardly deals at all with strategy or tactics, and needs, for its full enjoyment, considerable sympathy with the life it describes.

The illustrations are numerous, and much above the ordinary. Drawn in a light, sketchy style, they are generally very true to nature,

and show plainly that the artist copied them from the life instead of trusting to his imagination. Together with the good paper and type, they make the book a handsome and attractive one.

Latin Selections: Being Specimens of the Latin Language and Literature from the Earliest Times to the End of the Classical Period. By Edmund H. Smith, Professor in Hobart College. Boston: John Allyn. 1883. 12mo, pp. 410.

PROF. SMITH has provided a volume which will be of great service in teaching the Latin language and Roman literature, both of which find here abundant illustrations, chronologically arranged. It begins with the Song of the Arval Brothers, and ends with a passage from Apuleius. For instruction in the language, this will do very well; for literature, it ought to be continued, so as to include Claudian, Ausonius, and Boethius. The selections are made with good judgment and taste, and for the purposes above mentioned will serve sufficiently well. If, however, the book is to be used as a text-book for translation, we think them too *scrappy*, too much of the type of "elegant extracts." Here, for instance, are forty-seven passages from Cicero, and five from Sallust; a single extract from Sallust of the length of all these taken together would be as good for the purpose of instruction in the language and literature, while we feel sure boys would read it with much greater interest. The passages are taken from as wide a range as possible: one hundred distinct names are represented.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Almanac for 1883. American News Co. $1 50.
Beardsley, Rev. E. E. History of the Episcopal Church in Connecticut. 2 vols. 4th ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Blake, Mary E. On the Wing: Rambling Notes of a Trip to the Pacific. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 51-55. New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Conway, M. D. Emerson at Home and Abroad. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Daudet, A. L'Évangéliste: a Parisian Romance. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.
Demarest, Mary Lee. My Ain Countree, and Other Verses. A. D. F. Randolph. $1 25.
Feuillet, Octave. A Parisian Romance. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 50 cents.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions. Vol. xli. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Garnett, R. Select Letters of Percy Bysshe Shelley. D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.
Giberne, Agnes. The World's Foundations: Geology for Beginners.—Sun, Moon, and Stars: a Book for Beginners.—Twilight Talks. 3 vols. Robert Carter & Bros.
Gilder, W. H. Ice-Pack and Tundra: the Search for the *Jeannette*. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.
Giles, C. Perfect Prayer: How Offered, How Answered. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Gilman, D. C. James Monroe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25.
Godfrey, Mrs. G. W. Unspotted from the World. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Gregory, J. M. A New Political Economy. Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co. $1 20.
Griswold, W. M. General Index to the *Contemporary Review*, *Fortnightly Review*, and *Nineteenth Century*. Bangor: Q. P. Index.
Hall, T. B. Modern Spiritualism; or, The Opening Way. Boston: A. Williams & Co. 60 cents.
Harris, J. A. Principles of Agnosticism Applied to Evidences of Christianity. Thomas Whittaker. 75 cents.
Harris, S. S., Bishop. The Relation of Christianity to Civil Society. Thomas Whittaker. $1 25.
Holmes, O. W. The Professor at the Breakfast-Table, with the Story of Iris. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Keble, Rev. J. The Christian Year. [Parchment Series.] D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.
King, E. The Gentle Savage. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. $2.
Macduff, Rev. J. R. The Story of a Shell. Robert Carter & Bros.
McMaster, J. B. History of the People of the United States. Vol. i. D. Appleton & Co. $2 50.
Markham, C. R. The War Between Peru and Chile, 1879-1882. R. Worthington.
Manuals of Elementary Science. Physiology, Electricity, Zoölogy, Botany, Chemistry, the Spectroscope, Matter and Motion, Geology, Crystalliography. E. & J. B. Young. 30 cents each.
Medical Index: being a Completely-Indexed Note-Book for Students, and for Physicians a General Index and Record-Book. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Joel A. Miner. $3 50.
Meyer, H. A. Critical and Exegetical Handbook to the Acts of the Apostles. Funk & Wagnalls.
Moore, T. W. Treatise and Hand-Book of Orange Culture. Third edition. E. R. Pelton & Co. $1.
Morris, H. S., and Henry, J. A. A Duet in Lyrics. Philadelphia: Dan F. Gillin.
New Index Rerum, for Students and Professional Men. Arranged to Minimize the Labor of Indexing, and to Classify all Indexed Subjects. Ann Arbor, Mich.: Joel A. Miner. $3 25.
Newton, R. Heber. The Right and Wrong Uses of the Bible. John W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.
Nicoll, H. J. Landmarks of English Literature. D. Appleton & Co. $1 75.
Oernler, A. Truck-Farming at the South. Orange Judd Co. $1 50.
Ogilvie, J. The Imperial Dictionary of the English Language. New edition, revised and augmented. Edited by C. Annandale. Illustrated by above 3,000 engravings. With Supplement and Appendix. In four vols. The Century Co. $20.
Oliphant, Mrs. It Was a Lover and His Lass. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
One of a Covey. By the authors of 'Honor Bright.' E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1 25.
Otis, J. Tim and Tip; or, The Adventures of a Boy and a Dog. Harper & Bros.
Page, C. E. How to Feed the Baby. Third edition, revised. Fowler & Wells.
Parallel New Testament, Greek and English. Including the Versions of 1611 and 1881. Oxford: University Press.
Parkhurst, C. H. The Blind Man's Creed, and Other Sermons. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Perry, T. S. English Literature in the Eighteenth Century. Harper & Bros.
Phillips, S. L. A Treatise on the Law of Mechanics' Liens on Real and Personal Property. Second edition, enlarged. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Picton, J. A. Oliver Cromwell: the Man and his Mission. Cassell & Co. $2.
Pomeroy, J. N. An Introduction to Municipal Law. Second ed. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Porter, Rose. Winged Songs: An Easter Jubilee. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 50 cents.

Henry Holt & Co.

HAVE READY:

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 29, 1883.

The Week.

In addition to his other troubles, President Arthur has now to appoint a new Postmaster-General. There are people, however, most willing to help him out of it. Perhaps there are too many of them. There is, for instance, Mr. Chauncey I. Filley, of Missouri. Several successive Presidents have been dying to make him Postmaster-General, but every time some trifle intervened, and then they appointed somebody else. That Mr. Filley is the best man for Postmaster-General is a fact, for he has said so himself. According to his own testimony, in his own handwriting, "he combines a superior order of business talent, practical information, and acquaintance with systematic methods, and fertile originations and quiet execution." He is also "unyielding in principle and unswerving in the execution of trusts, and has never sacrificed the public or political interests to self, but on the contrary, self for them." He is also "a great planner." As we know all this upon Mr. Filley's own authority, it is no wonder that Mr. Filley has it telegraphed from Washington to St. Louis that now, Mr. Howe's death having made a vacancy in the Postmaster-Generalship, he has a sure thing of it. But there is also Mr. Frank Hatton, Assistant Postmaster-General, and editor of the Washington *Republican*. Mr. Hatton, being an inveterate Stalwart, is rather severe upon the civil-service reformers as impracticable dreamers and very improper persons generally. But now he thinks it would be an unscrupulous violation of civil-service reform principles if, instead of promoting him to the first place in the Post-office Department, the President preferred some "outsider" to him. His promotion would indeed serve great public ends, for there is no telling how much a judicious management of that department might help the circulation of Mr. Hatton's paper, the Washington *Republican*. And besides, nobody would show more skill than this same Mr. Hatton in circumventing the civil-service rules in order to put Stalwarts into place.

The present political situation has some very odd features—a period of party dissolution, or what is called "a transition period," always has; but no such period has ever had an odder feature than the tendency of reformers or revolters to select candidates of doubtful antecedents as their champions. It would probably puzzle the closest student of politics or human nature to say what craving of the reformers' nature General Butler satisfied in Massachusetts. We say the reformers' nature, because we are bound to suppose that those Republicans who voted for Butler really meant reform. They were not dissatisfied with the old Republican régime through pure "cussedness." They must have felt that there was something wrong with the government of the State which voting for Butler would help to cure. But why should Butler seem to anybody to have anything remedial about him? For what virtue in politics or society does he stand? What abuse did he ever extirpate? What bad tendency in politics did he ever oppose? What is there in his life or character which anybody who was ever drawn into the Republican party by its principles would be likely to admire? There can be only one answer to each of these questions. There is no reform in or about him, and the reformers who voted for him must have done so as a huge joke. Here in this State dissatisfaction similar to that which prevailed in Massachusetts last fall showed itself in a very aggravated form, but it did not find vent in a piece of bouffe. We voted for an obscure man, it is true, but for a serious man, whose career in such public offices as he had filled indicated that he would be likely to fill higher ones with credit.

The Rhode Island malcontents seem now to be in a fair way to follow the example of their Massachusetts brethren. The selection of Mr. Sprague as the head of a reform movement has somewhat the same humorous touch as the selection of Butler in Massachusetts. It would be impossible to say what process of amendment in human affairs Mr. Sprague represents. His association with the industry of the State has not been a fortunate or improving spectacle. If he has valuable ideas about politics, he has hitherto kept them to himself, and his career is hardly more inspiring than Butler's. So that his nomination and election also, if it takes place, will really have to be set down as a political debauch. It must be admitted that both sprees are rather discouraging. It is not cheering to see the people of two New England States apparently bent on "having some fun" with their highest office by delivering it for even one year to "the boys." It is not possible, whatever people say, to have only one year of a man like Butler in the Governorship. The odor of Butlerism will hang round the office long after he leaves it. The mere fact that such a man can get such an office, long remains as a lesson or suggestion, with plenty of mischief concealed in it. American humor is an excellent article, and is having a great run of success at home and abroad, but it is sometimes out of place. The American mind is not quite prepared to use it with discretion—that is, to take what it wants of it and no more; or, in other words, has not learned how to cover a thing with ridicule without any loss of respect for it.

The past week has been remarkable for the fluctuations of the money market. The stringency which has been gradually increasing for some time culminated about the middle of last week. Rates for mercantile paper had advanced from 1 to 1½ per cent. in the previous fortnight, and the rates for call loans on stock collaterals on the Stock Exchange had gradually advanced to 14 and 15 per cent. per annum, even touching 25 per cent. one day last week. The tightness in the money market had caused a large decrease in the mercantile demand for foreign exchange, and rates for exchange had declined below the gold-importing point. The effect of this condition of things was to draw a considerable amount of gold to this country from London and Paris. From the 16th to the 24th there was received in New York about $3,000,000 of gold, while about $1,500,000 more is on the way. Last week it was also announced that the Treasury would begin the prepayment of the April interest on the public debt, amounting to $7,000,000, and on Tuesday, the 27th, $2,000,000 was paid out of the Sub-Treasury in this city on that account. The combined effect of the arrivals of foreign gold and the payments of the Treasury was to cause a decided change in the money market, and on Tuesday call loans on the Stock Exchange dropped to 6 and 7 per cent. The rates for discount of mercantile paper have only been slightly reduced as yet, but the prospect now is that with the payment of $7,000,000 April interest and $15,000,000 on May 1 for called bonds, and from $30,000,000 to $40,000,000 of pensions during the next three or four months, together with some further imports of foreign specie, the money markets of this country will be plethoric in May.

The comparative ease in the money market and the prospect of an increase of money have not affected the stock market, which continues extremely dull. The speculative spirit seems to be almost entirely absent, not only among the general public, but even among the usual operators of the Street. The general conditions are certainly in favor of higher prices. The present prices of stocks are acknowledged to be very low, the freight movement and passenger travel on the railroads were never better at this season of the year than they are now, and rates of freights and fares were never so high; and yet there seems to be no movement to buy stocks, but rather a disposition to wait until some forecast can be made as to the character of next year's crops. If the month of May should show a fair prospect for a good wheat crop, not only will there undoubtedly be an important advance in railway shares generally, but all mercantile and business enterprises will experience an unusual stimulus.

Dorsey was put on the stand in the Star-route trial on Monday, and contradicted Rerdell at many points. Some excitement was caused by Mr. Merrick's asking the witness how far he regarded an oath as binding upon his conscience. The question brought Mr. Ingersoll to his feet at once, and he delivered an impassioned address on superstition and the Dark Ages, in the course of which he declared that he, Mr. Ingersoll, regarded Truth as the most sacred of all obligations, but that if called to testify as a witness in court, he would be obliged to admit that he did not believe in a personal God. He also denounced the Inquisition, and recalled the cruelties practised by it with the rack and the thumbscrew, but said very

little about Dorsey. After hearing Mr. Merrick the Court decided that Dorsey was a competent witness, and could testify like any other witness, under the pains and penalties of perjury. Of course this does not preclude a cross-examination on the subject of his religious belief, nor as to Rerdell's story that Dorsey had expressed the opinion that where a friend's welfare was concerned perjury might become a duty.

A correspondent directs our attention to the following clause in the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States: "Neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States; . . . but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void." Our correspondent asks: "Is not this provision something of an obstacle to the law passed by the Tennessee Legislature to pension ex-Confederate soldiers? And is there no citizen of Tennessee who feels sufficient interest in the matter of the necessary tax to bring the validity of the law before the Federal Court? There being a Federal question involved, ought not a Federal court to decide whether the law was passed to fulfil an assumed but void obligation?" Our opinion of the moral character of such a proceeding on the part of a repudiating State we have already expressed; but we do not think the granting of pensions to ex-Confederate soldiers can be called an assumption or payment of a "debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion." A pension is a gratuity, and such a gratuity paid in 1883 can scarcely be called assuming or paying a debt incurred "in aid" of a rebellion which occurred twenty years ago. However, the significance of the fact, that while granting pensions to ex-Confederate soldiers the State of Tennessee cheats her creditors on the pretence of poverty, remains the same, whether the pension act be constitutional or not.

The temperance movement in the West receives a great part of its impetus, in one way and another, from women, who, down-trodden and oppressed though they be, frequently make short work of the "rum" vender. Last week Davis & Drumm opened, on H Street, in the orderly little town of Lompoc, Cal., what is called by some euphemists a "sample-room"; by others, a "saloon." But the opening was not of the kind they expected. From all points of the compass a great mass-meeting came flocking together, and joined in singing, prayer, speeches, and exhortations. In these proceedings the women were particularly prominent, "mothers pleading most pathetically" with the saloon keepers to "yield like good men and give up the business." The misguided Davis & Drumm, however, only replied with taunts and sneers, and, after vain attempts at a compromise, a rope was run round the saloon, and the crusaders of both sexes pulled the building from its foundations "endways," and, amid wild cheers, "tore it to flinders." Lompoc is said to be a "temperance colony," and this is not the first time in its history in which its hostility to rum has been shown. In eight years a drug store has been emptied of liquor, a hotel has been shelled, and a saloon treated in the same way. The mass-meeting which disposed of Davis & Drumm, before adjourning, resolved that in future any one attempting to sell liquor in Lompoc should be tarred and feathered and ridden out of town on a rail.

It is said that 900,000 citizens have petitioned the President to pardon Sergeant Mason, who was court-martialed for trying to kill Guiteau when placed on duty to guard him from the mob. One of the grounds on which the petitioners rely is "the great and universal indignation then and now felt and expressed by the American people against the assassin of President Garfield." Now, Mason was placed on guard solely because it was feared by his commanding officer that this great and universal indignation would lead to violence. In firing on Guiteau, therefore, he not only attempted murder, but committed the very offence which he was there to prevent others committing. To pardon him on this ground would be to give a positive encouragement to mob-law and murder, and strike a terrible blow at discipline in the Army. That such a petition should find multitudes of signers is singular enough; that it should be addressed to the President, the constitutional head of the military service, makes the case still more grotesque. One incident in the effort to get Mason pardoned illustrates the true nature of many movements of this kind. Twelve thousand dollars were raised for his family, and now comes his lawyer and "files a bill in equity" asking to have Mrs. Mason compelled to pay his bill of $3,500 for "services and disbursements" in trying to procure her husband's release, out of $7,000 which she now has in bank. The bill in equity, if successful, will probably cost just $3,500 more, so that Mrs. Mason would be exactly able to meet the cost of *not* getting her husband out of jail, and thus have the satisfaction of knowing that she had paid her lawyer in full.

The people of Uniontown (Pa.), who are so much excited about the acquittal of Dukes that they have warned him to leave the place within twenty-four hours, would gratify a very legitimate public curiosity if they would explain in some authoritative way how the jury which tried him came to be made up of such very ignorant men. For this state of things the expulsion of Dukes is a very incomplete remedy. If the jury represents the intelligence of the county, it is surprising that it has not produced many Dukeses before now. Dukes himself, in proposing to continue his practice at the bar and sit in the Legislature, gives some indications of mental obtuseness not far removed from that of the jury. The letters he wrote to Nutt about his daughter appeared to us those of a moral monster, but they did not strike the jury in that light. They apparently took the Dukes view of them, that they were not very nice, perhaps, but such as an angry man might fairly be expected to write to the father of a girl whom he had been courting and had jilted. So that it is very possible that Dukes is as much bewildered by the Uniontown feeling against him as the jurymen are by the excitement over their verdict.

There is, of course, no way of improving the Uniontown jury panel all at once. Such as it appears in the Dukes trial, it is evidently the result of a low condition of popular education in some parts of Pennsylvania. This cannot be remedied as far as the present generation is concerned. The moral sense can perhaps best be cleared and sharpened by such outbursts of popular indignation as the verdict has called forth. This brings home to men in a rude, coarse, but effective way that it is a serious thing to let a murderer go on the plea of self-defence, especially when he has been writing the victim indecent letters about his daughter, and that it will not do to mix up the evidence taken at the Coroner's inquest with the evidence taken at the trial, and that jury duty is a very serious matter. No sermons, or charges from the judge, or addresses from counsel, have half as much effect on an ignorant man in rousing his conscience as the wrath of his neighbors. Doubtless it often works the wrong way, but as a general rule the indignation of the community is on the right side. It is its apathy and indifference which are apt to be immoral.

That eminent and well-known reformer, Mr. B. F. Butler, has written a strong letter condemning the Government officials for their failure to carry out the law which makes eight hours a day's work in the Government arsenals and workshops, and says he has a petition before the Court of Claims which will test the rights of all mechanics under the law. The truth about that law is that it was passed in one of the bursts of demagogy which occasionally overtake Congress, under the influence of the labor agitation which raged in the United States as in other countries, with extraordinary fervor, fifteen years ago. The theory was produced at that period, and had a considerable run, that the day's work was twenty per cent. too long; that every laborer could produce as much in eight hours as in ten, and that even if he could not, the two hours' leisure would be so valuable to him, for purposes of self-culture, that he ought to have it, and that it ought to be secured to him by law. Legislation was therefore demanded from all the States making eight hours a legal day's labor. Of course, the silliness of the idea was apparent to everybody capable of the least reflection. None but the lowest grade of laborers could have been imposed on by it. There was no use in fixing the length of the working day at eight hours unless the rate of wages was also fixed, and unless every man was forbidden to work more than eight hours. As long as any man could work ten hours if he pleased, of course the eight-hour men would be fatally worsted in the labor market; and though time for culture might be very valuable, it would not fill their bellies. In fact, when one goes back now to the discussions which this matter called forth in 1868, one seems to be listening to Sunday-school lectures on political economy, and feels what great advances the

country has made since the war in what may be called "horse sense" in financial and economical matters. In that year Butler and a host of others were bellowing away daily in favor of an eight-hour law and unlimited greenbacks, and the repudiation or scaling of the national debt, and had a very respectable following. Now, when he revives one of his old cries, few people examine it from other motives than curiosity.

The wine production of California is reported to be steadily growing. In 1881 the vintage was about 9,000,000 gallons. In 1882 it was estimated to be between 10,000,000 and 11,000,000 gallons. In France it is noticed that the exportation of champagne from that country to the United States is seriously falling off. It was 123,574 dozen bottles during the first six months of 1881, and only 104,755 dozen during the corresponding six months of 1882. This is attributed to the substitution of California wines for French wines, the California wines being, according to an admission contained in a communication from the French Minister of Commerce to the President of the Reims Chamber of Commerce, "not much poorer" than some imported articles, and very much cheaper. California red and white still wines are passing in the same way for wines imported from France or Germany. The California wine-grower, or the merchant who buys from him, gives the California wine a foreign name for the purpose of finding a market for it. That policy may, in a certain degree, be successful, but it is after all a short-sighted policy. Some of the wines raised in California are really very good. If they continue to be sold under foreign labels, they will never make a reputation of their own. They will always be looked upon as cheats and counterfeits, which ought not to appear on a gentleman's table. Only when they assert their worth in their own names, will they be recognized as the equals of foreign products whenever they deserve it, and command a corresponding price.

A shocking social homicide was committed in Hill County, Texas, at a ball last week in a private house. One of the guests, Mr. T. P. Varnell, asked one of the daughters of the family, and his partner in the dance, to take a stroll with him outside the house, when he attempted to assault her. Her screams brought her father to the scene, whom Varnell incontinently shot dead. The affair, which has apparently occurred among persons in a good position in life, has roused an extraordinary amount of public indignation, and led to the formation of a county law-and-order association, the members of which bind themselves to answer all calls for assistance from the officers of the law, and to do whatever needs to be done to enforce its execution, even at the risk of their lives, and to pay the cost of arms, horses, and other necessaries of persons belonging to the posse thus summoned; and in case any such member is injured, either in person or property, to hold them harmless, and prosecute all persons assailing or persecuting them. The creation of such organizations throughout the South would soon solve the homicide problem.

There is something very touching about the zeal of the philanthropists who are trying to secure "freedom of worship" for the young ragamuffins confined for their good in prisons and reformatories. The matter is now engaging the attention of the Legislature in Massachusetts, as well as that at Albany. It is proposed in Boston to change the law so that none of the little Massachusetts convicts shall be compelled to attend religious services other than those which have been the choice of their parents. In most cases, however, the parents of this class of young people are pretty difficult to find, and what is to be done then? The freedom-of-worship bill at Albany provides for this case by allowing the young convict to choose his own religion; so that he can insist on worshipping according to the Parsee or Buddhistic faith if he desires. But how about agnostic infants? Have they no rights? Shall the young agnostic thief be compelled to violate his conscience while the Catholic, or Episcopalian, or Presbyterian pickpocket's scruples are so carefully protected?

The Government of Italy has fixed upon the 12th of April for the resumption of specie payments. Gold to the amount of $83,500,000 has been accumulated for the purpose. This sum would seem to be ample to meet every exigency. It will be found, probably, that the demand for gold, when resumption-day comes, will be very little if any in excess of the requirements of bankers for foreign remittances. These requirements must be small, seeing that the gold premium a month ago was only one-half per cent. If the Government meets the demand boldly and pays out its coin freely, giving to the note holders the option of taking either gold or silver, according to their free choice, there cannot be any great drain upon the Treasury. If, on the other hand, it shows timidity and tries to force silver upon the public against their wishes, it will breed distrust and provoke a run. There is every reason to anticipate that the experiment of resumption will prove successful. It is worthy of remark that the cataclysm presaged by the bimetallists in the Paris Monetary Conference—to which Mr. Goschen, singularly enough, gave some countenance—as the result and consequence of gold resumption by the paper-money countries of Europe, is as far off as ever.

The later despatches show that it is generally acknowledged in England, as the result of the police investigations, that Lady Florence Dixie has either been guilty of a very gross attempt at imposture, or has been the victim of a kind of hysterical delusion of which there have been numerous examples. The absurdity of the tale as she told it was so patent that most people will incline to the latter explanation of her escapade. It appears that not only the gardener but a soldier and a woman were close by the spot on which she made the assault take place, at the hour she named, and heard nothing and saw nobody, and the damp mould of the shrubbery showed no trace of the deadly struggle. The affair will probably do good in diminishing or putting a stop to Lady Florence's political activity. She has done some excellent work of a charitable kind in Ireland, but her explorations in politics, and especially those about the Land League fund, have been simply exasperating and confusing. She furnished, in fact, an excellent illustration of the inconveniences of female participation in exciting political controversies. She brought against the Land Leaguers, on evidence, if any existed, of the flimsiest kind, the double charge of embezzling the funds and using them to promote assassination. Of course the answer to such charges could not but seem brutal and truculent; and then there resulted naturally more or less English horror over the Land Leaguers' treatment of a "woman," to which she appears now to have appealed by exhibiting "stabs" in her corsets.

The English Lord Chancellor has introduced a bill into Parliament to modify the powers of judges to punish for contempt of court. At present the power is unlimited, and is, in fact, a vestige of the ancient arbitrary authority handed down from times when the sovereign administered justice in person. The bill fixes limits both as to length of imprisonment and fines. The right to punish without limit in the case of marriages of wards in Chancery is, we believe, retained, so that this may still furnish materials for the novelist and the composer of comic opera. The American heir is not mentioned in the bill; but whether the difficulties with which he always meets in getting the money awaiting a claimant in the vaults of the Bank of England, are connected in any way with the power to punish for contempt, we do not know. A deep obscurity envelops this branch of equity, and probably nothing short of a Parliamentary inquiry will ever clear it up.

The debate and division on Parnell's bill for amending the Irish Land Act are generally admitted by the Liberal press to be very serious in some of their aspects. The bill was intended to remedy what all admit are very grave defects in the Act, some of which have been revealed by judicial decisions. The principal are—the inability of the tenant to get the benefit of the Act from the time he gives notice of his intention to apply for it; its failure to cover the leaseholders, who constitute one-fourth of the tenant farmers; and its failure to protect the tenant against having to pay rent on his own improvements. Parnell had the direct support of all the Ulster members, who have hitherto stood by the Government, and of many English Liberals, such as Mr. James Bryce, who spoke in the debate, and the indirect support of others, who refrained from voting altogether. Parnell's speech was in places violent and injudicious, but Gladstone's flat refusal to hold out any hope of an amendment to the bill is felt to be a grave matter, as likely to alienate the Scotch-Irish of the North, and thus increase the Home-Rule forces at the next election. Mr. Shaw, one of the most moderate and respected of the Irish members, who has always held aloof from the Parnellites, has already made a speech in the North advising the farmers to throw off all allegiance to either English party, and vote for whichever promises them most.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 21, to TUESDAY, March 27, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

TIMOTHY O. HOWE, Postmaster-General of the United States, died at Kenosha, Wis., on Sunday. He was born in 1816 at Livermore, Me. He was a member of the Maine Legislature for a year, and in 1845 removed to Wisconsin, where he became Chief Justice of the State, and afterward for eighteen years United States Senator. He was a member of the Monetary Conference which met at Paris in 1881. In December of the same year he was appointed Postmaster-General by President Arthur. The President directs that the Post-office Department and its dependencies in the Capital shall be draped in mourning for a period of thirty days, that the several executive departments shall be closed on Wednesday next, the day of the funeral of the deceased, and that on all public buildings of the Government throughout the United States the national flag shall be draped in mourning and displayed at half-mast.

The Post-office Department has received and filed for examination a large number of claims of postmasters who are entitled to increased salary under the provisions of the Readjustment Act, known as the "Spaulding Bill," passed at the last session of Congress. An attorney representing a number of these postmasters is now in Washington, and has made an informal argument in their behalf at the Post-office Department, maintaining that the increase of salaries provided for by the act may properly be paid out of the regular appropriation for salaries for the current fiscal year. The officers of the Post-office Department, however, assert that the law providing for the readjustment of postmasters' salaries cannot be carried into effect without a specific appropriation, and that to pay the amount of the increase of salaries out of the regular Appropriation Bill would create a large deficiency. It is the intention of the Department to begin the work of readjusting salaries under the two-cent postage law, as provided for in the Bingham Bill, as soon as possible.

The Second Assistant Postmaster-General has ordered the establishment of a post route in the Territory of Alaska, to extend from Haines to Juneau, a distance of 105 miles. The service will be monthly. The mails will probably be carried by canoe. The contract was awarded to Sheldon Jackson, of the New York Presbyterian Missionary Society. This is the first mail route established in Alaska.

Governor Ordway, of Dakota, has written a letter to the Secretary of the Interior giving some particulars with regard to affairs in that Territory. He says the Territorial Assembly adjourned on March 9, and that 300 of the bills passed by it have become laws; legislative provision was made for nine penal, charitable, and educational institutions to be situated in various parts of the Territory; and an issue of Territorial bonds to the amount of about $400,000, bearing 5 and 6 per cent. interest, was authorized to provide funds for the erection of the necessary buildings. A bill was passed and approved naming nine of the most reputable men of the Territory as commissioners to select a place for the Territorial Capital and to erect, at a cost not exceeding $100,000, the necessary Government buildings.

A statement has been prepared at the Treasury Department which shows the total estimated receipts of the Government for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1883, under the operations of the new Tariff Act, to be $405,000,000. Of this amount $220,000,000 is the estimated revenue from customs; $143,500,000 from internal revenue, and $41,500,000 from miscellaneous sources. The revenues for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1882, were as follows: From customs, $220,410,000; from internal revenue, $146,497,000; from miscellaneous sources, $36,618,000; total, $403,525,000.

Attention has recently been drawn to the fact that the new Civil-Service Law is silent as to any distinction to be made between male and female applicants for places in the executive departments. The problem of reconciling this state of affairs with the present practice in most of the departments, of giving male applicants for office the preference in appointments, is now the subject of consideration by the Civil-Service Commissioners. The rules to be drawn up by the Commission will, it is understood, contain some provision bearing upon this question, the Commissioners being cognizant of the necessities of the public service and the opposition on the part of heads of departments to any large increase in the number of female clerks.

Stephen W. Dorsey was put on the witness stand by the defence in the Star-route trials on Monday. Before taking the oath he was asked some questions by the prosecution in regard to his belief in a "future state of rewards and punishments," which brought Mr. Ingersoll to his feet with an indignant address in regard to the "perpetuation of this monstrosity of the dark ages." The Court ruled that, under the Act of March 16, 1878, the defendant was allowed to testify. Dorsey's evidence, like Brady's, was a succession of sweeping denials. He had never entered into a conspiracy with Brady, John Dorsey, Vaile, Miner, or any or either of them to defraud the Government by bidding for mail contracts. He never had any transaction with Brady to the extent of one cent in his life. He had never given any direction to Rerdell to open an account with William Smith, or with Samuel Jones, or with John H. Mitchell, nor had he ever stated to Rerdell, or any one else, that William Smith stood for Brady. On Tuesday he flatly denied all of Rerdell's most damaging statements.

The Grand Jury at Washington on Tuesday brought in two indictments against ex-Senator Kellogg, of Louisiana, and two new indictments against Brady. The first presentment against Kellogg charges him with (while Senator) receiving $20,000 from Price, a mail contractor, with which to bribe Brady to allow to Price an increase of pay and compensation for carrying the mails over certain routes. The second presentment charges Kellogg and Brady jointly with having conspired with Price to defraud the Government by means of false oaths and fraudulent claims for increased pay. The two presentments against Brady charge him with having received $25,000 for awarding the contracts on the routes described in the presentment against Kellogg.

Four survivors of the *Jeannette* arrived in New York on Tuesday morning by the steamer *Westphalia*. Two of the men were seamen, one a fireman and the other a coal-passer. Their names are: James H. Bartlett, Herbert W. Leach, Francis Manson, and John Lauterbach. They were in good health, and were highly praised for their behavior during the expedition by Chief Engineer Melville and Lieutenant Danenhower. The *Jeannette* Court of Inquiry will now be reconvened about April 1.

The remains of John Howard Payne, the author of "Home, Sweet Home," arrived at New York on Thursday, and were taken to the City Hall, where they lay in state and were visited by thousands of people. On Friday they were taken to Washington by a special train, and will be interred at Oak Hill Cemetery on the 9th of June, the ninety-first anniversary of his birth, and services in honor of his memory will be held at the grave.

The Tennessee Senate on Friday adopted a resolution authorizing a settlement with the defaulting Treasurer, Polk. He is to be allowed to pay $175,000 in Tennessee bonds and $75,000 in notes issued by the Bank of Tennessee, which shall be credited upon his deficit for the sum of $250,000, and which, when paid, shall relieve his sureties. But nothing in the act is to prevent the prosecution of Polk.

A Senate committee nearly two years a[go] began an investigation into the accounts of e[x-] State Treasurer Churchill, of Arkansas, the[n] Governor, who had served as Treasurer for six years on three terms. The committee spent a year on the accounts and reported a deficit of $114,000. When the Legislature met in January last the House refused to accept the report, saying the law required an investigation by a joint committee. Finally a joint committee was appointed and the work was begun anew. On Saturday a final report was made which charges a deficit, according to the face of the books, of $233,600 87. The difference in the two reports causes much comment. The matter is to be brought before the courts.

The coming election of the Mayor in Chicago will be made to turn on the license question. At a conference on Monday between the Citizens' Committee and the Republican managers, the former adopted a platform for the Mayoralty campaign declaring for a license of $250 a year for beer saloons, and $500 for shops selling distilled liquors. The Republicans took no action, but tacitly acquiesced in this declaration of principles. The Republicans and Citizens are running a joint city ticket.

The "straight-out" Democrats of Rhode Island have bolted the Sprague ticket, and published an address calling upon all true Democrats to support a ticket headed by Charles R. Cutter and Horace A. Kemball for Governor and Lieutenant-Governor. Another blow to Sprague's chances has been given by the refusal of George, the nominee on the Sprague ticket for Lieutenant-Governor, to run.

A despatch from Uniontown, Penn., says that N. L. Dukes, the murderer of Nutt, arrived there on Sunday night, and on Monday morning a committee of citizens presented him with resolutions adopted at the recent indignation meeting, and gave him notice that he would have twenty-four hours within which to transact his business and leave the town.

A general call of the National League of Ireland and the Irish National Land League of the United States and Canada has been issued for an Irish-American National Convention, to be held in Philadelphia on April 26. It is announced that Mr. Parnell will surely be present.

Another move has been made by the opponents of President Porter, of Union College, to oust him from his position. It is in the shape of a bill providing that six of the State officers who are members of the Board of Trustees of Union College shall cease to be Trustees, and that the vacancies then created shall be filled at the next annual meeting of the Alumni, which takes place at Commencement in June next. As the majority of the Alumni are thought to be opposed to President Porter, it is expected that the new Trustees will be "anti-Porter men." The bill has passed both houses of the Legislature, and is now before the Governor.

The St. Louis *Post-Dispatch* has reports of the winter wheat crop from over 200 counties in those parts of Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Kansas, Missouri, and Texas where winter wheat is grown. The reports from Missouri and Kansas show that the condition is good, the acreage is fully equal to last year, and the damage so far is no greater than is usual at this time of year. Tennessee and Illinois give fair reports, but Kentucky and Indiana, especially the latter, show considerable damage. From Texas reports are meagre, but those received are good. It is learned from other sources that the condition is generally good, with a fair prospect for a full crop. The reports also show that a large amount of last year's corn crop still remains in the above-named States.

FOREIGN.

A despatch from London on Thursday said that the police were in possession of a clew to

the explosion in the office of the Local Government Board. A woman observed, and has fully described, the appearance of a man who was apparently placing an infernal machine against the building. It is expected that an arrest will be made soon.

Two thousand infantry have been ordered to protect the public buildings in London, and the Coldstream Guards have been posted in the Parliament Buildings and Buckingham Palace.

Lady Florence Dixie's story is now very generally disbelieved. Captain O'Shea, Home-Rule Member of Parliament for County Clare, has informed Sir William Harcourt, Home Secretary, that when the House of Commons assembles after the Easter holidays he will ask whether Lady Florence Dixie formerly hoaxed the public by the invention of a letter from King Cetewayo, and whether, as a result of the inquiry into the alleged assault upon her at Windsor, the police have concluded that Lady Florence is an impostor.

A Dublin despatch says that counsel for the defence in the murder conspiracy trials are confident that they will be able to shake the testimony of James Carey. Cardinal Manning has issued an appeal asking for a collection in aid of the distressed people in Ireland. In the trial of Nugent and twelve other members of the Armagh Assassination Society, on the charge of conspiracy to murder, at Belfast on Friday, the jury rendered a verdict of guilty. On Tuesday six more members of the society were found guilty.

The London *Times* of Saturday pointed out that the Belfast jury which rendered a verdict of guilty upon Nugent and his associates accepted as authentic a diary kept by the plotters, in which it was reported that a man had sworn, at the request of the Land League, to kill a landlord named Brooke.

The Dublin *Freeman's Journal* states that the correspondence which has passed between the Home Office and Mr. Lowell, the United States Minister, has resulted in the former's renouncing all hope of securing the extradition of the person known as "Number One." The *Journal* declares that "Number One," whose name is Tyner, was in Dublin until the first day James Carey was examined at the hearing of the conspirators. He then managed to reach Bremen, by way of Hull. From Bremen he proceeded to Havre, and thence to New York. He was a member of one of the London volunteer corps.

Mr. Parnell, who is now in Paris, has made a number of statements there which have attracted attention. He is reported to have said, among other things, that the Government came to him while in Kilmainham Jail and asked him to intervene and suppress outrages. It is asserted that he will be asked in Parliament either to confirm or deny some of these statements.

A rumor was circulated during the week to the effect that the British Government, through Mr. West, had intimated "that the violent expressions which certain professed American citizens have given utterance to since the recent explosion in London may disturb the otherwise amicable relations existing between Her Majesty's Government and the United States," but it is asserted to be entirely without foundation. The London *Daily Telegraph* of Monday treated as preposterous the report that the British Government had sent a menacing note to Washington in regard to the utterances and writings of the Irish dynamite party in America. It said that the United States Government's attitude of indifference at the ravings of these men is the same as that which England has always adopted toward exiles taking refuge in this country.

While the service in St. Paul's Cathedral, London, was in progress on Saturday a well-dressed man ran up the altar steps with his hat on, leaped upon the altar and dashed the cross, candlesticks, vases, and flowers to the ground. The Dean and several of the choristers secured the man after a struggle and gave him into the custody of the police. In the excitement many persons left the church, horrified at the sight.

The great review and sham fight of the Volunteer troops took place on Monday at Brighton, England. The weather was fine and cold, and favorable for the movements of the men, about 20,000 of whom were engaged.

John Bright delivered an address on Thursday as Rector of Glasgow University. He said that American independence, the French Revolution, and the English Reform Bill had transferred power from monarchs and statesmen to the people, and dwelt upon the advisability of a peaceable policy even with a view to self-interest. The cost of the civil war in America, he declared, would more than have sufficed to free every slave without bloodshed. With regard to Ireland, he said that if the Treaty of Limerick had been fulfilled and freedom of religion granted, the sad history of that country might never have been recorded. India was the great problem of the future.

A meeting of the English Revolutionary League has been held in London to consider the question of holding a great international convention of revolutionists. The President of the meeting said that the Government officials now recognize the fact that dynamite is an important factor in political life. It was resolved to invite Louise Michel and other prominent Socialists to the proposed convention.

An explosion occurred on Saturday night near the Ministry of Justice at Rome. Upon investigation, remnants of a bottle which had been filled with gunpowder were discovered. A man, who is supposed to have placed the bottle there, has been arrested. He had in his possession a portrait of Overdank, the bomb manufacturer, who was executed in Austria.

A socialistic manifesto is in circulation in the southern part of Russia inviting the people during the coming fêtes on the occasion of the coronation of the Czar to pillage the houses of the nobles and Jews. A deputation of nobles has gone to St. Petersburg to ask Count Tolstoi, the Minister of the Interior, to provide for the protection of their property.

The London *Standard's* Varna correspondent says that business at Erzerum is at a standstill, in consequence of the movement of the Russians in the Caucasus. The growing opinion is that a Russo-Turkish conflict is imminent. The Armenians are wearied with the indifference shown by Great Britain to their wrongs, and would welcome Russian occupation. The Russians along the frontier number 100,000.

A despatch to the *Daily Telegraph* from Vienna says that several villages at the foot of Mount Ararat have been destroyed by snow avalanches. It is stated that 150 persons have been killed and 100 injured.

The inhabitants of Carlovo, Sopot, and Kalofer, in Rumelia, have risen against the importation of foreign woollen thread, and several depots containing such thread have been pillaged and burned. The militia refused to suppress the outbreak.

Mount Etna has been in a state of active eruption. A new crater has opened, and the lava threatened to overwhelm Nicolosi and other villages. The people in the threatened places left their homes. There are eleven fissures in the mountain. On Monday the eruption had subsided, and all danger was over.

A despatch from Geneva says that the emigration from Switzerland to America is assuming alarming proportions. Several districts are fast becoming depopulated. The exodus is owing to bad harvests and American competition. The Swiss Consul in New York, however, declares the report untrue.

The *North German Gazette* says that one of the main obstacles to peace between Prussia and the Roman Curia is the continued presence at the Vatican of Cardinal Ledochowski, Archbishop of Posen. The Prussian Government has informed the Vatican that Cardinal Ledochowski can quit the Vatican without fear of arrest, as the extradition treaty does not apply in his case. It is stated that Prussia, in answer to a note of Cardinal Jacobini, Papal Secretary of State, has refused to concede the demands of the latter relative to education and the appointment of priests, and that all the negotiations up to the present time have been a failure.

Despatches from Berlin say that the Spanish Minister there is about to go on a furlough, and will probably remain absent until the settlement of the differences between Spain and Germany with regard to customs duties. The treaty of commerce between Germany and Mexico has been submitted to the Bundesrath. It secures the safety of the retail trade and the freedom of property owned by Germans in Mexico from forced loans or war charges.

The American artists in Paris have formed a committee to draw up a petition to Congress, asking for a repeal of the clause in the new Tariff Act increasing the tax on works of art.

A French transport, with 500 troops for the Tonquin expedition, arrived at Haidong on February 21, increasing the number of the force to 2,500 infantry. No active hostilities are expected, however, a pacific settlement having been arranged.

Tewfik Bey, formerly Minister of Finance, has been appointed Turkish Minister at Washington.

Dr. Francisco Garcia Calderon, who is a prisoner in Chili, has addressed a note to Dr. Logan in which he objects to the despatch addressed by the latter to Admiral Montero, and objects to its having been given publicity. In this note Dr. Calderon informs the public, for the first time, that he was once on the verge of making peace, but failed to do so owing to the Chilians augmenting their demands. The condition of affairs in Peru continues unaltered, but as the Chilians have released several of their more important prisoners who have returned to Peru to advocate peace, the prospects continue to improve.

There is a revolution in Ecuador. Dictator Veintimilla is in Guayaquil, but it is probable that the revolutionary troops will soon enter the city without a struggle. Business is bad and the coffee trade has been almost destroyed by the war. Rioting has been prevented by the presence of an Italian and a British man-of-war.

London advices from Buenos Ayres under date of February 24 report that a fight occurred in Patagonia between Argentine and Chilian troops, owing to the refusal of the former to quit Chilian territory. Several men were killed and a number wounded. The Argentine troops finally retired across the border. Another despatch from South America reports the Chilian troops to be marching upon the city of La Paz, in Bolivia.

The Chinese authorities protest vehemently against the injustice of the British with respect to telegraph stations. The Hong Kong Government recently prohibited the landing of a telegraph line in that colony. The Chinese now oppose the landing of a British line at Shanghai. The British Consul has received instructions from home to effect and maintain a landing by force if necessary.

The *Commercial Advertiser* of Honolulu, referring to reports of the general spread of leprosy in the Sandwich Islands, says that certain districts of the island of Kauai, comprising an area of 300 square miles of the most densely populated portion of the kingdom, with 10,000 inhabitants, have been thoroughly searched for lepers by the Board of Health. The result was that twenty-eight native and no foreign lepers were found.

ENGLAND AND THE IRISH-AMERICANS.

EVER since the Irish troubles entered on their present phase, in 1880, it has been recognized clearly in England that they owed a great deal of their gravity to the help and encouragement which the malcontents received from their countrymen on this side of the water. Without this help and encouragement the Land League could hardly have been organized and carried on as it was. A very large, if not the larger, part of its funds came from America, and with the money there came what was perhaps of more importance than money, the assurance that the Irishmen in Ireland had at their back nearly as many more in the United States. This was an absolutely new feature in the Irish situation. In their past struggles with England, the Irish have had no outside aid to rely on but that of France, and that was only twice given, and was given grudgingly and on a small scale, and never accomplished anything. All through the eighteenth century there was a large body of Irishmen in the French service, and sympathy for Ireland was one of the traditions of French foreign policy, which was maintained after the Revolution and found expression in Humbert's small expedition in 1798. In the Rebellion of 1798 France was the principal reliance of the insurgents, and this feeling was still so strong, fifty years later, that it was undoubtedly the Revolution of 1848 in Paris which precipitated the melancholy outbreak of the Young Irelanders in that year.

Now all is changed. What is, for the purposes of the Irish malcontents, to all intents and purposes another Ireland has sprung up on this side of the Atlantic, which is worth a hundredfold more to them than France ever was, particularly as America is now far nearer Ireland than France was even fifty years ago. Moreover, the Irish in America are better off pecuniarily than Irishmen of the same way of thinking ever were before. They number nearly 2,000,000, too, and count, as enemies of England, for fully double that number of the population of Ireland before the famine of 1847. The consolation the London *Times* has, therefore, more than once found in the reflection that Irish discontent is no longer the formidable thing it used to be—because, while Irishmen were a third of the population of the British Isles at the beginning of the century, they are now only a sixth or seventh—is but poor consolation, after all. It must be admitted by every candid observer that, considered as a menace to English peace, the Irish population is now more formidable than it has ever been, and much better furnished with weapons of aggression. The great emigration which the *Times* in 1848 rejoiced over with such unfortunate glee, far from proving a relief to British politics, has prepared the present crisis, and is now giving it terrible aggravation. The population of Ireland is, for political purposes, nearer 10,000,000 than 5,000,000, and can give a dollar for English torment where forty years ago it could only give a cent.

It is not surprising, under these circumstances, that the British Government should be very anxious to have the United States do something to restrain the Irish agitators, and, above all, the truculent and bloodthirsty Irish press, on this side of the water in their efforts to promote turbulence and crime in Ireland. It would not be surprising, even if the Irish newspapers here were not as ferocious as they are, and even if they did not furnish weekly encouragement to the perpetrators of outrages in Ireland, and help to persuade them that the blowing up of public buildings and the assassination of public officers are acts of "war."

For the last two years the English press has abounded with remonstrance to the American Government on this subject. It is every now and then asked to muzzle the *Irish World*, and to prevent people like O'Donovan Rossa from collecting money avowedly for the commission of crime in Great Britain and Ireland. There are rumors to-day that an official note embodying these complaints has found its way to Washington, and will have shortly to be answered. We cannot help doubting that there is any truth in this, but if any such note has come, the answer is unhappily very easy. We have, in the first place, no law for the punishment of such offences, and the reasons why we could not get one passed in deference to English susceptibilities are substantially the same as the reasons which prevented the passage of a similar bill in 1858, on the demand of the French Government, by the British Parliament. Lord Palmerston's Ministry fell under the attempt to carry that bill at that time, not because Englishmen approved of attempts to assassinate foreign rulers, but because they were unwilling to legislate in aid of foreign governments trying to stifle internal discontent, or to restrict in so doing the right of asylum to political refugees. Anybody who proposed such legislation here would fare no better.

Moreover, in case such a law were passed, it could not be executed through juries. The attempt to restrain freedom of speech on political topics by law was once tried in this country, at a period when people had far more respect for official authority than they have now, and it failed ignominiously. It would fail more ignominiously to-day. No American jury could be got to sit long on the question whether Irish exiles were justified in using threats and foul language in their newspapers against English officials. They would say, naturally enough, that as England appears to be unable to restrain Irish license in speech and behavior on Irish soil, with a large army and fleet, it was asking too much to expect Americans to help her in the work here. Unquestionably any such trial would end in the triumph of the "assassination press," and in enlisting on the Irish side the sympathies of tens of thousands of Americans who now pay no attention to the Irish question whatever, or are thoroughly disgusted with the Irish mode of agitating. No worse service could be rendered to the British Government to-day than an effort to force an expression of opinion on the merits of the Irish controversy from any body of Americans, even a body so small as a jury. There is, in fact, only one way for England out of the difficulty, and that is to come to terms with reasonable Irishmen. Having done this, she will not suffer long from the unreasonable Irishmen. At present, she is trying to govern Irishmen, reasonable and unreasonable, in a way that will suit the prejudices of Englishmen. In that undertaking she cannot expect much aid from busy and uninterested foreigners. That it is chimerical, nearly everybody out of England sees. It is high time it came to an end.

SPORTS IN AND OUT OF COLLEGE.

PRESIDENT MCCOSH has written a letter on the subject of college sports, in which he takes up the common complaint, that college students are allowed to devote themselves to the pursuit of athletics at the expense of those branches of learning which they are, in theory, sent to college to acquire. There is a pretty widespread impression that, as he puts it, the *enthusiasm* of college life tends in the direction, not of literature or science, "but of muscles and bones"; and he tells an anecdote of a father who, on the occasion of his son's graduation, bitterly remarked to a professor that he had sent his boy to college to become a scholar, but that what he had learnt there only fitted him for a position in a circus.

> "Certainly the ambitious boy with a big body and a little mind feels it to be a mighty reward when he gets, because he has performed a feat, a cheer from 10,000 people assembled on the field in which Yale and Harvard are fighting for the headship. As the most fatal issue of this spirit, perhaps the idlest fellow in his studies becomes the hero of his class, is fêted, and gets the honors which his class has to bestow. It follows, incidentally, that the fine scholar is not appreciated, and is spoken of as a plodder, and branded with similar opprobrious epithets. Another incidental consequence has followed, I am sorry to say. Some students, and graduates, too, not satisfied with seeing the pure display of agility, wish something more stimulating, and bet on one side or the other; and among a few there is a considerable amount of gambling, stirring up the lowest passions of our nature, such as avarice and selfishness, and leading on to mercantile gambling, ending, it may be, if not in bankruptcy of fortune, in bankruptcy of character."

Admitting the evil, President McCosh says very justly that the true way to meet it is that already taken at Harvard—for the colleges themselves to undertake the supervision and regulation of college sports. To try to break up rowing and base-ball and foot-ball would be absurd, but students may be prevented from playing with professionals who earn their living by means of athletics, limits may be imposed as to the time allowed for sports, in short, the colleges may recognize that not only physical training but physical contests are an indispensable part of college life—just as much so as are the intellectual contests which result in "rank" or "honors."

It is really practically out of the question for any university to encourage athletic sports and at the same time to set its face against races, matches, and other contests in which proficiency in them is measured. Anybody who will try to picture to himself what sort of a place a college would be if the undergraduates pulled in wherries, exercised on parallel bars, ran, walked, and played ball solely for the purpose of physical "culture," and without any idea of rivalry or emulation, or of being found worthy of a place in a racing crew, or of holding a position in a college "nine," will at once see that races and matches and games and con-

tests of all sorts are what give to college athletics nine-tenths of their impetus. Hence it is useless to say that athletic exercise is a good thing, but that athletic contests ought to be altogether tabooed, and of course the objectors to them would hardly insist on the colleges going so far as this. What they object to principally is the waste of time taken up in training for "intercollegiate regattas," and the great college ball matches. It should not be forgotten, however, with regard to this, that the number of undergraduates who are drawn away from their studies by the necessities of training is extremely small, and that they belong, in nine cases out of ten, to a class little likely to devote itself to mental work under any circumstances. A young man whose body is his chief capital, may as well employ it, and he can hardly employ it more innocently than by athletic discipline. The colleges are every year more and more abandoning the old theory that an undergraduate must be kept at his tasks and have them set for him like a schoolboy; and under the new system, those who have no intellectual ambition will waste a good deal of their time in any case. College sports save them from so much idleness, if they do nothing more.

It must be remembered that the *enthusiasm* for sport is not confined to college students, but is a feature of modern life outside as well as inside the colleges, and as a matter of fact it runs a much wilder riot outside of them than it does inside. It is not college students who are responsible for the profound interest taken by the public at large, and stimulated by the press, not merely in races or base-ball matches, but in six-day walking matches, starving contests, quail-eating against time, and "events" which are of positive injury to the human body, and are, in fact, merely got up to furnish an opportunity for betting. Any college boy who reads the newspapers must infer from the space devoted to such contests that it is at least an open question whether the honor and glory to be obtained by success in this field is not as great as that to be got by distinguished services in the church, or at the bar, or in public life. A college athlete might fairly maintain that as long as the adult world delights to magnify the fame of prize-fighters, and billiard-players, and quail-eaters, and eagerly crowds to get the news of their performances —just as if they were important discoveries or achievements in science, literature, and art— he may be excused for doubting whether, after all, an enthusiasm for study and mental improvement pays. We have before us a telegraphic despatch giving an account of an event which took place in Philadelphia last week, intended to appeal to adult interest in sport. It was an international "jigging" match between a distinguished Philadelphian jig-dancer named Morton, and a no less eminent performer from Dublin. It drew a great crowd, the theatre was densely packed, and the "excitement ran high." Any college student may fairly insist that boating and base-ball playing are much loftier objects of devotion than this.

The craze for sports, contests, and "events" is a feature of the modern world, and to expect the enthusiasm not to show itself in the colleges would be absurd. In fact, it has forced its way there rather against the feeling of the faculties than by their aid; and considering to what amazing excesses the love of "sports" of all kinds tends in the adult world, it is rather surprising that the college sports are, on the whole, still confined to honest boyish contests of bone and muscle. The promise of leading colleges to supervise and regulate these may serve to reassure us as to the future. College supervision may check the spread of the feeling among undergraduates, which adults do so much to encourage, that a man who can walk five hundred miles in six days, or live without taking food for a month, or "jig" twenty steps in seventeen minutes, is a great public character, who reflects credit on his country and age, and whose memory will be cherished as a precious possession by generations to come.

THE LATE MR. JOHN RICHARD GREEN.

LONDON, March 16, 1883.

FEW books published in England during late years have been so widely read or so heartily appreciated in America as Mr. J. R. Green's 'Short History of the English People.' It made its way at once over the Continent and into the homes of persons of all classes. It gave people ideas about English history they had never received before. It still keeps, and seems long likely to keep, its place as the historical work of this generation which is at once most instructive and most popular. Some account, therefore, of the author of this famous book, who has just expired at Mentone, in the South of France, may be acceptable to those American readers who gratefully remember the pleasure he has given them.

Mr. Green was born at Oxford in 1837, educated at a school there, and afterward at Jesus College in Oxford University. He took his degree there in 1861. But the college was in those days (for it is said to have greatly improved since) one of the least useful in the University. Its teaching was poor, and as its undergraduates were nearly all Welshmen, they mixed but little with the members of other colleges. Mr. Green, accordingly, though his abilities were recognized by a few friends, had no opportunity of making himself generally known in the University, and left it without leaving the mark that might have been expected from him. He was ordained a clergyman of the Church of England, and immediately took a curacy in London, from which he was soon promoted to the pastoral charge of the parish of St. Philip's, Stepney, a district in one of the poorest and most neglected parts of East London. Here he labored for several years with immense zeal and energy, devoting his efforts—as largely happens in England, especially among ministers of the Established Church—to promoting the social and material, as well as the spiritual, benefit of the parishioners. He left Oxford a strong High Churchman, although the first strength of the High Church movement had pretty well spent itself before his time. But his keen and naturally somewhat sceptical mind soon began to question the ecclesiastical position in which his early training had placed him, and he ceased not only to be a High Churchman, but to feel himself comfortable as a clergyman at all. His health, naturally far from strong, had also suffered from hard work under unfavorable conditions and by the strain of the pulpit, for he preached with singular fire and force, throwing himself into his subject with a brilliance that would have made his church crowded had it lain anywhere near the better parts of London.

These two causes led him to retire from pastoral work; and the appointment of librarian to the Archiepiscopal Library at Lambeth, which he received in 1867, gave him easier duties, and enabled him to devote the rest of his time to literature and history. Already, from his college days, he had been warmly interested in historical and archæological studies; had written some detached papers on those subjects, had gathered a good library, had begun to accumulate materials for a history of the Angevin Kings of England. The small circle of friends that knew him privately knew how great his powers were; but the general public, though it had read with admiration the reviews of historical books which he occasionally contributed to the *Saturday Review*, had never heard of his name until the publication of his 'Short History of the English People.' That book, so bright, vivacious, and rapid in its movement, was the fruit of many years of patient thought and study, had been twice almost wholly rewritten, and would perhaps not have appeared even when it did, so high was the standard of merit which its author set before himself, had not his declining health and the urgency of his friends compelled him to publish it as it stood, rather than spend more time in re-revising it. He was, however, so far from thinking it complete that very soon after its publication he set himself to prepare a larger book in the same spirit, filling up whatever had been inadequately treated in the 'Short History,' and correcting some mistakes of detail into which he had fallen. This more elaborate work was completed in four volumes some three years ago. Although it represents his maturer thought and is more exact in details than the 'Short History,' it has not superseded the latter in popular favor, partly on account of its greater bulk, partly because the brilliant boldness and swift march of the earlier book have more attractions for most readers than that somewhat more guarded and quiet strain which a historian who is again traversing old ground is led to adopt.

In 1877 Mr. Green entered on the happiest part of his life, having been married in that year to a lady of remarkable gifts, who entered warmly into all his tastes and pursuits, and not only by her care kept at bay the attacks of pulmonary disease, but doubled his effectiveness for literary work by the help she gave him. Although his life could not have been a long one, it might have lasted for eight or ten years more had he not unfortunately contracted an illness in Egypt in the spring of 1881. He returned to London so weak that for some time his recovery was despaired of; but good nursing and his own indomitable spirit brought him round, and in the five months that followed he finished and brought through the press a book, the 'Making of England,' which describes the conquest and settlement of England by the Angles and Saxons, and the consolidation of their tribes and kingdoms down to the time of Egbert. I need say the less about it because a review of it which appeared in the *Nation* about a year ago did justice to the extraordinary pains and skill with which a picture of Britain as the Romans left it was drawn, and a narrative of the English conquest and an exposition of the social as well as political phenomena of primitive England constructed out of scanty and scattered materials—materials which would have remained barren and useless in any less ingenious hands.

Mr. Green was now compelled to spend every winter at Mentone, far from books, and even when able to work at all could never work for more than three or four hours a day. But the less strength he had, and the more quickly he felt the shadows to be closing around him, so

much the more eager was he to turn what time and strength remained to the best account. When he returned to London last summer, he addressed himself to continue the story of early English history down to Norman or Angevin times, and had almost completed, before winter drove him back to the Mediterranean coast, another volume of five hundred pages, which he proposed to call the 'Conquest of England.' This book is all, or nearly all, in print, and will doubtless soon appear. Though it will want his last corrections, it cannot fail to be of the utmost value to students as well as enjoyable by the ordinary reader, for learning never seemed to weigh him down, or dulled the grace and liveliness of his fascinating style. He had scarcely reached Mentone, in the end of last October, when he became weak and feverish, and from that time on, with occasional rallies, he became constantly weaker in body, though his mind, till the last few days, never lost its freshness and power. During two years, those who saw him used to wonder that with a frame so wasted he could live at all. It was the strength of his will, the quenchless ardor of his spirit, that gave him this strange vitality, prolonging life in the midst of death. He was forty-five years of age, and left no children.

Words spoken over a grave are distrusted, as apt to proceed rather from sorrowing friendship than from a dispassionate judgment. But the highest historical authorities, both here and in America, have years ago allotted to Mr. Green one of the first places among the historians not only of this generation, but of this century. He has certainly left behind him no one who combines so many great and admirable gifts for historical composition. We have men equally learned, equally industrious. We have a few whose accuracy is more perfect than his was, whose judgment is more uniformly safe and cautious. But we have not, and may not for many years to come have, any one who united to so much learning and so wide a range of interest, such wonderful ingenuity, acuteness, originality of view, and such a power of presenting his results in rich, clear, and picturesque language. A great master of style may be a worthless historian. We have some conspicuous instances of the phenomenon. An admirable investigator and sound reasoner may be unreadable. Examples are not wanting of this also. The conjunction of the highest gifts for investigation with the highest gifts for presenting results in a perfect form is a very rare conjunction, which it is impossible to value too highly; for by inducing people to read history who would be repelled from any laborious study it enables them not only to gain just facts and conclusions, but to learn something of the method by which those facts and conclusions are established. The fame which Mr. Green won by his 'Short History' provoked some sharp criticism from other students. Small inaccuracies were discovered and paraded. Critics who did not know how hard he had worked declared that although he was a brilliant writer, he was not a safe guide, and that his praise was that of a popularizer. There could not have been a greater mistake. The merits of the book—its wealth of thought, its richness of color, its sympathy with the times and men it describes—were due not to mere literary dexterity, which, indeed, could never produce such results, but to the patient and intimate study he had given to the annals and the literature of England. He described the landscape so well because he knew it so well, and had marked many small points that had escaped previous observers. Still, it is true that in the 'Short History' he was, by the very magnitude of the subject, obliged to approve his historical capacity rather by bold generalizations than by a careful study of details; and the generalizations, though always interesting, were often open to debate. It was in his 'Making of England,' which was the fruit of independent research, some of the materials never having been brought together before and others never used for the same purpose, that the distinctive capacity of the historian, as distinguished from that of the brilliant writer, most plainly appeared. And those who know what he could have done, and would have done, for the later periods of English mediæval history; how admirable was his insight into their life and feeling; how vivid their figures and events would have become under his pen, will never cease to regret that his career should have been closed when what he has done seems only an earnest of what he might have done with twenty more years of life.

The impression of great and varied power which his personality gave, rose even above the reputation his writings enjoyed in the world. His ill health and long absences from England made him seldom seen in London society; but those who visited him, even in the last two years of sickness and weakness, used to say that nowhere else in London did they hear such talk as in his little drawing-room at Kensington. The swiftness of his mind, its fertility in perceiving new points and setting a well-worn subject in a new light, was hardly more remarkable than the wealth of anecdotes and illustrations which rose at his touch. With a somewhat loose verbal memory, a memory which found it hard to retain a precise form of words, he had a very wide and ready memory for matters of substance. He was the best of story-tellers, dramatizing every incident so happily that you felt that the thing must have happened, or certainly ought to have happened, exactly as he related it. Unlike many famous talkers, he listened as well as he talked, and one great part of the pleasure his conversation gave was that it made the interlocutor feel raised above his ordinary level, so stimulating one's mind that one seemed to hit on better thoughts and apter expressions than one could at any other time.

He was a very keen politician, seldom taking any active part in politics, and, indeed, prevented in later years by his health from doing so, but caring intensely about the affairs of England and of Europe. Nothing ever interfered with his reading the newspapers, following and discussing everything that passed. Those who have read his History will not need to be told that in domestic politics he was a very decided Liberal, prepared, for instance, to go much further than almost any Englishman in the way of leaving Ireland to herself, while he had the warmest interest in and affection for America. He used to say that a historian of the English people had at least as much concern with what befell the English people west of the Atlantic after 1776 as with their fortunes on this side, and there were few more diligent students of American books and institutions. Y.

HEINRICH VON TREITSCHKE.*

BERLIN, February.

RICH as German historical literature has been of late, none of its publications has created more sensation than the second volume of Treitschke's 'Recent German History.' The author is valued as one of our most prominent and best prose writers, a patriotic man of great powers, and an able controversialist. In my opinion, he is an enthusiastic essayist rather than an impartial observer, and an aggressive and petulant party man rather than a cool and sober critic. His idiosyncrasies often make him an unjust special pleader; but, in spite of all these shortcomings, as a scholar he has gained great influence on our youth in a good and in a bad sense. It was he who early joined that contemptible anti-Semitic band in its attacks on our Jewish population, and who, by his reputation, gave a prestige to clownish court preachers, indifferent professors, dismissed officers, and other obscure gentlemen involved in debts and looking out for something to turn up.

Treitschke, as Professor of History at the Berlin University, has audiences of 400 to 500 students, and, although deaf, knows how to inspire them with his own enthusiasm. For long years the editor of the *Preussische Jahrbücher* (Prussian Annals), he formerly exclusively published valuable essays on public men of the present and the past, on constitutional questions and historical subjects. The collection of these essays belongs to the best class of our political literature, and has been published in three volumes and four editions. His great work, the 'History of Germany during the Nineteenth Century,' is to be completed in six heavy octavo volumes of about seven hundred pages each. Its first volume opens with a very able retrospective view of the old empire, characterizes the downfall and resurrection of Prussia, and closes with the Peace of Paris. The present one treats of the beginning of the German Confederation, and comprises only the three years from 1816 to 1819; but during this short period the foundation was laid for the reconstruction of Prussia and Germany. The intellectual movements and currents in literature, art, and science are delineated by Treitschke with a master hand. This chapter belongs among the best that have been written on the subject; it is catholic in its grasp, noble and inspiring in its tone and execution. Other interesting chapters, which largely increase the stock of our historical knowledge, are those treating of the Congress at Aix-la-Chapelle, the Karlsbad resolutions, and the reactionary movement in Prussia.

The author has had access to the Prussian archives, and found there a real treasury of unpublished documents, which throw quite a new light on that time and its leading characters. What some severe critics, and even his friends, blame him for is, that he has not correctly reproduced the printed authorities for his statements; that he has not loyally availed himself of his documentary evidence; and that even, here and there, he has distorted events in order to adapt them to his bias and preconceived notions. Three competent historians in particular attack Treitschke rather bitterly as an untruthful historical writer—viz., Prof. H. Baumgarten, of Strassburg, Const. Bulle, of Bremen, and A. Stern, of Berne. Their principal objections to his narrative are, that he mistakes the chief task of an historian—to make the times and characters of which he speaks understood and appreciated by their own spirit and in their own light. They exemplify his want of historical justice in several instances, and prove that he comments on persons and events in a pedagogic tone, and estimates them not according to their own time and character, but to a much later period and the author's prejudices.

It cannot be the function of your correspondent to enter into the merits of this controversy, or to comment upon the copious literature which has risen out of it. Besides the above objections, there is the Borussomania of Treitschke which pervades his work from beginning to end. Prussia, it is true, as has been proved by modern events, is the standard-bearer of progress, and the heart, the backbone, and head of Germany. Without her the great Fatherland would amount to as

* *Deutsche Geschichte im neunzehnten Jahrhundert.* Von Heinrich von Treitschke. Zweiter Theil. Bis zu den Karlsbader Beschlüssen. Leipzig: S. Hirzel. Erste Auflage, 1882; Zweite Auflage, 1883. 8vo, pp. 638.

little as the United States without New England and her Puritans. Dutch traders, French adventurers, broken-down English noblemen, and German farmers were not sufficient to create a great nation, or to make it a leading power of the earth. So it has been with us, only the materials composing Germany were different. Individual autonomy and self-government based on solid learning must rule supreme in the councils of a people to make it self-reliant, progressive, and aggressive. In this respect Prussia, on the whole, has, just like Massachusetts, been faithful to her task; but it would be unjust to others to keep silent about her many shortcomings and offences. Treitschke makes the great mistake of bestowing wholesale praise on everything which is Prussian and of vilifying everything which is not Prussian. To begin with, King Frederic William III., who was a prince of rather average ability, is represented as a model regent, a hero, and a great statesman. Whatever the other German princes do (I am far from admiring them) is wrong, wicked, and nefarious; Frederic William alone is wise, noble, and praiseworthy. Now, the influence which this King exerted on the destinies of Prussia and Germany has been a very baneful one. The greatest blunder he committed—if it was no more—consisted in his promising in the hour of need a constitution to his people (May 22, 1815), and then, after having beaten Napoleon a second time, with the unselfish assistance of Prussia, instead of keeping his promise, trying every means to evade it, and finally resuscitating the old feudal corporations instead of granting a modern representation to his people. Now, there would have been no better means to consolidate the hitherto disunited members of the reconstructed monarchy, and to make the different territories and provinces feel like one and the same body, than a constitutional government with equal political duties and rights. The King's breach of his promise, and his entering into a most reactionary path afterward, called forth storms like that of 1848.

Frederic William III., it must be admitted, was, left to himself, a well-meaning man, and of much sounder judgment than is commonly believed; but he distrusted himself and had neither faith nor belief in others. As a boy he had been ill-treated, and was consequently intimidated. Thus, he lacked initiative, asked the advice of all and followed none fully, did not confide in any one, and, with advancing years, retired from contact with independent, but honest, men, and then he more easily became a victim of intriguers and "faux bons hommes." These qualities of the King furnish the key to the Prussian policy from 1816 onward, which has been characterized as that of a hundred lost golden opportunities. Thus, without being aware of it, he was a mere tool in the hands of Metternich, who was the master spirit of that epoch, and humiliated Prussia before her nobler self and the world, in order firmly to establish the Austrian hegemony over Germany and Europe. My former letters on Bismarck in Frankfort will have shown you how long and shamefully this Austrian supremacy lasted, and what enormous efforts were necessary to destroy it. Sadowa was the concluding chapter of this unhappy part of Prussian history. It was wholly the fault of the King and of his Chancellor, Prince Hardenberg, that Prussia was so deeply humiliated; but Treitschke, wherever he can, does his best to whitewash them and to conceal the real springs of action. The American scholar, however, who feels an interest in the events of that time, will find, in a faultless German style, ample information and valuable instruction in the present volume. As the author is as sound a hater as he is an upright enthusiast, it will not be difficult to control him in rather doubtful passages.

Let me refer, in conclusion, to another mistake of Treitschke's which, although not relating to the great events of the time, will perhaps interest some of your readers who have known the man to whom I am alluding. I mean Charles Follen, one of the foremost and most intrepid abolitionists of Massachusetts, the Boston clergyman who perished in January, 1840, in the burning of the steamboat *Lexington*. Follen, as a young and enthusiastic student, had been one of the chief leaders of the "Burschenschaft," a radical association among the students which strove for political freedom and Republican institutions. At the head of the so-called "Black Brethren," he advocated the assassination of the perjured princes, was, consequently, driven out of Germany, and, by way of Switzerland and France, in the fall of 1824, went to the United States. Sand, when killing Kotzebue (1819), is said to have acted at the instigation of Follen. The victim was only a mediocre play-writer, but his death proved a great political event, as it was used by the so-called Holy Alliance and the Conservative German governments as a pretext for the introduction of the most reactionary measures. Metternich, gagging the free press and suppressing all free discussion and political societies, availed himself of the murder of Kotzebue for his plans. No more fortunate accident could have happened to him. Before Treitschke, only two contemporary writers have published their reminiscences of Follen. One of them was a dignified old gentleman, Friedrich Münch, of Marthasville, Missouri, who since 1834 had resided in that State, and died there some two years ago. Mr. Münch (whose *nom de plume* was "Far West") had been a fellow-student with Follen at Giessen, and was a great admirer of his genius. In 1872, when seventy-three years old, he published an interesting book, part of his memoirs, in which he praised Follen and defended his theories as just, those on the murder of faithless princes included. The other writer was Prof. Heinrich Leo, the late historian of Halle, who likewise had known Follen while a student, but not so intimately as Münch, and who told the same story, but tried to explain Follen's views by the excited character of the time. Out of these two statements Treitschke has concocted his sketch of Follen, by which he aims to prove that this gentleman was nothing else than a mean demagogue and the prompter of vile murderers. He describes him as a bloodthirsty and cowardly visionary, and accuses him of having been the cause of compelling the German princes to suppress free speech, free press, and free government. The exaggeration of this one-sided statement has been proved by Messrs. Baumgarten and Bulle. If any further refutation were required, it would be furnished by the later life of Follen, who was one of the most unselfish, patriotic, and noble men, and is, I trust, still esteemed as such in your country, too.

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THE CAPITAL OF NUEVA LEON.

MONTEREY, March 10, 1883.

THIS city is but a single railroad stride (170 miles) south of the United States boundary at Laredo, but it lies at an infinite remove from American idioms, ideas, and idiosyncrasies. It shows Oriental or Moorish peculiarities close at hand which many have travelled to Spain or Palestine in order to see. Indeed, it is in many points more Spanish than Spain, as Lower Canada is more French than France, both having been too distant to be electrified by the earthquake shock of the French Revolution. It was founded twenty-one years before the landing on Plymouth Rock. The public square (*Plaza Principal*) lies within a block of my hotel, the Iturbide. On the east are the cathedral and Bishop's palace; on the west the City Hall; south and north are coffee and ice-cream saloons. All the buildings are of bright colors. In the centre is a grand fountain, its central pillar buttressed by six colossal and well-cut marble dolphins. The water shoots up so high and so copiously that, whenever there is a breath of air, the spray irrigates an acre around. There are many parterres thickset with rose bushes now just budding. Walks meander among them mazily, and around two minor fountains as well. Encompassing this garden is a double line of trees, now mostly in full foliage: on the self-same orange bough I discover flowers and fruit full grown. Beneath every tree is a sort of stone sofa. Loungers abound, for in this latitude, 25° 40′, no man ever willingly goes into a house. The plash of the fountain water always lulls to repose. The cathedral clock strikes quarters; its eight bells are never done chiming while Lent lasts; and the cries of street peddlers, with trays of nondescript notions on their heads, are no less sonorous.

The Government-house on all its sides has the lower story arcaded after the fashion of the Doge's palace in Venice. Above the upper windows there are portraits of Mexican historical celebrities. In one of the rooms I was pointed to three muskets stacked in a glass case, and told that with these Maximilian was shot. At nightfall twenty-six men, each bearing a lantern, marched two and two into the porch. These were the night watch. Their lanterns may help them, like Diogenes, to find an honest man, but they are thought to help thieves more, by showing them what Dogberrys to shun. I am reminded of my Egyptian experience, when I was obliged to buy a lantern, as the Cairo landlord declared that the orders of the watch were to lie in ambush and shoot at every lanternless man they espied abroad in the nocturnal streets.

All Monterey is massively built, preëminently the cathedral. Its roof is like that of a bomb-proof, and has doubtless served as a battery on which to plant cannon. In front it has various carvings and five niches for statues of saints. The bell-ropes are tied to the clappers, and the bells are all rung without moving, except one, which has no rope at all, but is rung by being whirled over and over. From the cathedral roof I see mountain ranges jagged with just such saw-teeth as led the mediæval Spaniards to call them sierras. One notch toward the east, fitly named a saddle, is watched with special interest at a certain season, because the sun annually rises at that very point for a few days, as if eager, the natives say, to catch a view of paradisaical Monterey as early as possible. On the west, above two white churches on hills which serve for calvaries, or goals of pilgrimage, there towers a mountain cloven at top like a mitre, and accordingly so named.

The Iturbide Hotel was built for a convent, and is very much like the Hotel Dimitri, in Damascus. Its entrance front has no window, and few of its rooms have any, except transoms over their doors. Mine has a window opening on a side street, and fortified with iron bars only three inches apart, but projecting nine inches from the wall, like those in Florence, the *inginocchiate* invented by Michael Angelo. Thus I have a view up and down the street. But I am advised to leave nothing in my apartment lying around loose, as passers-by carry hooks which they throw in between the bars, and fish out whatever they can grapple at the end of their line. Of course my window has no glass and no sash in which to set any. Indeed, I am persuaded that the panes in the city are fewer than the houses. In many cases the same hole serves

both for door and window. The only store where I observed any glass hangs up for a sign the words, "Crystal Palace." The British window tax would have no terrors here. My walls —both the outer and inner—are twenty-seven inches thick. The ceiling is at least sixteen feet high, and is painted as if formed with a lattice of cane, showing a dark thatch through the diamond interstices. This is a reminiscence of the era when all roofs were made of cane and thatch, as those of the suburban peasantry here are to this day. The rooms have all their doors opening into an arcaded porch running round the four sides of a court, which is a garden of stately bananas and pomegranates, the latter now disclosing their coral red blossoms. In the centre is a vine-clad bamboo bower. On one side of the flat roof there is a series of upper-story rooms, and all around there is a pleasant promenade at morning and evening. No roof with a ridge-pole is visible, save at the railroad station. A few gigantic dagger-trees, or palmettos, and a pecan with a bamboo hut among its branches, are among the stock sights in the outlook. My own quarters have seemed worthy of these details because, with slight variations, they represent the whole city.

The manifest destiny of the Montereyans is either to vanish away as the American Indians and the old Californians have vanished, leaving room for the survival of the fittest, or on the other hand to become Americanized. I fear the former alternative will be their doom in the near future, and yet would gladly view their prospects more hopefully. It was pleasant to find a public library open every day, and free to all comers, established last year, and close to the chief place of concourse. It consists of only eighty-nine short shelves of books, though they are of fair quality, and more have been ordered. The worst sign is that I can count on the fingers of one hand all the readers I have seen there. By way of contrast, I see loungers standing two and two at every corner and door, wrapped in shawls which answer for vests, coats, cloaks, and, I suppose, beds as well, all day doing nothing and seeking nothing to do. At the most they smoke cigarettes, and, as some one has said, what hope can we have for the future of a people who in three centuries have been able to devise no better mode than that of getting the good out of tobacco? Monterey women almost equal the men in idly gazing along the streets, but they all stand behind the window-bars, like mice in a wire mouse-trap. A foreigner on first passing through the streets naturally asked, "Are the ladies here all in jail?" Again, there are public schools; but the throng of children playing around in school-hours betrays small attendance. There is also a Presbyterian Mission, and I have attended the Sunday service. All told, there were less than thirty in the auditorium: two American preachers, two Mexican lay exhorters, two female teachers from Iowa, about six Mexican men and women, and the rest children. Behold the result of ten years' work. How much for how little!

The Government, while Republican in name, is in fact a military aristocracy. The soldiers here, largely convicts, are estimated at fifteen hundred. A part of their business of late has been to shoot down at sight the Mexicans caught meddling with the railroad. Some of the natives are such thieves that they tear up the track to get spikes; others block the track through anti-American passion. When I visited the Bishop's palace on the suburban hill bombarded by Bragg, I found it garrisoned by 200 artillerymen. It seemed at first a hopeful sign that, as the commandant led me through the quarters, he showed me the telephone just set up there as a *buena cosa Americana*, and clearly viewed it as a jewel. But on second thought I felt that it was nothing less than a stern military necessity which had induced the adoption even of this Yankee notion.

The darkest sign in the Mexican as in the Irish horoscope is satisfaction with a low plane of living. The International Railroad hired multitudes of Mexican laborers for its construction. It paid them six or eight shillings a day, while before their wages were no more than three. Yet these laborers bought no better food or clothing than before, made no more provision for their wives and children, but wasted their wage increment well-nigh to a man in drunkenness and gambling, or bull-fights—for that venerable Spanish sabbatical institution still flourishes here at its best and fullest.

My letter is already too long, and still I have not alluded to the strangest feature of this place to Northern eyes—namely, the clearness of the air, such as that which made me, as I stood on the Mount of Olives, think the Dead Sea within an hour's walk, though I found it a day's ride. Among the strange aerial phenomena here I class the foot hills standing out so prominently that you think you can see round their corners and into the interspaces between them and the secondary ranges. The most distant peaks, too, seem pressing forward to peep over the shoulders of those nearer. Everywhere the lights and shades contrast no less than those of electric illuminators. On the whole, the atmospheric brilliancy surpasses whatever is known in the North as much as our Northern sky surpasses the London fogs, where men are forever doubtful whether their celestial luminary is the sun or the moon. J. D. B.

Correspondence.

PROHIBITION AND SOPHISTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial comment on a letter written in defence of prohibition in Iowa, which appeared in No. 921 of the *Nation*, occurs this sentence: "The tendency to be uncandid and sophistical has always been a feature of the temperance agitation."

Do you not in this ascribe to one side of a particular agitation something which is an inseparable accompaniment to all agitation and to both sides of all agitations, and must necessarily be so, so long as the human mind continues to be liable to the prejudice of bias or to the falsities of bad logic? Neither pro-slavery nor anti-slavery, protection nor free trade, machine politics nor civil-service reform, has been free from the advocacy of uncandid and sophistical reasoning. And as for anti-prohibition, I would merely invite your attention to the following extracts from the communication which immediately followed the one above noticed, and which, passing as it did without editorial comment, appears to have excited no especial editorial disfavor:

"It must be universally conceded that if men were of their own volition to abstain entirely from the use of intoxicating liquor as a beverage, intemperance, with all the wretchedness, poverty, and crime it entails, would be completely eradicated. . . . The friends of prohibition declare that mere moral restraint has been found totally inadequate to govern and subdue the passions and appetites of men. This declaration . . . admits the inefficiency and futility of moral influence. It is tantamount to an assertion that the precepts and truths which are constantly inculcated in every civilized nation by the pulpit, the press, and the school are utterly destitute of practical effect. . . . So long as there is a demand for intoxicating beverages there will be a supply of them. The one chief defect of the prohibition plan is that it is directed against only the supply. . . . Large quantities of liquor are still sold and consumed in Maine, and the most watchful vigilance of the authorities is unable to completely suppress the illicit traffic."

Is there no lack of candor, no sophistry here? I believe it was Archimedes who said, "Give me a fulcrum, and I will move the world"? I will do better than this. Grant me such a stupendous "if" as the one contained in the first clause above quoted, and I will move the universe. This admirable discovery of a perfect method for the eradication of all woe would be equally true written thus: "If men were, *through prohibition*, to abstain entirely," etc. The writer has begged the question, and taken his own conclusion for granted from the outset.

Further, it appears either that prohibition must have many friends, or else some others than its friends have found "mere moral restraint inadequate to govern the passions of men"—else, whence our whole fabric of penal law? Are all these enactments tantamount to so many assertions that pulpit, press, and school are destitute of effect?

Then, as to supply and demand. Where should we strike an evil, if not at its source? Does liquor develop the appetite, the want, the demand, or does the untainted nature crave alcoholic stimulation so imperatively that it becomes tyranny for law to say, "This appetite must be suppressed as one detrimental to the general welfare, as one which in practice has been found to destroy a frightful proportion of those who gratify it, to work untold misery to innocent victims, and to double the amount of crime and the consequent necessity for courts and jails"?

It is only very partially true that the demand for liquor is what develops the supply. It is the excessive supply, pandering and appealing to the vices of men, that maintains and develops the demand. What demand produced the Northern Pacific Railroad? It was not the demand for transportation. The railroad had first to go and, by creating facilities, induce people to follow after it and avail themselves of those facilities. The railroad created a demand which had not previously existed. What produced the railroad was the demand for new fields of profitable investment by capital that foresaw the possibility of persuading people to go and make use of temptingly-displayed opportunities.

As to the exceedingly candid objection to the "regulation of private conduct," do anti-prohibitionists see any impropriety in the suppression of the trade in toy-pistols, or in obscene literature, or of the opium trade in China? Oh, no! but opium in China is so very different from alcohol in the United States! One class, who advocate free liquor, but punishment for drunkenness, would, if consistent, allow "the deadly toy-pistol" to be exposed for sale in every toy and candy store, and would then inflict what punishment the swift oncoming lockjaw left time for, upon every child that got wounded with one. They would have us leave the gilded temptation untouched, and stand ready with police, prison, and halter to deal with those who find themselves, when once lured in, too weak to struggle free from the everywhere-present toils.

Finally, I ask attention to the last of the quoted clauses. Alas for the writer! He proves altogether too much. The same is true, to the letter, of counterfeit coin, smuggled goods, and of the "illicit" practices of gambling, swindling, stealing, murdering, and many others. But somehow this admitted fact has not led us to do away with our laws and our "watchful vigilance" against these things, and to trust wholly to the powerful influence of the pulpit, the press, and the school to morally persuade men to be-

have themselves, and regulate their private actions in accordance with public welfare. "These things [laws and penalties] ought ye to have done, and not to leave the other [moral suasion] undone." HENRY G. REYNOLDS.

OLD MISSION, MICH.

[The letter in question we thought valuable because it called attention to the fact that moral suasion has been more successful than anything else in preventing *excess*. In most fields of consumption or activity, men are kept moderate by advice and argument, or by observation of the effects of over-indulgence. Even in the matter of drinking, these agencies have done a great deal among certain classes, both in this country and in England. It is very useful, we think, to keep prohibitionists in mind of this, because their tendency is to forget it. They forget it because in their zeal they forget that it is against excess they are fighting. They advocate prohibition not because they hold that all use of alcoholic drinks is wrong, but because they hold that it is only by total abstinence that excess can be prevented. Having forgotten this, they readily fall into the fallacy of considering criminal all use of anything which may be abused, and then indulge in the preposterous fallacy of putting wine-drinking in the same category with counterfeiting, gambling, and fornication. As the least counterfeiting or gambling or unchastity is wrong and ought to be punished, they declare that the least wine-selling is wrong and ought to be punished. Having got as far as this, of course all the rest is easy, and they ask, with exultant absurdity, why you complain of the inefficiency of the liquor laws any more than of the inefficiency of the counterfeiting, gambling, and fornication laws. But they cannot maintain that a practice in which the best men of the human race have indulged in all ages is wrong even in moderation, any more than they can maintain that it is no harm to counterfeit or gamble or fornicate a little. —ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is difficult for us always to avoid the sins we find it easy to charge upon others. We are all prone to slip; and when a writer starts out with a flourish to impute to some luckless wight, who may have had the misfortune to differ from him on a question of more or less importance, an inaccuracy of statement or a slovenliness of argument, I invariably follow him with trembling, for it is ten to one that his own discourse will furnish illustration of the very faults he castigates.

A good example of this tendency may be seen in No. 924 of your journal, where, with dignified complacency, the communication of Sylvan Drey accuses Mr. Ernst Hofer of "sophistry." The writer seems to have confused in an astonishing manner the provinces of constitutional and statutory law. It appears never to have occurred to him that many things are beyond the power of the legislature which yet the people may control. There is no force in saying that what has not been committed to the legislature at all is "not within legislative competency." But to say that the body politic has no power by police regulation to prohibit any traffic that the body politic deems subversive of its order, detrimental to its prosperity, inimical to its happiness, and injurious to its morals, is to place one's self in ridiculous opposition not only to a long line of judicial opinions, but even to the specific concessions of the most punctilious publicists that have championed the cause of alleged "personal liberty." Mr. Drey should bear in mind that there is a marvellous distance between "*legislative* competency" and the "right of a *State*." C. A. TOWNE.

LANSING, MICH., March 19, 1883.

OREGON AND THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The note from President Walker with the above heading has received considerable attention. The subject is one of no small consequence to the student of history. Undoubtedly the publication of the historical map in the "Statistical Atlas," enlarged from Mr. Stocking's map in the census of 1870, created considerable surprise in the minds of many students of history, since there is no good ground for including Oregon as a part of the "Louisiana Purchase." General Walker says in his note: "'The Oregon question' was not one which there had ever been occasion for me specially to investigate." It would, perhaps, have been fortunate if an investigation had preceded the publication of the "Historical Map."

In 1824, our Minister to England, Mr. Rush, based our claim to Oregon, first, upon "the proper claim of the United States by discovery and settlement; and secondly, as *now standing in the place of Spain, and holding in their hands her title*"* (that is, by the Florida treaty). Mr. Rush did not even *mention* the Louisiana purchase. But General Walker quotes (from memory) Mr. Gallatin. Mr. Gallatin and Mr. Rush carried on negotiations upon this subject with Great Britain in 1818, before our purchase of Florida, and before Spain had quit-claimed to us her right to Oregon. At that time we had never claimed that our title to Oregon was perfect. Messrs. Gallatin and Rush reported to our Government that they "did not assert that the United States had a perfect right to that country, but insisted that their claim was at least good against Great Britain."†

In 1845 Mr. Buchanan asserted that our claim to the country was *perfect*. He said: "Our own American title to the extent of the valley of the Columbia, resting as it does on discovery, exploration, and possession—a possession acknowledged by a most solemn act by Great Britain herself—is a sufficient assurance against all mankind, *whilst our superadded title derived from Spain* extends our exclusive rights over the whole territory in dispute against Great Britain."‡

The following authorities, among many others, may be quoted as against the view that Oregon was a part of the Louisiana purchase: (1) The French Government, (2) the British Government, (3) the Spanish Government, (4) the United States Government, (5) Mr. Jefferson, (6) Mr. Gallatin, (7) Mr. Rush, (8) Mr. Buchanan, (9) Mr. Caleb Cushing, (10) Mr. Greenhow, (11) Mr. Clay, (12) Mr. Benton, (13) Mr. John Quincy Adams, (14, 15, 16) three distinguished English authors upon the subject—Travers Twiss, Thomas Falconer, and John Dunn, and lastly (17) M. Marbois. As to M. Marbois's opinion, a quotation somewhat at length will surely settle the question. After discussing freely with the American ambassadors the difficulties attending a definite statement of western and northern boundaries, he said to them:

"Is it not better for the United States to abide by a general stipulation, and, since these territories are still at this day, for the most part, in the possession of the Indians, await future arrangements, or leave the matter *for the treaty stipulations that the United States may make with them and Spain?* In granting Canada to the English, at the peace of 1763, we only extended the cession to the country that we possessed. It is, however, as a consequence of that treaty that England has occupied territory to the west as far as the great Northern Ocean." . . . "It is," he adds, "in fact important not to introduce ambiguous clauses into treaties; however, the American plenipotentiaries made no more objections, and if, in appearing to be resigned to these general terms through necessity, they considered them really preferable to more precise stipulations, it must be admitted that the event has justified their foresight. *The shores of the Western Ocean were certainly not included in the cession, but the United States are already established there.*"

This quotation is from Marbois's 'History of Louisiana,' translated "by an American citizen," and published in Philadelphia, by Carey & Lea, in 1830, pp. 285 and 286. This explains fully what is meant by General Walker's quotation: "Accroissement des États-Unis *par le traité et* PAR SES EFFETS."

WILLIAM A. MOWRY.

PROVIDENCE, March 26, 1883.

ARMS-CARRYING AND MURDER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There seems to be an assumption running through your Southern correspondents' letters on the subject of homicide that carrying of arms necessarily develops that species of brutality (begging pardon of the brutes). It is not necessarily so. In Montenegro, where civilization is almost in its patriarchal state and law scarcely crystallized, every man from twelve or fourteen to old age goes armed with knife and pistols; and where the gravest degradation which can be inflicted on a man by authority is to deprive him of his arms (equivalent to disfranchising him with us), personal conflicts and hot-blooded murders are very rare, so much so that during nearly three years that I was in the country, most of which time was spent with the army, I never saw a personal rencontre, and only heard of one murder of the kind so popular in our Southern States. Yet the sense of honor is quite as fine as with our Southern chivalry, and the duel is in extreme cases permitted, but only by the direct assent of the Prince and a kind of legal settlement with due formalities. I remember one day that when the Prince had decorated a man for an act of personal daring, one of his neighbors approached the former and said that he thought that he was as brave and as deserving the medal as the other. "Go and say to him," replied the Prince, "that you are a braver man than he, and I will give you the medal." This is equivalent to a challenge, and must have been followed by a duel, and the man declined the test; not because he was afraid, but because there was no provocation. And the Prince knew his man so well that he chose this as the simplest way of refusing the demand for a decoration perhaps not earned.

The immunity from acts of violence is in curious contrast to the condition of the adjoining Austrian provinces inhabited by the same race, where murder, the vendetta, and general lawlessness cannot be repressed even by Austrian military rigor. The reason why in Montenegro murder is so rare is that the law is practically inexorable, and certain to fall on him who is the author of an unjustifiable homicide. The value of the life of a man is too great to be left to the chances of passion, and he who provokes wantonly a rencontre in which his adversary is killed is treated as a murderer. Every man in the

* Twelfth conference between the plenipotentiaries, June 26, 1824, as annexed to the President's Message to Congress, January 31, 1826.

† Sir Travers Twiss, 'The Oregon Question Examined,' p. 202.

‡ Letter of Mr. Buchanan, July 12, 1845.

community knows that escape from justice for any crime of violence is possible only by instant self-exile; he has no wish to spend the remainder of his life in that state, and so learns to restrain his passion and keep his revolver in his belt. If public opinion in the South could be educated up to the Montenegrin point, it would recognize every man who goes about to provoke a quarrel as a ruffian and bravo, and every weaker one who condones these savageries as an imbecile and unfit to exercise the duties of a citizen, and then a recognition of law would become possible. The men of the South who have not the courage to hold up their heads and speak boldly against the ruffianism in their midst are primarily responsible for a state of things which does more to damage the reputation of our country than even repudiation. I remember once being on shipboard with a Dalmatian captain who traded all over the world, and who preferred to sail to any port rather than one of the United States of America. His reason was that he believed, and had always heard, that in all the streets of the American cities there was the imminent danger of a pistol affair on any pretext. It is nonsense to talk of the patriotism of men who will not, for the honor of their country, encounter the scowls or insults of the bravoes of their community by daring to raise their voices against barbarisms which no country can tolerate and be called civilized. W. J. Stillman.

Florence, March 9, 1883.

UNCUT EDGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit one of your subscribers to offer a protest against an abuse of the critic's and student's time and patience which is getting a little too heavy to bear?

In the time of poor Queen Anne there was a heavy tax on glass, and very little sunlight in Great Britain, so nobody felt greatly aggrieved that windows were small and window-panes smaller. Now that the æsthetic craze induces the fashionable public to revert to a fashion which was simply a necessity when it originated, it is found convenient to forget the original "why" and "wherefore." A very few years ago the reading public of the United States congratulated themselves that the invention of a certain machine made it possible to cut the leaves of all books, papers, and magazines without increasing their cost. But the vanity of mankind and the æsthetic craze have already united to demonstrate that this congratulation is premature. Scarce a book has come from the press this year that does not need to be painfully cut leaf by leaf; and the time so employed must be subtracted from that bestowed on the reading by every critic.

In good Queen Anne's time, it was as little to be objected to as the small panes of glass. Her Majesty could not spell, and her subjects did not read. The aristocratic class who satisfied their literary longings by collecting libraries, rebound the issues of the press for their own shelves, as their descendants still do. But in the United States of America it is the *people*, not the aristocrats, who read; and the people are active artisans or merchants, who have no time to spare, and, like the critic, grudge every second to the paper-knife. Let me speak for myself. I am too conscientious to review with a paper-knife or my fingers' ends; and this winter, from this cause alone, I have found it impossible to keep up with my work. Let publishers understand that it will never pay in this country to provide for the wants of the book-fancier alone.

Yours very truly,

Caroline H. Dall.

Washington, D. C., March 21, 1883.

Notes.

Irving's centenary falling this year, G. P. Putnam's Sons have in preparation a memorial edition of Mr. Pierre M. Irving's 'Life and Letters' of his uncle. It will be of quarto size, and elegantly manufactured in every respect, with three specially engraved portraits (in addition to many others heretofore published), namely, of Washington Irving at twenty-one, from a recently discovered miniature; of Matilda Hoffman, his fiancée, and of the late George P. Putnam. The three volumes will appear during the months of April and May, and but 300 copies will be printed.

To the uniform edition of Dr. O. W. Holmes's works, now being published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., will be added 'Medical Essays' and 'Pages from an Old Volume of Life,' which combine various essays, professional and metaphysical, already published under other titles, with some quite new ones.

Lee & Shepard will issue next month a volume of poems by the late Marc Cook, known to magazine readers by his hopeful article on "The Adirondack Cure" for the disease to which he succumbed last October. As a verse-writer, he was accustomed to use the *nom de plume* of "Vandyke Brown." One of his poems, "Nothing New Under the Sun," was included by Mr. Dana in the latest edition of his 'Household Book of Poetry.'

Besides a new edition of the popular novel, 'Mr. Isaacs,' Macmillan & Co. announce for immediate publication a new edition of Dr. Martineau's 'Study of Spinoza' and a new translation of 'Spinoza's Ethics,' made by Mr. Hale White, with the advice and assistance of Mr. J. Hutchinson Sterling, of Edinburgh. A one-volume edition of Miss Yonge's new story, 'Stray Pearls,' and a new novel under the title of 'The Story of Melicent,' by Fayr Madoc, are also just ready.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce for publication, by arrangement with the London publishers, Rosmini's 'Five Wounds of the Church,' by Canon Liddon; and a revised edition of Blunt's Annotated Prayer-Book, with American preface.

Messrs. Sweet & Knox, editors of *Texas Siftings*, will publish in the form of a subscription-book, through S. S. Scranton & Co., Hartford, Conn., their serial narrative, 'Through Texas on a Mexican Mustang,' begun in their paper last May.

Dr. Dix's much-criticised Lenten 'Lectures on the Calling of a Christian Woman' have been gathered into a volume, and cheaply yet tastefully published by D. Appleton & Co.

Harper & Bros. have added to their Franklin Square Library 'The Wreck of the *Grosvenor*,' and Mr. S. S. Cox's 'Why We Laugh.'

'The Statesman's Year Book' rounds its twentieth year in the publication for 1883 (Macmillan). Its founder, however, the late Frederick Martin, was obliged to relinquish the editorship in December last, and died near the close of the following month. His successor, Mr. J. Scott Keltie, assumes his new task with modesty, and desires corrections and suggestions. The modifications observable in this important annual are as usual extensive. Brazil is a prominent example. The four lines on p. 583 concerning the school census of the United States contain at least three errors, one very serious. The number of schools in 1880 is represented by a figure retained from the last edition (where it was attributed to the census of 1870), and is nearly twice too small—141,629 in place of 225,880. The number of teachers, on the other hand, is considerably overrated; the total "enrolment" of school-children falls short by 265,000 of the total *attendance* reported by the census. The list of non-official publications relating to this country is susceptible of improvement.

Mr. Christern sends us Louis Figuier's 'L'Année Scientifique et Industrielle' for 1882 (26th year). Under "Arts of Construction" we read among other things of the plans for making Paris a seaport by canal or by widening and deepening the Seine, and of the new French railroad enterprises on the upper Senegal; under "Public Hygiene" is given a review of the progress of cremation, the world over, Italy being foremost among Christian nations; under "Medicine and Physiology" the details of Gambetta's illness and death, and the Paris census for 1881, find a place. The population of that city has grown from 547,700 in 1801 to 2,225,902 in the year first named. The census of France for 1881 by departments is subjoined, together with an interesting discussion of the movement of population. "Speaking generally, the deaths exceed the births in the cities which may be regarded as centres of industry, pleasure, and diverse passions, and the births exceed the deaths in the country districts, which are centres of reparation. Nevertheless, the cities are populated while the country districts are depopulated." Under "Agriculture" we are told that it is already settled that the planting of American vines will be the salvation of France, and that the number of available varieties is rather scanty. The necrology of this instructive volume is as usual full and valuable.

Submarine telephoning forms one of the sections in the annual just noticed, the two experiments described being between ship and shore, but neither being satisfactory. We think there can be little doubt that recent improvements of instrument and wire in this country point to a time when by Atlantic cable the Old World can readily converse with the New. Till that day arrives Americans have hardly more than a curious interest in the brochure issued by Paul Dupont, Paris, for the Compagnie Internationale des Téléphones, entitled 'Situation des Réseaux Téléphoniques,' or 'Established Telephonic Networks.' A short introduction describes the various conditions of the telephonic system in different countries—according as it is free or more or less under the control of the state—and then follow tables for the globe and for its several parts, showing for the world at large 303 towns and 78,808 subscribers in communication. The numbers for America, chiefly the United States (126 towns, 47,185 subscribers) seem to us too small, but the pamphlet enumerates all the companies who have furnished the desired particulars, and who probably cover the major part of the field. The accompanying statistics show subscription fees and charter privileges, town by town and company by company. The telephone has found its way to Honolulu and the principal cities of Australia.

M. Jules Lévy is republishing in his *Français* (Cambridge, Mass.) a pamphlet on the Madagascar question, which appeared last year in Paris, from the pen of J. Brenier. Timeliness also belongs to the 'Concise Grammar of the Malagasy Language,' by G. W. Parker, just added to Trübner's "Collection of Simplified Grammars." This language possesses an exceptional interest. It was made a written tongue by British missionaries, has furnished a translation of the Bible, and in sundry ways shows the influence of the Arabs, the French, and the English. Its literature proper, as we indicated last week in our notice of the *Folk-Lore Journal*, well repays study.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. are the American agents of the new Tory monthly, the *National Review*. The first (March) number has a well-

mixed table of contents, and is handsomely printed.

Mr. Arthur B. Turnure, 132 Nassau Street, has begun publication of a monthly eight-page quarto, called the *Art Age*. Its rubricated initials, column rules and dashes, and its elegant typography, symbolize the object of this periodical, which is, if we understand the editor's "General Argument," to glorify the products of our best American presses. As we have a specimen page from Abbey's Herrick, it is probable that borrowed illustrations will continue to be a marked feature of the *Art Age*. The scheme is not wholly uncritical, and is partly literary.

Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* for March has for its two topics Richard Wagner and the Georgia Sesqui-centennial (F. W. Leypoldt).

Drs. J. M. Charcot and P. Richer contribute to the January number of the quarterly *Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease* (Putnams) a very instructive article showing the cerebral connection between physiognomy and gesture. This is done by means of experiments on a cataleptic patient, the appropriate gesture *following* the localized faradization of the facial muscles to express astonishment, anger, mirth, etc. Four excellent photographs taken under these conditions complete the demonstration. A portrait of the late Dr. Geo. M. Beard accompanies this number of the *Journal*.

We have received the eleventh annual report of the Fairmount Park Art Association (Philadelphia), and the 'Visitors' Guide to the Collection of Birds in the American Museum of Natural History' (Central Park). Both these pamphlets have a more than local interest, for each is a record of and an incentive to public spirit.

President Barnard's 'Perpetual Calendar' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is a very simple contrivance, though less convenient than similar calendars for limited periods, because when in use the year at which it is set is not so obvious. We think, too, that the explanation on the back should give illustrative examples.

Prof. Birbaum, of the Ladies' High School in Heidelberg, has put forth a compendious 'History of the English Language and Literature' (New York: Westermann), one chapter of which, on 'The North American Literature,' we have found sufficiently amusing. The author's young ladies are to be congratulated on the exclusive information contained in the following passage, which concludes an account of the establishment of the republic under Washington: "Yet one stain should disfigure this splendid national edifice—the execrable slave trade. Owing to the strenuous efforts of William Wilberforce, it was finally abolished in 1807 (Abolition Act of Slavery), although the complete emancipation of slaves was only carried out in 1833." A little later we read, under the head of "Dramatic Poetry": "After him [George H. Boker] the names of Warner, *Gilded Age*, and William D. Howells, an imitator of French plays, stand out the first." The climax is capped when it is stated, of Dr. Holmes, that "of his numerous poems [*sic*] may be mentioned *Bread and Newspaper*, *My Hunt after the Captain*, *Sun Painting and Sun Sculpture*, and *Doings of the Sunbeam*"!

We have already noticed (*Nation*, No. 893) the first parts of the 'Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften,' edited by Dr. Otto Zöckler (New York: Westermann). The third half-volume is now before us, issued designedly out of order, since it is the beginning of Vol. III. The other half, with the whole of Vol. II., is promised in the course of the year.

An "Allgemeines historisches Porträtwerk," to be issued by Fr. Bruckmann in Munich, will form a good accompaniment to R. Gottschall's "Der neue Plutarch." Six hundred phototyped portraits of persons of all races and classes since 1300 are to be issued with some biographical data. There will be 12 series—viz., 1, 2, Princes and Popes; 3, 4, Statesmen and Warriors; 5, 6, German Poets; 7, Non-German Poets; 8, Artists; 9, Musicians; 10, Learned Men and Reformers; 11, Women; 12, Various.

In the Note upon Wordsworth in our last week's issue, a slip of the pen gave his sister the name of "Mary" instead of Dorothy.

—The *Atlantic* contains the first act of a dramatization of "Daisy Miller" by Mr. James. There are to be three acts, and the story in its dramatic form will be, of course, more elaborate than the original sketch. It would be premature to pronounce an opinion upon its dramatic merits in its present uncompleted state, but the experiment will be watched with interest, for many reasons—among others because it will, if successful, enrich the somewhat poorly provided American theatre with two new types in Daisy and Randolph C. Miller. In the first instalment there is very little action, but the dialogue is bright, and in the hands of really competent actors, as we know from so many of Robertson's plays, dialogue may be made to take the place of action. Mr. Warner has an essay on "Modern Fiction," in which he makes a protest against the novel of analysis and introspection, and hints that "most of us" are "ready for a more ideal—that is to say, a more artistic—view of our performances in this bright and pathetic world." The names of Cooper, Scott, and Lever suggest themselves at once as illustrations of the kind of novel that idealizes life, and touches it with poetry, and makes it seem like what it is at its best moments. Mr. Warner reminds us of Hawthorne, too, as a proof that, out of the materials afforded by American life, the imagination may weave romances of the first rank. He may also be cited to show that there is no necessary antagonism between introspection or analysis and idealism. It is, however, almost impossible to conceive of the work of any of the novelists we have named being done over again, and Mr. Warner himself does not suggest any way in which we can hope to escape from the atmosphere of realism which is the peculiar characteristic of modern art and modern life in so many directions. In an article on the "Bacon-Shakespeare Craze," Mr. R. G. White make mince-meat of Mrs. Pott's recent publication, and goes so far as to express the opinion that it is not of the least consequence in the world whether "Hamlet," "Lear," and "Othello" were written by Francis Bacon, William Shakspere, or John Smith, "so they were written by an Englishman in London, between the years 1590 and 1610." In other words, the value of the plays is just as great no matter who wrote them. This is very true; but though the plays, as such, would remain, our ideas of Bacon would be materially affected by finding that the "wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind" was the greatest dramatist the race has produced. His life would have to be entirely rewritten, and the discovery would be made the basis of many a novel and important literary theory. In this way Mrs. Pott's discovery would, if there was any truth in it, be a highly important revelation.

—The *Century* for April contains the concluding chapters of Mrs. Burnett's "Through One Administration," a tale which may be regarded as the latest attempt at producing the typical American novel. We shall defer any discussion of the plot as a whole until the story appears as a book. The work may be commended to the foreign critic of American fiction and manners. Unless we are greatly mistaken, it will puzzle him a good deal. It should be studied by him in connection with 'Democracy,' a novel which has, however, a considerably more European flavor. What is to be said of the country which produces such books as these? What of its social aims and ideals? What of its political system? What of its intersexual code? A good deal of solid work is cut out for the critic in "Through One Administration." Anglers will be interested in an article on the "Primitive Fish-hook," by Barnet Phillips, who traces its development from the palæolithic fish-gorge to the perfected hook of to-day. Mr. Stedman has a critical essay on Emerson, which is "appreciative," but occasionally bewildering. "His philosophical method," says Mr. Stedman gravely, "bears to the inductive or empirical a relation similar to that between the poetry of self-expression and the poetry of æsthetic creation—a relation of the subjective to the objective." This is not a very clear distinction. Mr. Stedman appears to be really of opinion that Emerson had no philosophical system at all, but took whatever he needed of philosophy where he found it: from Plato, from Aristotle, from Swedenborg, from Fénelon, from Montaigne, from Marcus Aurelius, or from the last Brown, Jones, or Robinson who had turned up as the "coming man" at Concord, Mass. As to this, there can be no dissent; still, if he had no philosophical system at all, what has the distinction between the poetry of self-expression and that of æsthetic creation to do with the explanation of his "philosophical method"? The former kind, of course, often is the more "spontaneous, since it has its birth in the human need for utterance. It is the cry of adolescence and femininity, the resource of sensitive natures, in which emotion outvies the sense of external beauty and power. It was the voice of Shakspere's youth, nor was it ever quieted throughout the restless careers of Byron, Heine, and De Musset." These are very queer associates for Emerson, whether we regard him as a poet or a "seer," yet, to clinch the matter, Mr. Stedman adds, "as with the subjective poets, so with many of the transcendental acolytes." The secret of Emerson's influence will, we venture to predict, as time goes on be found to have consisted largely in the fact that he opened the long-closed doors of New England to what we now call "culture," and preached to a generation which was habituated to preaching of a very different sort, and longing for a freer and healthier life, the worship of the true, the beautiful, and the good. It was not a system of philosophy that he preached. New England was dried up with systematic teaching. His creed was the negation of creeds, a protest against systems. In so far he was "subjective," but the stern necessity of his "environment" made it impossible for him to get along without a systematic nomenclature, and the term transcendental was invented to meet this local peculiarity.

—*Lippincott's* for April contains an unusual number of "solid" articles. Mr. E. V. Smalley contributes a good deal of information on the subject of "The German Element in the United States"; Mr. Philip G. Hubert, jr., writes on Wagner; and "L. D." criticises Mr. Freeman's recent remarks on "American Speech." "L. D." by no means agrees with those of Mr. Freeman's critics in this country who thought that the historian's views of our way of using English were, considering the shortness of his visit here, just and accurate enough. On the contrary, he undertakes to show a number of instances in which Mr. Freeman has made blunders, and, further, that his own speech is by no means absolutely correct, but rather slipshod and slovenly. What, for example, are we to think of a critic who not only

is frivolous enough to suggest that we say "on board" a train of cars because our cars suggest to the mind the "cabin of a steamer," but has the audacity to write, in defiance of Lindley Murray, of the American "car," that "it is quite unlike the special meaning attached to a carriage"? A car unlike a special meaning! Shall we submit to criticism from such a source? Mr. Freeman, speaking of the habit of calling New York a "metropolis," thinks that it is not easy to guess in what sense the word is used, "as it can hardly be because it is the seat of a Roman Catholic Archbishopric." Did Mr. Freeman, inquires "L. D.," ever try to guess why a certain line of railway in London is called "Metropolitan"? The "Climate Cure" is discussed sceptically by Mr. Frank D. Y. Carpenter, who thinks that doctors, consumptive invalids, and hotelkeepers are in a conspiracy to represent certain places as "sanitariums," when the truth is that nobody knows whether they kill or cure. Florida, says Mr. Carpenter, ought to be called Euthanasia; Santa Barbara is becoming noted for the prosperity of its undertakers, etc. His advice is to get the nearest dry, pure air that can be had, and abandon all idea that a long journey in search of a new climate is necessary. Massachusetts physicians, we believe, have acted on this view of the matter, and sent consumptives from Boston about a couple of hours inland to the high country about Worcester.

—*Harper's* opens with a readable article on "English Farmers," by Mrs Phœbe Earle Gibbons, in which the writer draws a rather neat sketch of the ordinary English farm interior—so different from anything that could be found in this country. Mrs. Ford, the farmer's wife, reminds the reader a little of some of the characters in George Eliot's novels. She has heard of America, but having heard also of Australia, is apt to confound the two. She inquires of Mrs. Gibbons what means of education we have in the United States; and on learning that means exist, she says that she "thought not"; but adds reflectively that "perhaps it was Australia of which she heard this." With reference to the depression in farming she thinks the Irish troubles are "doing us good." Speaking of American cheese, it occurs to Mrs. Ford "how easily we might poison them" with this article of export—a suggestion which throws a side light upon the popular feeling in Germany as to the American pig, lately utilized in the interest of protection. Mrs. Ford has an old uncle and aunt, and Mrs. Gibbons's laughing and talking lead her to suggest a visit to the old people, on the ground of their interest in America, not as the land of freedom, but as the home of "funny things." There is plenty of American history in the magazine, and it looks as if the supply would not soon give out, for Mr. George Ticknor Curtis furnishes an illustrated article on "The Treaty of Peace and Independence," bearing the ominous number which indicates that others are to follow, and Mr. T. W. Higginson has an account of the Jamestown settlement and other related matters. Mr. Boughton's instalment of "Artist Strolls in Holland" contains a number of charming pictures. The frontispiece of the magazine is a portrait of Irving, about whom Mr. Curtis has a few pleasant words to say in the "Easy Chair," suggested by his approaching centenary. As Mr. Curtis says, Irving's position in literature is "assured"; but, unless we are mistaken, there is a good deal of doubt just now as to its exact nature and magnitude. Was he a great writer, or are his style and matter a little too literary and imitative? Was even his humor original? In another hundred years the world will have made up its mind on these points.

—The address on mental discipline recently delivered by Professor Huxley before the Liverpool Institute clearly defines what, in the estimate of that scientist, ought to constitute the groundwork and body of a substantial English education. Apart from its numerous wholesome suggestions, which, as coming from so eminent and experienced an authority, cannot fail to carry considerable weight with them, the address is particularly interesting as it corrects many fallacies that have currently obtained concerning Professor Huxley's "peculiar" views in this direction. After dwelling upon the practical value of instruction in physical science, and its superiority to any other study as a mental discipline, the speaker (as reported by *Nature*) laid special stress upon the fact that he was no advocate of the exclusion of other forms of culture from education, but, on the contrary, insisted that it would be a serious mistake to cripple them for the sake of science. He had no sympathy, he said, with a kind of sect or horde of scientific Goths and Vandals, who think that it would be proper and desirable to sweep away all other forms of culture and instruction except those in physical science. As to the material of education or learning, Professor Huxley adds: "It is not a question whether one order of study should predominate or that another should. It is a question of what topics of education you shall select which will combine all the needful elements in such due proportion as to give the greatest amount of food and support and encouragement to those faculties which enable us to appreciate truth, and to profit by those sources of innocent happiness which are open to us, and at the same time to avoid that which is bad and coarse and ugly, and to keep clear of the multitude of pitfalls and dangers which beset those who break through the natural and moral laws." After dwelling upon the worthlessness of the literary education hitherto dispensed by the English schools, the speaker stated, that if he "could make a clean sweep of everything, and start afresh, he would in the first place secure the training of the young in reading and writing, and in the habit of attention and observation both to that which is told them and that which they see; and he would make it absolutely necessary for everybody, for a longer or shorter period, to learn to draw—and there is nobody who cannot be made to draw more or less well." Besides the studies that might be considered strictly scientific, and such as pertain to pure literature, ancient no less than modern, Professor Huxley urges the necessity of a proper training in the history and geography of the mother country—"not as a mere chronicle of reigns and battles, but as a chapter in the development of the race and the history of civilization"—and in the sadly neglected theory of morals and of political and social life, "which, strangely enough, it never seems to occur to anybody to teach a child." . . . "Finally, I would add instruction in either music or painting, or, if the child should be so unhappy, as sometimes happens, to have no faculty for either of these, and no possibility of doing anything in an artistic sense with them, then I would see what could be done with literature alone; but I would provide in the fullest sense for the development of the æsthetic side of the mind."

—In a recent number of this journal the rather frequent abuse of postdating literary publications was animadverted upon. The mercenary reason for such practice is obvious. Antedating, however, also occurs, especially in Germany, where the issuing of works in instalments, or parts forming no separate volumes, is common. Generally the title-pages of such books are printed when the volumes are completed, and thus partial postdating takes place; but occasionally the title-page is issued with the first number or part, bearing the date of the beginning of the publication, though this may require years for its completion. The 'Universal History,' edited by Professor W. Oncken, and published by G. Grote in Berlin, a publication of equally great dimensions and merit, offers several examples of such antedating. The advantage that may possibly arise from it is not perceptible. The disadvantage to the publisher is clear. Thus Dümichen's 'History of Ancient Egypt,' which is the first book in this collection, bears on its regular title-page the date 1878, and it is only half completed. When offered for sale, a year or two hence, as an independent book—which each work of the collection is—it will be considered a rather old publication. Nearly the same is the case with Lefmann's 'History of Ancient India,' begun in 1879, and still incomplete, and with several other component parts of the 'Universal History.' Many a reader of Dümichen's 'Egypt,' not aware of the way in which it appeared, will be surprised to find in a book dated 1878 references to works published in 1880, 1881, or 1882. The author will, of course, in this respect have the advantage over writers whose publications, bearing the date of completion, expose them to the reproach of unfamiliarity with the latest authorities on their subjects. The learned contributors to Riehm's 'Handwörterbuch des Biblischen Altertums,' for instance—a work in one large volume, begun in 1874, and probably to be dated 1884—will be made responsible by many a reader for their ignoring, in such articles as "Assyria" or "Babylonia," things discovered and made known a number of years before the date of the publication. It appears to us that, in justice to author, publisher, and buyer, volumes the issuing of which takes several years ought to indicate on their title-page the dates both of the beginning and the completion. Thus Riehm's 'Handwörterbuch,' if finished next year, ought to be dated 1874–1884. The practice of partial antedating, however, ought to be entirely abandoned. We have before us a small encyclopædia—Kliushnikoff's, published in St. Petersburg—embracing events down to 1882, and dated 1878. Its publishers must be losers to a great extent by this mistake. Why was not a new title-page added to the last instalment, dated 1882, or, more properly, 1878–1882?

—Friedrichs's 'Bausteine' is a running commentary on the collection of casts from the antique in the Berlin Museum. The collection is probably the best of its kind in the world, and Friedrichs's critical authority is of the first order. Mr. D. Cady Eaton has just completed a translation of it in three parts (New Haven), and his notes show the zeal and research of the student. The writings of Friedrichs are learned and acute, and of interest to all scholarly readers. His exegesis is not altogether exempt from the German tendency to fumble (we know of no better word for it) among the inner sensations and mental processes of the artists whose works are under discussion; nor from dogmatism, as when he says of Egyptian and Assyrian relief that "The object of putting heads and legs in profile was undoubtedly to prevent the projection of noses and feet beyond the surface." But it is very difficult to write a concise commentary without dogmatism, and the German *Innerlichkeit*, if it is sometimes amusing, does no harm; the learning and the discrimination are indisputably here. Translated for Americans, Mr. Eaton's three hundred pages or so of selections are in their present form a commentary without a text; for they are without illustrations, while there is not in our country a collection of casts which offers the range of examples that they cover. Being arranged, however, in the form of a handbook,

they lend themselves more to special reference than to continuous reading. For this use, and for the wants of readers in English to whom a German book of the scope of Overbeck's 'Geschichte der Griechischen Plastik' is impracticable, we know of nothing so good and so convenient. Now and then, especially in his third part, Mr. Eaton strays away pretty widely from Friedrichs, and supplements or replaces him by his own or other authorities, sometimes to advantage, and sometimes, we think, not to his readers' benefit, as, for instance, in his discussion of the Venus of Melos—or Milo. In a prefatory note, he says that he publishes his selections at first in numbers, in order to invite suggestions. We will therefore venture to offer one. It is that when these numbers are reprinted in book form, as we trust they may be, with illustrations, a translation of the introductory chapter on Greek sculpture in the volume (vol. ii.) which Friedrichs contributed to Schnaase's 'Geschichte der bildenden Künste,' should be prefixed to them. There could be no better introduction to the book—omitting, possibly, the first half-dozen pages—and it would be hard to find a better summarizing of the forms and qualities of Greek sculpture.

—Mention has already been made in these pages of the new series of biographies, called "Les Célébrités Contemporaines," to be published in Paris by M. Quantin (New York: F. W. Christern). The first half-dozen numbers have now appeared. The idea of the series is identical with that of the little yellow-covered collection of the writer who called himself "Eugène de Mirecourt," and who used his series of "Les Contemporains, portraits et silhouettes au XIX. siècle" as a means of abusing those of his fellow-Frenchmen whom he did not like, or with whom he disagreed either politically or theologically. But while Mirecourt's pamphlets were wholly untrustworthy, as he was equally unscrupulous in praise or in blame, the present series is to be written by writers of character having a reputation to lose, and treating each a congenial subject. The declaration is distinctly made that each biography will be the work of a friend—M. Zola, for instance, will have his portrait taken from life by his chief and ablest disciple, M. Guy de Maupassant. As we have already noted, the most of the literary biographies will be written by M. Jules Claretie. Two of these, M. Victor Hugo and M. Émile Augier, have already appeared. The sketch of M. Augier's honorable career and the characterization of his noble works are in M. Claretie's best manner. Here and there we detect fragments of criticism already printed in his 'Vie Moderne au Théâtre.' The little book on Victor Hugo, like nearly all contemporary French writing on this subject, is wholly uncritical. It is a pæan, a rhapsody of praise as colossal as its hero's vanity. M. Claretie records Hugo's *naïf* remark, that it is perhaps time for him (Hugo) "de désencombrer mon siècle!" Hugo is also set down as saying, "I was born at the right time for my glory: I am astride of two centuries!" Every little volume contains thirty-two octavo pages of text, a facsimile of MS., and an etched portrait of no striking artistic merit. It is a little odd that of the five biographies announced to be first published at the beginning of the year, Grévy, Hugo, Louis Blanc, Augier, and Gambetta, two have had to appear after the death of the subject.

—In Professor Karl Witte, the eminent jurist and Dante student, who died at Halle in the night of March 5–6, our century has lost its oldest celebrity, for Witte was famous eighty years ago, though then barely three years old. His father, a village pastor of considerable attainments, living at Lochau, near Halle, had proposed to himself to bestow upon his Karl, by a strict and systematic education calculated to develop his mental and bodily powers equally and harmoniously, the highest degree of culture of which *mens sana in corpore sano* was capable. The study of languages he considered the least injurious to an infant, and before the end of his first lustrum the boy was a linguistic prodigy, being familiar, among other tongues, with Hebrew and Greek. His acquirements were the results of methodical training rather than of natural—or unnatural—precocity. He made, subsequently, the same strides in the sciences, and in January, 1810, at the age of nine years and six months—he was born on July 1, 1800—he was duly matriculated a student of the Leipsic University. On the demand of King Jerome, of Westphalia, he was transferred to the University of Göttingen, and here he wrote, at the age of twelve, a mathematical treatise in Latin, on the conchoids of Nicomedes, which a year later procured him the title of doctor of philosophy. In 1814–16 he studied law in Heidelberg. Aided by the King of Prussia, he made a literary tour, and spent two years in the libraries and galleries of Italy, dividing his time between jurisprudence, art study, and Italian literature. He had not belied his juvenile fame, and his father deemed himself entitled to make known to the world the methods by which he had carried out his educational task, which he did in a work in two volumes, entitled 'Karl Witte der Jüngere, oder Erziehungs- und Bildungsgeschichte desselben' (1819). This book deservedly attracted general attention. The son shortly after became professor of law at the University of Breslau, and from 1834 till his death he officiated in the same capacity at Halle. He lectured and wrote on Roman, Byzantine, and Prussian law, but to Italian literature, and especially to the study of Dante, he devoted the best energies of his life, with an almost tender affection which manifested itself even on his death-bed. His editions and translations, with comments, of the works of the great Italian poet, rank among the foremost publications of the kind on either side of the Alps. Karl Witte ceased to be a prodigy when he began his professional career, but he preserved his health, his habits of diligent study, his mental vigor and serenity, and his standing as an author unimpaired to the close of his life. His last publication, the second part of his 'Dante-Forschungen,' appeared in 1879.

—Mme. Albani is, beyond question, one of the best *Sentas* to be found on the stage. Signor Galassi also is an admirable singer and a genuine artist, whose talent is not limited to the style of one country; while Signor Ravelli has often received just praise as an interpreter of Italian melodies. These three singers were in the cast of the "Flying Dutchman," which was given on March 21 for the first time in New York by Mr. Mapleson's company, although other companies have given it years ago. And yet the performance as a whole was very poor, and often abominable. We see here at once the difference between a German and an Italian opera. Given three good singers like those above-mentioned, together with an ordinary beer-house band and primitive chorus, and an Italian opera may yet be performed in such a way as to afford satisfaction, because it is merely a "concert in costume" for the soloists. But Wagner's operas are in the first place dramas, and unless every detail of action and scenery is brought into the most intimate relation with the music, the latter must necessarily miss its effect and appear aimless. There is not the slightest exaggeration in saying that Wagner, in writing his music, had in his mind's eye the gesture, action, and facial expression that are to accompany every single bar of the music. This is how he describes the first appearance on the stage of the *Dutchman*, in a special article which may be found in the fifth volume of his collected works (p. 208):

"While the trumpets sound their low notes (B minor) at the end of the introduction, he has stepped forward over a plank placed by the sailors between the ship and a rock on shore; the first note of the ritornelle of the aria (the low E sharp of the basses) is accompanied by the first step of the *Dutchman* on the land; his staggering gait, characteristic of seamen when they first come on shore after a long voyage, is again musically accompanied by the wavy movement of the 'cellos and violas; the first quarter of the third bar coincides with his first step, his arms being always folded and his countenance lowered; the third and fourth steps concur with the notes of the eighth and tenth bars."

It cannot be said that Signor Galassi followed all these minute details, but, in a general way, his conception of the part was correct and interesting, and no one could fail to admire his beautiful voice and the ease with which he covered the unusual intervals. What was lacking in his impersonation was that weird fascination and power which the best German vocalists manifest in this part, and for which, it must in justice be added, they are largely indebted to the dramatic excellence of their support. Mme. Albani's *Senta* was the naïve, healthy, northern maiden of Wagner's fancy, whose dreaminess never degenerates into sickly sentimentality. The most critical moment in her part is that when she is left alone face to face with the *Dutchman*. Here, as in other situations, Mme. Albani showed herself a gifted actress. Her only fault was a disposition to alter a cadence or displace a rest in order to secure a special effect of operatic vocalism. There was no great exaggeration in this, but it should have been avoided altogether. Signor Ravelli had the short semi-lyric rôle of *Erik*, and he conceived it entirely in an Italian spirit—that is to say, he spoiled it. "He will do me a poor service," says Wagner, "who sings the cavatina in the third act in a sweet style; it should rather breathe sadness and melancholy." Signor Ravelli also took a great many liberties with his notes, leaving out some and putting in others where it suited his fancy. His *Erik*, in a word, was as unsatisfactory as Campanini's *Lohengrin* always is. Of Signor Clodio's *Steersman* it need only be said that it was the strongest argument against compulsory pilotage ever advanced in this city. When we add to this that the chorus was only good in the second act, and made a terrible hodge-podge of the grand choruses of the other two acts, in so far as the conductor had not cut them out, it may be imagined that the total effect of the performance was painful to one who has heard this opera in Germany. The lyric second act was very well done, but the rest was vandalism, pure and simple. Instead of being dreary, as it seemed, the first act is really wonderfully fine, and full of the most characteristic music. But it is necessary to attend to a thousand details which were neglected at the Academy.

—Gounod's "Roméo et Juliette" is one of those operas which, like Weber's "Euryanthe" and some of Gluck's works, may confidently expect a much greater popularity in the future than they have ever had in the past. There is more good music and a thousand times more dramatic character in it than in a dozen works like "Lucia," "Favorita," and "Rigoletto"; and as the taste of our operatic audiences cannot fail to follow the same evolution as has been going on abroad, there is reason to believe that Gounod's work will figure very prominently on our operatic repertory during the next ten or twenty years. It was written in 1867, seventeen years after the appearance of "Lohengrin," and bears as distinct

evidence of the influence of that epoch-making opera as "Carmen," "Aïda," and countless lesser works. It may not contain as many popular melodies as "Faust," but its dramatic style is even superior to that of "Faust," and the score is so full of beautiful details that one could listen to the orchestra alone for a whole evening without feeling bored for a moment. It is to be hoped that Mme. Patti, whose *Juliet* is said to be among her best rôles, will add this opera to her repertory when she returns to New York next season. The performance by Mr. Grau's Opêra Comique Company at the Casino on Monday unfortunately was not such as to win over many new friends to Gounod's cause, except among those who are experts at reading between the lines. "Romeo and Juliet" of course requires a first-class orchestra, in the first place, and not a small operetta band which is out of tune half the time, and showers down wrong notes as a storm does hailstones. The next requisite is a good chorus. The one actually employed was very inadequate to its task, except in the great duel scene, where it was surprisingly good. The smaller characters were all admirably acted and indifferently sung, as was to be expected in a French company. Mlle. Derivis presented an interesting *Juliet* to the eye. Her acting might be studied to advantage by some *Juliets* on the dramatic stage, and her singing would have been acceptable if her voice had not been usually a quarter of a tone above the pitch, for it is otherwise of good quality. M. Capoul acted with his well-known dash and fire in the duelling scene, which he rendered quite exciting; but his love-making scenes were spoiled by his over-sentimental attitudes and his constant transitions from fortissimo chest-notes to pianissimo falsetto notes.

ENGLISH POPULAR BALLADS.

The English and Scottish Popular Ballads. Edited by Francis James Child. Part 1. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

ALL lovers of our ballad literature are familiar with the collection of English and Scottish ballads which came out in 1857–8 under the editorship of Prof. Child. In the eight volumes which made up that work were first brought together, from widely scattered sources, the most famous pieces of the kind existing in our tongue. Nor was it the only distinguishing excellence of the collection that it was fuller than others: it had the special peculiarity that the poems included in it were given in the most authentic form then attainable. Genuineness of text was an object, indeed, that lay near to the heart of the editor. The impossibility of securing it in the condition of things then existing was a source of constant regret, and justified an occasional lapse into wrath. There is a suggestive note to the preface, in which the editor gave vent to his latent indignation by asserting that in retaining certain pieces from Buchan's collection which he believed to have been tampered with, he had been under the necessity of exercising a good deal of resolution, and suppressing a great deal of disgust. For, as a matter of fact, a genuine text was in most cases not then attainable. All previous editors had been possessed with the devil of emendation and so-called improvement. Alterations made by them could be suspected, but without the sight of the original manuscript they could not be proved. Still less could the early authentic form be ascertained; for the original manuscripts had passed in most cases out of sight, and in some cases out of existence.

Twenty-five years have gone by since the collection spoken of was published, and we now see the first instalment of a work which will do for the ballads of our tongue an office too long postponed. The delay was inevitable, but none the less has it been unfortunate, for much has doubtless perished which years ago could have been recovered and permanently preserved. The schoolmaster is abroad, and the goodness of the work he has done need not be denied; but it is one of the indirect results of his omnipresent activity that the ballads of English speech, like the words of English dialects, have passed away for ever, or are in process of passing away. The songs of the people are no longer handed down from generation to generation by word of mouth. The old women who once made the hair of children stand on end with stories of desperate doing and daring have found their vocation gone, and have ceased to remember what no one cares to hear. "The spinsters and the knitters in the sun" chant no more what England's great dramatist characterized as the plain and antique songs that dally with the innocence of love. The mind of the boy is now rarely thrilled, as in the old age, with tales of heroic achievement which, even in maturer years, Sidney confessed stirred his heart more than the blast of a trumpet. We have changed all this: our children need no longer resort to the rude devices of unlearned times. Besides the annual overflowing Christmas supply of literary milk-and-water, they have now plenty of monthly and weekly publications specially devoted to their intellectual nutriment, and it is merely a question of time when a daily paper will be printed solely for their use. Fortunately, they have already learned to take on the habits of their elders, and are saved from the worst effects of reading the things they do, by not remembering anything they read.

The necessity of preserving these ballads, not as they have been printed, but as they were written—or at any rate handed down by oral tradition—has therefore been long a pressing one; but the work could not be done, because there were no means of ascertaining the form they originally had. The Percy folio, the most important collection of all, had been for a long time in hands which denied even the sight of it to the most eminent English scholars. For any apparent benefit resulting from its existence, it might as well have been returned to its place under the bureau in Humphrey Pitt's parlor, whence, dirty, tattered, and used by the maids for kindling the fire, it had been rescued by the youthful antiquary. But well-directed, energetic, and persistent importunity, coupled with the use of money, at last rescued this literary treasure from any further chance of destruction. In 1867–8 it was brought out in four volumes, edited with most scrupulous fidelity and intelligence by Mr. Hales and Mr. Furnivall. The text was then for the first time printed in all its original purity—or impurity, if one so chooses to consider it.

The publication of this book enabled all students to know at once, and positively, what was the genuine ballad, and what was the article that had been masquerading in its guise. As an illustration of Percy's method of dealing with his material, two examples will suffice. The story of "The Child of Ell" is a form of one of the most widely-spread tales of northern Europe. As it existed in the manuscript, it was a fragment of thirty-nine lines. These Percy took as the basis to form a complete ballad of his own, which appeared in the Reliques as a poem of some two hundred lines; and even in this, very few of the original thirty-nine appeared in their authentic form. In a similar way, he polished "The Heir of Lin," and did his work so thoroughly that, according to the editors of the folio, "he could see his own face in it." In this case, also, the one hundred and twenty-five lines of the manuscript came out two hundred and sixteen under his multiplying hand; and, as usual, there was little or nothing to indicate certainly what was ancient and what was modern. These are, to be sure, among the extreme instances; but they make clear the light in which ballads were regarded, and show the spirit that presided over this attempt to bring them before the public. Percy, indeed, can be pardoned for failing to print but one-fourth of the matter contained in the manuscript, for he printed the best; but he cannot well escape blame for the unwarrantable liberties he took with the text. To borrow a phrase which the speculative transactions of our time have made too familiar, he was constantly engaged in watering his stock; and he had as little conscience in the operation as any modern railway director. The result was that the diluted expression and mawkish sentiment which were added to the directness and rude vigor of the original, made often a mixture which the modern editors very appropriately call "a flood of ballad-and-water," from the most copious draughts of which little intellectual sustenance or poetical inspiration can be derived.

One can easily, however, be too hard on Percy, and that, moreover, most unfairly. It was a venturesome undertaking—and he fully felt it to be so—for any man in that age of paint and periwigs and powder to treat as worthy of print "these old things," as in one place Percy deprecatingly termed them. His preface was almost painful in its apologetic tone. These ballads, he said, were written merely for the people, and he recognized the fact that great allowances would have to be made for them by the men of the polished generation he was addressing. He did not disguise his apprehension that in the highly improved state to which literature had then attained, the artless graces and pleasing simplicity of these productions would not be deemed worthy of the attention of the public. He doubtless felt that he had, and perhaps he actually had, to dress them up, in order that they should be received at all: and if he did sometimes dress them up so that they would hardly have known themselves, let us not forget the polite society in which it was his lot to introduce them. Even in the new attire, sometimes gorgeous and sometimes sentimental, in which they appeared, it was hard to get any recognition for them from the arbiters of the reigning taste. It was, perhaps, partly due to a vague feeling of prudence on their part; for these ballads, even in the "improved" condition in which they saw the light, were to be one of the main agencies in overthrowing the principles of the literary dynasty that then held supreme power. Much unfairness is often shown to the eighteenth century by men who, not simply content with abandoning the poetical faith it cherished, feel it incumbent to revile unqualifiedly its poetical achievement. But it is doing it no injustice to say that naturalness and unconsciousness are not the qualities that specially mark its literary character. These, however, are the very qualities which most distinguish the genuine ballad. It may be uncouth, but it is always simple and spontaneous, and therefore strong. It goes straight to its mark. It is written under the pressure of absorbing emotion, in which the poet surrenders himself to his inspiration, and is not consciously practising his art. It is the more effective because it is not aiming at effect. The ballad-writer, in fact, produced his verse as Porson said that Fox produced his sentence: he threw himself into the middle of it, and left it to God Almighty to get him out again. No one needs to be told that it is not in this way the poetry of the eighteenth century was usually written.

Considerations like these show of what essential importance it is that the ancient ballads of our tongue should be secured and preserved in the earliest and most authentic form attainable. In one respect the delay has been fortunate, for the work has fallen into hands the most capable in the long line of editors of doing it with the most absolute accuracy and completeness that are now within reach. It is no secret to students of our ballad literature that, ever since the publication of the Percy folio at least, Prof. Child has had this undertaking in mind. It is doing the simplest act of justice to say that in his qualifications for this self-imposed and most laborious service to literature he finds no superiors among the living or the dead; nor would it probably be doing any injustice to any belonging to either of these two classes to say, further, that he finds no equal. His zeal and industry have, moreover, brought to light treasures that but for him would probably have perished. When the Percy folio had been secured and printed, there still remained several other manuscript collections which had been used by previous editors. These belonged mainly to the north of Britain. Scotland can justly be proud of her ballad poetry, and, in the consideration of its quantity and excellence, one can feel pity rather than express reproach for the patriotism, equally profane and inane, that ventures to compare Barbour with Chaucer. It is gratifying to learn, as we do from the advertisement, that several of the manuscript collections of these ballads, as well as versions of individual ones, have been secured. The generous help of many is amply acknowledged, but it needs no special insight to see that the success in procuring unused material has been due mainly to the indefatigable exertions of the editor, and to the enthusiasm which his own enthusiasm has communicated to all who were interested in this kind of literature.

Of the execution of the work, so far as it has already been done, it is scarcely possible to speak in terms of too high praise. The present part is but a slight instalment of the whole. It consists, in fact, of but twenty-eight ballads; yet these, with their illustrative comparison of the story, and with their variations of version, take up more than two hundred and fifty double-columned pages. The amount of study put upon the work, the amount of investigation displayed in it, are, indeed, such as to appall veteran scholars who have been wont to attack the most formidable literary strongholds. When completed on the scale on which it has been begun, we feel justified in saying that it will be the most important contribution that American scholarship has yet made to any subject concerned primarily with literature.

It hardly needs to be added that a work of this kind is not intended for the ordinary reader, even if he be a man of letters. It is, in truth, a storehouse to which the student of language, the student of poetry, the student of fiction, and the student of folk-lore must resort for information of a special kind, which can be found collected in its pages, and, so far at least as our own language is concerned, in its pages alone. Its value will therefore increase rather than diminish with time; yet even now he who reads mainly for amusement will not fail to find much in it to entertain and instruct a man of literary taste. It remains to add that the work is published by subscription, and that the publishers have done their part in making its external appearance as attractive as the internal is valuable. It will not be to the credit of the American people if a collection like this—the fruit of earnest and unselfish devotion to literature for its own sake—does not meet with adequate appreciation and encouragement.

McMASTER'S HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE.

A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War. By John Bach McMaster. In 5 vols. Vol. I. D. Appleton & Co. 1883.

The striking passage in which Macaulay refers the differences in the historical methods of Herodotus and Thucydides to the change in the characteristics of their countrymen, was evidently written not alone for Greece or for Great Britain, but for America as well. Here, also, the stage has been passed in which feeling is of supreme moment in the narration of history, in which we transfer to former times all the characteristics of our own, and, consciously or unconsciously, attribute our own prejudices to men who were as foreign to them as Brahmin is to Parisian. Here, too, we "aspire to know, where our ancestors were content to doubt, and begin to doubt, where our ancestors thought it their duty to believe." The attitude of the reader has changed; so far as he can get, he most desires full and exact statement, accurate definition, and a faithful projection of the real actors in the story, without any disguise of their elements of weakness as well as of strength. The consequence has been that the basis of historical narration has changed very considerably within the memory of men now living. The historian's business is no longer mainly with kings and presidents, with the negotiation of treaties and the planning and fighting of campaigns, with the discussions of the senate and the comparative merits of rival statesmen. These are but the bubbles on the surface of the mighty river—the people—that underlies them and governs their course. To this the historian must give its due proportion. He must not be satisfied until he has made the people of the past as definite and clear to view as the people of the present, until the reader has as exact a notion of what action or feeling would have been natural or unnatural to the men of the past as he has in the case of the men of the present. The great events of history will not then come to the reader "like supernatural inflictions, without reason or cause." History will then take on a complete and natural symmetry, and the historian, like an inspired census-taker, will hold up a mirror which reflects the portraiture of the times, not of himself.

If this is to be the scope of history, the volume under consideration is the beginning of that which bids fair to be the authoritative history of the United States for the period which it covers. It is such a book as John Richard Green would have written if he had been able to devote an entire volume to the history of seven years. It is the history of the people of the United States, thrown upon a larger canvas than Green could afford to use, and, therefore, making visible more minute lines than can be found even in the 'History of the English People.' It is a storehouse of facts concerning the life, feelings, and limitations of the people, attractively grouped, and stated with precision and masculine energy. There may be, probably will be, lacking in subsequent volumes something of that wonderful grasp of the nation's environment, of the influence of other nations upon it, and of it upon other nations, which gives Green's work its unique position in its own school. But this lack would hardly be noticeable in the history of a people like that of the United States, whose life has as yet been comparatively self-contained, and is but just growing into its full influence upon the life of the world. Prof. McMaster's work, so far as it has gone, deals with a time when nobody read an American book, and the American people was living its own isolated life. It is, therefore, fair to ask only how far it has followed those modern canons of historical criticism which are applicable to the history of a people so situated.

The first hundred pages of the volume are given to a very full and successful delineation of the American as he was in 1784. If any fault could be found with the details, it would be that they deal perhaps too closely with the New-Englander at the expense of the Southerner, the people of the Middle States receiving about a fair share of attention. It may very well be that the author's intention is to leave the more exhaustive treatment of the Southern social system until it has taken permanent shape, after 1793. With this exception, hardly any fault can be found with this part of the work, which is not at all confined to the first hundred pages, but continues at intervals throughout the volume. The average American's poverty of books, his difficulties of travel, his isolation from all the outside influences which so powerfully affect his descendants, are all stated minutely and clearly, and cannot fail to awaken the reader's attention to the strangeness of the country he is entering. Constant comparisons between past and present enforce the contrast. The history is that of a time when fewer letters were distributed in all the thirteen States in a whole year than are now distributed at New York city every twenty-four hours; when newspapers were not admitted to the mails, and were only carried for a special fee by the post-riders; when postmasters and post-riders habitually opened and read the letters in the mails at their pleasure; when every political leader was compelled to write in cipher; and when the output of the whole periodical press of the country did not equal in amount that of a single modern daily newspaper. And the quality of the newspaper of the time was very much on a par with the quantity:

"The student of history who seeks in the *Packets* and *Advertisers* of that day for information on matters which it concerns him to know, will in all likelihood search long and find but little. He will read much about the sin of idleness, about the value of economy, about the wretchedness of the wicked woman whose feet take hold on hell; but he will meet with nothing, or next to nothing, on many of the most exciting topics and important events of the time. He will, for instance, look in vain for any extensive information on the abhorrence which the people felt for the Cincinnati, on the proceedings of the Middletown Convention, on the action against the Mayor's Court for its decision in the case of Rutgers against Waddington, on the formation of the State of Franklin, or the rupture of the Committee of the States, whereby the country was left without a government for many weeks. These were matters concerning which an editor two hundred miles away had no direct means of knowing. He had not in every city and town a well-paid correspondent whose duty it was to collect the freshest bits of scandal, to interview the latest public character, and to send accounts of the course of public opinion. For all this he was indebted to a source now rarely, if ever, used even in a backwoods village or a prairie town. Any gentleman who was so fortunate as to receive a letter from a distant part of the country was expected to display his public spirit by sending to the printer such portions of it as were likely to be of interest to the community. Scarce a week, therefore, went by but the *Gazettes* contained many scraps of valuable information under such headings as 'A Letter from a Gentleman at the Falls of the Ohio to his Friend in New England,' 'A Letter from a Gentleman resident in Virginia to his Friend in this City.' Sometimes these communications would fill a column, and almost always they were well worth a careful perusal."

The faithfulness of this and other descriptions will be recognized by those who have had occasion to recur to such original sources. But the mass of readers have had no such occasion. To them the things and events of the past are unconsciously associated with those of the present,

and the man of 1784, who had fought out the war of the Revolution, who framed the Confederation and the Constitution, is much the same personage, albeit with a singular taste in dress, as the man of 1883, who telephones from New York city to Cleveland, telegraphs around the world, crosses the continent in a week, and pays a national debt of three thousand millions in a generation. For any such unconscious cerebration there will no longer be any excuse, if this work is carried out in the manner in which it has been begun. At every step the reader is guarded against any danger of confounding the country of the present with the country of the past. He is cautioned that if he could look upon the country as it was in 1784 he would not recognize it:

"The hamlets of a few fishermen would mark the sites of wealthy havens now bristling with innumerable masts, and the great cities themselves would dwindle to dimensions scarce exceeding those of some rude settlement far to the west of the Colorado River. Of the inventions and discoveries which abridge distance, which annihilate time, which extend commerce, which aid agriculture, which save labor, which transmit speech, which turn the darkness of the night into the brilliancy of the day, which alleviate pain, which destroy disease, which lighten even the infirmities of age, not one existed. Fulton was still a portrait-painter, Fitch and Rumsey had not yet begun to study the steam-engine, Whitney had not yet gone up to college, Howe and Morse, McCormick and Fairbanks, Goodyear and Colt, Dr. Morton and Dr. Bell were yet to be born. A narrow line of towns and hamlets extended, with many breaks, along the coast from the province of Maine to Georgia, but fifty miles back from the waters of the Atlantic the country was an unbroken jungle."

The sparseness of population, and the lack of facilities for the interchange of intelligence, were aggravated by the difficulties of travel:

"While Washington was serving his first term, two stages and twelve horses sufficed to carry all the travellers and goods passing between New York and Boston, then the two great commercial centres of the country. The conveyances were old and shackling, the harness made mostly of rope; the beasts were ill-fed, and worn to skeletons. The ordinary day's journey was forty miles in summer; but in winter, when the roads were bad and the darkness came on early in the afternoon, rarely more than twenty-five. . . . Even a trip from Brooklyn to New York, across a river scarce half as wide as that separating the city from New Jersey, was attended with risks and delays that would now be thought intolerable. Then, and indeed till the day, thirty years later, when the rude steamboats of Fulton made their appearance on the ferry, the only means of transportation for man and beast were clumsy row-boats, flat-bottomed, square-ended scows with sprit-sails, and two-masted boats called periaguas. Every week small herds of steers and flocks of sheep were driven to the ferry, shut up in pens, and brought over the river, a few at a time, on the scows. The calmest days, the smoothest water, and a slack tide were, if possible, chosen for such trips. Yet even then, whoever went upon a cattle-boat took his life in his hands. If a sudden gust of wind struck the sails, or if one of the half-dozen bullocks became restless, the scow was sure to upset."

The political history of the years covered by the first volume is full, minute, and accurate. There is no attempt to disguise the fact that the success of Dr. Cutler's Ohio Company, and the passage of the Ordinance of 1787, were intimately associated with a gigantic land-jobbing scheme, in which all the influential members of Congress were "let in on the ground floor." There is no attempt to disguise other similar features of contemporary politics, which, if they should occur now, would brighten the faces and lighten the labors of the Washington correspondents, and supply a battery from which to shock the country with the revelation of official scandals. The details of social life, too, are given with painstaking completeness. The misery of the poor man's life; the horrors which armed his ever-watchful enemy, the law of imprisonment for debt; the formal courtesies of the higher classes, their amusements, relaxations, and business methods; the wilder life of the State of Franklin and the county of Kentucky—all these are so fully covered that the scrutiny which could suggest missing details would be severe indeed.

But, after all, however interesting these may be and however spirited the manner of their narration and grouping, the great and crowning excellence of Mr. McMaster's work is its faithfulness in picturing the enormous difficulties of national action in 1784 and the succeeding quarter of a century. If the work is completed as it has been begun, its reader will never be assailed by the insidious temptation to clothe the characters of which he is reading with the attributes of the present, to transfer to the American of 1784 the characteristics and advantages of the American of the present. He will feel no surprise at occasional suggestions of secession in various parts of the country, for he will have been already completely acquainted with the social and political limitations of which they were the fruit; nor will he remember them as an excuse for later suggestions of secession, when the original limitations had disappeared. To him the history of the United States will not seem a succession of inexplicable cataclysms provoked by the bad temper or folly, the wisdom or good luck, of the people of one section or the other, but an orderly succession of natural events, the inevitable effects of moving causes which have already taken their places in his memory and judgment. For these reasons, this first volume is a most encouraging promise of the standard history of the people of the United States.

A single criticism, if it be a criticism, might be made upon the promise that the work is to be completed in five volumes. If it has taken one volume to cover the years 1784–90, it is difficult to see how the remaining seventy years, down to "the beginning of the Civil War," are to be covered, after the same method, in four volumes. The work ought not to be written for the reader of 1883 or 1890 alone, and, if it is to be of permanent value, it must cover the expanding social conditions of 1830–60 as fully as it has done those of 1784–90. But any such criticism would be premature, and the increasing homogeneity of modern society will probably obviate it.

THE IMPERIAL DICTIONARY.

Imperial Dictionary of the English Language. By John Ogilvie, LL.D. New edition, edited by Charles Annandale, M.A. Illustrated. 4 vols. London: Blackie & Son; New York: The Century Co.

THIS work, of which we have here what might be called either the second or third edition, has been for thirty-six years in vogue on the other side of the water. First published in 1847–50, it was distinctly the offspring of Webster's Dictionary, of which it became the parent when it introduced the practice of inserting illustrations in the text—a most legitimate mode of definition. To adopt the reckoning of the title-page, the present edition contains 3,000 woodcuts, or, as exactly as possible, an average of one for every page. The length of the printed page is nearly the same as that of Webster, the width less by one and a half inches, so that each of the three columns is considerably narrower than in the American work. The type is substantially the same, but that of the catchwords is rather more distinct in the 'Imperial Dictionary,' to which on the whole we should give the palm for convenience to the hand as well as to the eye of the searcher. The binding, of a blue-black cloth, is simple and tasteful. The four volumes have the compensation of lightness when consulted individually, but add to their obvious disadvantage that of being divided in the midst of a letter (though not of an article). The third volume, however, begins with L, as the first volume with A.

The prime cause of the bulkiness of this work is that it encroaches upon the cyclopædia. This has been the tendency even in our American dictionaries: consult the definition of *morris* as given by Webster. The 'Imperial Dictionary' purposely expands some of its definitions so as to include details commonly reserved for technical or historical works. Compare *bile*, *blow-pipe*, *chauvin*, *heliotype*, etc. Under *steelyard*, the principle of this balance is set forth; under *steam-engine* and *steam-whistle*, the accompanying diagrams are explained by references to the lettering; under *perfectionist*, we read, truly, "The founder of the sect was John Humphrey Noyes, and the principal community is established on a farm at Oneida Creek, in the State of New York. The followers of Noyes call themselves also *Bible Communists*," and much more, both historical and doctrinal. A second source of great fulness is in the illustrative quotations from standard authors. There are more in all than in Webster, and where the latter gives only the significant part of a verse of Shakspere or Milton, for example, the 'Imperial Dictionary' often rounds out the couplet or stanza—compare *deck* (of cards). The editors have also had the good thought to introduce as many "familiar quotations" as practicable. Finally, their use of American writers has been very liberal. The third begetter of length is the vocabulary, and here the editors have not only profited by the most recent supplements to Worcester and Webster, but have incorporated Scotch words to an extent that should disturb the rest of Dr. Johnson. They have, finally, added a supplement of their own to the last volume, in which we find such neologisms as *bell-punch*, *boycott*, *circumnutation* (Darwin), *closure*, *ego-altruistic* (Spencer), *ensilage*, and many more not given by Webster, together with a much greater number common to the two works. Proper names like *Asura*, *Accad*, *Benthamism*, *Danite*, etc., abound in both, but on no clear principle of selection, and have a questionable title to be included, apart from their undoubted convenience. Americanisms, like *greenback*, *hoodlum*, *interview*, *lacrosse*, *phenomenal*, *record* (political), *repeater*, *ticket*, *underground-railroad*, etc., are well represented. *Boss*, in its political sense, is not recognized. The nice point in the metaphor which gave birth to *carpet-bagger* is quite missed in the statement—"because regarded as having no more property than might fill a carpet-bag"—and the subsequent definition—"a needy political adventurer who goes about the country," etc. Worcester's definition is much better. The carpet-bagger was one who had only a transient interest in the country he infested—a sojourner, who meant to stay only till he had filled his pockets with the spoils of politics. His opposite was the bona-fide settler.

The etymologies may be trusted as among the best now accessible. They have had the advantage of Skeat's Dictionary (compare *bludgeon*, *whitlow*), but they do not slavishly follow that author's conclusions (compare *havoc*, *hurlyburly*, *mate*, *picnic*). The synonyms are, perhaps, not superior to Webster's. The definitions are of unequal merit, and in one department, for which preëminence is claimed in the prospectus, so deficient that we think proper to dwell on them, in order that the editors of the new dictionary projected by the Century Co., and based on the 'Imperial,' may take warning in time. We

refer to zoölogical terms, of which we must give a few examples:

"*Agouta* (a-gō'ta), *n.* [Native name.] An insectivorous mammal peculiar to Hayti, of the family Talpidæ, and the sole member of the genus Solenodon. It is so puzzling to naturalists that it has received the name of *S. paradoxus*. It has the fur, ears, and tail of the opossum, but the teeth and elongated nose of the shrews. . . . It is of the size of a rat, and not unlike one."

The agouta does not belong to "the family Talpidæ," but to another widely distinct one; it is not the "sole member of the genus Solenodon," but has a congener in Cuba much better known; it is no longer "puzzling to naturalists," but for twoscore years its relationships have been understood and generally admitted; it has not "the fur, ears, and tail of the opossum," but its own—that is, those parts are characteristic; the teeth, far from being those "of the shrews," are so different as to have compelled recent naturalists to place it in a different *primary* division of the order; its elongated snout is better simulated by other insectivores than the shrews; and the final remark not only is untrue, but contradicts the previous ones.

"*Agouti* (a-gō'ti), *n.* The Indian name of several species of rodent mammals, family Caviidæ, genus Dasyprocta or Chloromys. The common agouti, or yellow-rumped cavy (*D. Agouti*), is of the size of a rabbit. The upper part of the body is brownish, with a mixture of red and black; the belly yellowish. Three varieties are mentioned, all peculiar to South America and the West Indies," etc.

The etymological statement is not only indefinite, but actually wrong; the agouti does not belong to the family Caviidæ (not Cavidæ), but to a peculiar one (Dasyproctidæ); Chloromys is an obsolete synonym, and not a true alternative name, as might be supposed; *ten species* of agoutis are now recognized, and not "three varieties" (in a dictionary wherein definitions are the principal feature, such loose interchange of words as "species" and "varieties" is a grave fault); agoutis range northwards into Mexico, and are consequently not "peculiar to South America and the West Indies."

"*Ape* (āp), *n.* [A. Sax. *apa*; the word is widely spread; comp. Icel. *api*, D. *aap*, Dan. *abe*, G. *affe*, O. H. G. *affo*, Ir. and Gael *apa*, W. *epa*, O. Bohem. *op*, Mod. Bohem. *opec*, an ape; an initial guttural has been lost in all these words seen in Gr. *kēpos*, Skr. *kapi*, an ape.] One of a family (Simiadæ) of quadrumanous animals found in the torrid zone of both continents, including a great variety of species. The word ape, as well as the terms monkey and baboon, were formerly applied indiscriminately to all quadrumanous mammals; but it is now limited to such as have the teeth of the same number and form as in man, and which possess neither tails nor cheek-pouches. The family includes the chimpanzee, gibbon, gorilla, orang-outang, Barbary ape, &c., and has been divided into three genera, Troglodytes, Simia, and Hylobates," etc.

The first sentence is badly constructed, and its meaning ambiguous; the termination "adæ" is a defiance of etymology not tolerable in a dictionary of etymologies; the statement that Simiidæ are found in "both continents" is at least misleading: the family is represented in two continents—Africa and Asia—but not in both the Old and New World, as might be supposed by many from the words used; the family cannot be properly said to "include a great variety of species"—compared to others it has but few. The word ape has been used in several ways: (*a*) our Aryan as well as less remote ancestors apparently used the cognate term for a cercopithecoid monkey; (*b*) it has been also employed with the extended sense indicated above; and finally (*c*), it has been misapplied to forms unknown to the "ancients," and is now much used as the English synonym of the family name Simiidæ—that is, for the large tailless quadrumana. The family does not include the Barbary ape—that species is a true monkey.

"*Camelidæ* (ka-mel'i-dē), *n. pl.* A family of quadrupeds, including the true camels of the eastern hemisphere, and the llamas of the western. They are the only ruminants with canine and incisor teeth in the upper jaw."

The Camelidæ are by no means "the only ruminants with canine and incisor teeth in the upper jaw." Very many others have upper canine teeth, and some have *very large* and tusk-like ones—such are the water-deer, the musk-deer, and the Tragulids—while many extinct forms of ruminants had a full complement of *both* "canine and incisor teeth in the upper jaw."

Another fault is the constant use of anatomy ("*anat.*") for anthropotomy. For example, the "anat." terms, *anus* and *aorta*, have definitions and descriptions applicable to the manifestation of the parts in man, but not to their development in other animals. Occasionally we miss the zoölogical application of terms employed in many senses. Thus, *boot*, in addition to the meanings given, is used to denote the continuous front sheath of the tarsus of most oscine or singing birds, like the robin: *booted* is a correlated adjective.

There remains one defect for which the 'Imperial Dictionary' is not conspicuous, but which characterizes all in a greater or less degree. We can best express it by saying that the editorial point of view is too exclusively that of one to whom the language is vernacular. This is shown particularly in the want of pains taken to indicate the prepositions of relationship, as *to* and *with* after *comparison*, *to* and *from* after *averse* or *different*, *upon* after *dependent*, *of* and *upon* after *independence*, and the like—words in the choice of which the native often hesitates. This principle might be greatly extended so as to show words usually found in conjunction. For example, what verb shall be used with *autopsy*—to *have*, *hold*, *make*, or *perform*? We put the question as a foreigner might. If the new editors bear this in mind, and scrutinize every word in the light of its relationships, giving copious illustrative examples, we believe they will do more to make the 'Century Dictionary' preëminent than in any other way. In the meantime the 'Imperial Dictionary' is a very valuable addition to our books of reference.

WALKER'S POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Political Economy. [American Science Series.] By Francis A. Walker. Henry Holt & Co.

General Walker departs widely from the traditional methods of elementary books on political economy. His view is that the principles of pure or *à priori* political economy should indeed be traced out and systematized, but less as an end of study for their own sake than to serve as a framework or skeleton on which to impose "the flesh and blood of an actual, vital political economy, which takes account of men and societies as they are, with all their sympathies, apathies, and antipathies." His wide reading and familiarity with industrial affairs supplied him with ample materials for the task of dealing with the subject in this spirit. His book abounds with fact and illustration taken from daily life. It discusses current questions with fearless vigor. Whatever may be thought of General Walker's conclusions, we apprehend that no one who reads his book will be likely to find it lacking in vitality.

That there was need of a fresh statement of the principles of political economy, most students and teachers of the subject are painfully aware. Whether they will accept General Walker's book as suitable and satisfactory for their purposes, we shall not venture to predict. The orthodox school will undoubtedly find much in it to criticise. They will be likely to say that the author does not make the fundamental principles sufficiently prominent, and does not explain with sufficient fulness their play one upon another. They will probably reject the notion of a changeable or "final" utility, and also that conception of wealth which finds in improvements in production a tendency to diminish wealth. They will be likely to say that Mr. Walker gives undue prominence to demand and supply in his law of value, and ascribes far too little importance to cost of production. They will pretty certainly reject his theory of wages and profits. His apparent leaning to the heresy of the bimetallists will not be likely to conciliate their good opinion. And yet, even where they dissent entirely from the doctrine, they will probably find much in his book to stimulate thought and reflection.

The portions of his book on which General Walker would, we suppose, lay most stress, are those portions in which he develops his theory of wages. He rejects with emphasis the so-called wage-fund theory, and all theories which make wages the outcome of any ratio or relation between the amount of capital and the number of laborers. His own view is that production, not capital, is the measure of wages; that every act of productive labor is, in fact, rewarded out of its own product. Rent and the rewards of capital are determinate, being regulated by definite laws; under free competition they cannot exceed their normal amount. Wages alone are indeterminate. They are the residue of production left after paying the fixed charges; they vary, therefore, and vary at once, with every change in the productiveness of industry.

As against some statements of the wage-fund theory, it may be admitted that Mr. Walker has a case. That theory has undoubtedly been stated by some with too much rigidity and narrowness, as if it recognized nothing beyond a purely arithmetical process in the determination of wages. So stated, the theory is easily assailed. Yet we cannot but believe that the wage-fund theory, properly stated, rests on a sure foundation of industrial fact and sound reason; and that General Walker's contribution toward a better understanding of the law of wages, will turn out in the end to be whatever involuntary help he may have given toward a better statement of that theory. So far as may be done in a brief article, we wish to indicate the grounds of this belief.

The wage-fund theory starts with a few simple assumptions which we think no man will controvert. It assumes: (1) that there is in existence a body of wealth, known as circulating capital, which has been saved from past production, and is designed by the owners of it for use in gaining more wealth; (2) that nothing but fresh savings can increase this capital; (3) that high profits stimulate and low profits discourage fresh savings; (4) that the possessors of circulating capital will wish to keep it always employed in making gain.

Now, there is only one way in which circulating capital can be employed so as to make gain. Except to advance wages to laborers and rent to landlords, there is absolutely no room for it in the industrial system. If laborers and landlords always waited for their pay until the consumers of their commodities paid for them, there would be simply no function for circulating capital. The laborers would then, beyond question, be paid for every act of labor in the product of the labor itself, or rather its value; production would then in truth be the measure of wages. In that case, except the landlords

and owners of fixed capital, none but actual laborers would have any claim upon the products of industry. Wages would therefore be higher than at present—higher by the whole amount that now constitutes the gains of circulating capital. True, the gain would be accompanied by great risks for the individual laborer: a fall in the value of his product before it reached the consumer might lower very much, or even destroy entirely, the returns for his labor.

The mere existence of circulating capital is proof positive that laborers do not in fact wait for their rewards until the consumer pays for their products. The question here is one of fact—not what might be, nor what ought to be, but what is. Circulating capital exists, it pervades all industry, and everywhere, under proper management, it brings gain to its possessors. General Walker points to the fact that laborers were formerly hired by the year in this country, and were not paid in full till the end of the year; also to the fact that farm laborers quite commonly wait for their wages till the crop is harvested, or even sold. So far as this implies a real waiting for wages, and not a mere substitution of advances to laborers out of the circulating capital of the butcher, the grocer, and the dry-goods merchant for advances by their actual employers, the fact could not fail to have an important influence on the rate of their wages. We admit freely that all such real waiting has its reward; it leaves less for circulating capital to do. But against the wage-fund theory it proves nothing. Unless laborers wait for their pay until the consumer pays for their products, their pay must come out of capital. There is a vast mass of farm produce in store on both sides of the Atlantic at the present moment. General Walker will scarcely contend that the laborers who produced it are still waiting for their pay. The mere transfer of the supply from one capitalist to another proves nothing. Whence, then, came the wages paid to those laborers? Whence, further, came the wages paid to laborers for producing all the other commodities that are now in warehouses and on the shelves of the dealers all over the country? It is futile to answer that these commodities themselves have been paid to laborers, or that laborers have been paid out of them; for here are the commodities to refute the assertion. Their wages, then, must have come from the saved products of previous labor—in other words, from circulating capital.

Now, the wage-fund theory assumes that the wages so paid to laborers in any given period cannot exceed the total amount available for the purpose. Further, it assumes that, in the ordinary course of things, the whole amount so available is in fact paid to laborers, since that is the only way in which any part of it can be used so as to make gain. But now we must notice a point which has been too frequently overlooked. Circulating capital, as its name implies, is wealth in motion. Much the larger part of it consists of commodities at one stage or another of their long progress from their first condition of crude nature to their final reception as finished products by the consumers. The other part consists of money received from consumers, and is, so to say, on its way back to the labor end of the double chain, to be there converted into commodities again through the agency of labor. There is thus a double movement going on in the circulating capital; it is the result of division of labor and exchange of commodities. Now, obviously, the effect on wages of a given mass of circulating capital will depend not simply on its amount, but also on the rapidity of its circulation. A capital of $1,000 paid out for labor and recovered again from the consumer twice in a year, will act as powerfully on wages as double the amount paid out and recovered only once in a year. Any circumstance, then, that affects the rapidity of circulation of the whole mass of circulating capital cannot be without an effect on wages. Anything that quickens the conversion of commodities into money at the consumer's end, will increase the amount of circulating capital in the form of money that awaits conversion into commodities at the labor end. This increase of money-capital will constitute an increased demand for labor, and wages will tend to rise. Similarly, any obstruction to trade, any increased difficulty in the sale of goods to consumers, will check the rapidity of circulation and tend to depress wages. A law of wages which overlooks this essential quality of circulating capital is no better than a law of prices which should fail to take account of the rapidity of circulation of money.

Secondly, the fact that exchange of commodities is carried on, not by barter, but through the medium of money, is not without an important bearing on the law of wages. The source of profits is undoubtedly, at bottom, the fact that laborers produce more than they consume. But to the employer profits are strictly a money question—a question of receiving more dollars for his commodity than he paid out to laborers for producing it. Anything that disturbs prices disturbs the basis of his operations. A fall of general prices, from whatever cause arising, lessens his margin for making profit—may even destroy it altogether. The wage-fund theory clearly does not imply that, in such a case, the employers must go on paying out money without the prospect of gaining by it, or even with the prospect of loss. On the contrary, it assumes that money-wages must, in such a case, speedily decline. The fall of prices indicates, of itself, a slower conversion of commodity-capital into money-capital. Even if employers had the will to go on paying the old rate of wages, they would presently find themselves unable to continue it. The proportion of their capital locked up in commodities being increased, they have less to offer to laborers. The wage-fund theory was not suggested to account for changes such as this; but there is nothing in such changes at variance with it.

In the opposite case of a rise of prices, the gains of circulating capital will be increased, unless the rise of prices be accompanied by a corresponding rise of money-wages. Would it be so accompanied? The wage-fund theory answers, No, unless previously there was an abnormal accumulation of money-capital waiting for the proper inducement to seek labor. If the old rate of wages was such as to absorb all the circulating capital as quickly as it returned to its possessors, higher wages will not, and cannot, be paid until additional means of payment are forthcoming. Such additional means may be looked for from two sources: (1) a more rapid conversion of commodity-capital into money-capital, through the quickened purchases of consumers; (2) additional savings, attracted by the unusual opportunities for making gain. In either case, and both are probable, wages would tend to rise. Here it is that General Walker's theory and the wage-fund theory are most pointedly at variance. His theory is that in such a case wages must rise at once, without waiting for the increased pressure of money-capital. Employers can afford to pay higher wages, and under free competition they will pay, or will be compelled to pay, higher wages. We confess ourselves at a loss to discover how, in the first place, additional wages *can* be paid before additional means are at hand to pay with; or how, in the second place, competition can accomplish anything in the case. Competition is the great leveller. It will remove inequalities of wages, but it is powerless to raise or to depress the general level of wages. If, indeed, it were open to every penniless upstart to undertake productive enterprises; if laborers could and would really wait to be paid out of product, then we should certainly have a very different state of things. Outsiders could then enter into competition with employers, and, by their added demand for labor, raise wages. But it does not do to forget that, except as against new capital, the possessors of old capital have a strict monopoly. It is futile to speak of what they can afford to do; they will not pay higher wages until they must. But General Walker's view may be that, by their own more urgent competition for the control of labor, they will raise wages. With what motive shall they compete more urgently? To increase production? Clearly not, because to increase production, as production is now carried on, involves the possession of additional plant and materials, and these, by his own assumption, they do not yet possess. If they should increase capital by new savings, or if a more rapid sale of goods to consumers should quicken the circulation of capital, then certainly wages would tend to rise; but that would be a different case from the one under discussion, and would conform to the wage-fund theory. We simply contend that while capital remains unchanged in amount and rapidity of circulation, there can be no rise of wages. The high profits would make men wish to have more circulating capital, or have it return to them more quickly, but would not make them willing to pay higher wages, so long as, at the existing rate, they can reinvest all the circulating capital they have, as quickly as it returns to them.

General Walker finds a serious obstacle to the working of his theory in the fact that wages are always fixed by agreement before production begins. Nothing that happens during or after production can affect the terms of that agreement so far as production has actually gone. The agreement may no doubt be revised, but not so as to apply to the past. Yet he holds that this is but the formal relation of employer and employed. To us it seems the real and final relation in the case. General Walker holds that every mechanical invention, every improvement in production, has the immediate effect of raising wages. We should prefer to say that any improvement which cheapens articles used by the laborers or their families, benefits them quite as effectually as a rise of wages would do. But it is not a rise of wages; such a benefit the laborers share in common with all consumers of the cheapened commodity—they gain, not as laborers, but as purchasers of that commodity. It is difficult to perceive how laborers are to gain by the cheapening of an article that they do *not* purchase.

Finally, General Walker admits—he could not well avoid admitting—that scarcity of capital is attended by a high rate of interest. This is substantially all that the wage-fund theory contends for; in fact, it may be said that it is the wage-fund theory. High interest must, even on General Walker's theory, come out of the products of labor, and leave correspondingly less for the laborers. Wages, then, depend on capital, whether measured by it or not.

The Right and Wrong Uses of the Bible. By Rev. R. Heber Newton. John W. Lovell Co.

It was the opinion of Voltaire that it is not the costly folios, but the thirty-sous books, that serve the purposes of the intellectual reformer. Mr. Newton is evidently of the same opinion, and makes his appeal to the general public in paper covers. There is, again, abundant evidence that he has read the literature of his subject

widely and carefully, but the results at which he has arrived are reproduced with a remarkable freedom from bookishness. A more frequent reference to his technical apparatus would have given a more scholarly appearance to his argument, but it would have been likely to defeat the principal object which he has in view, which is to present a rational doctrine of the Bible in such a form that it will be easily apprehensible by any person of good natural intelligence. To this extent at least he has succeeded. His book is fresh, earnest, hearty; easy to read, and pleasant. However much it may offend the conservative instincts of the majority of Christian people, it cannot be justly charged with the least irreverence. Its enthusiasm for the Bible is its most conspicuous trait. Its most obvious limitations are a certain scrappiness throughout and a remarkable disproportion in the treatment of the Old and New Testaments. "The Power of the Bible is Christ," he tells us, but the amount of space assigned to the New Testament in his seven sermons is insignificant. It is unquestionable, however, that the new readings of the New Testament are quite as significant as the new readings of the Old. The apparent implication of Mr. Newton's sermons is that the Jesus of the New Testament is entirely simple and accessible, which he is not to those who know the ways of the New Testament critics. The unequal and insufficient emphasis which he has given to the New Testament as compared with the Old is doubtless owing to the fact that his later studies have been more especially with the Old Testament scholars. He is under their spell. There is a unity and integrity in their results, an order of development, which the New Testament criticism has not so obviously attained. And so it happens that the impression left by Mr. Newton's sermons is that the Old Testament is much more to him than the New—an impression squarely opposed to his theory of an evolution of religion of which the New Testament is the culmination.

The sermons are seven in number. The first, upon "The Unreal Bible," and the third and fourth, upon "The Wrong Uses of the Bible," are the most clear and definite. The unreal Bible is the "immaculate, infallible, oracular" Bible of the Westminster Confession. Its unreality is shown by such various considerations as that it has little sanction from the Church, as little from the Bible itself; that its growth discredits it; that the theory of it cannot be stated without self-contradiction; that other peoples have held a similar theory concerning other Bibles. The sermon on "The Real Bible" claims for the Bible our natural reverence, because it contains the literature of a noble race, a race preëminently religious, whose literature is as religious as its life, which pressed forward for many centuries, till it realized its ideal in "Christian Israel." The two sermons on "The Wrong Uses of the Bible" should not depend for their acceptance on the entire agreement of the reader with Mr. Newton's critical conclusions. Their considerations are for the most part obviously just, though they are generally disregarded. The sermons on "The Right Critical Use of the Bible" and "The Right Historical Use of the Bible" show that Mr. Newton cordially accepts "the results of the Dutch school," as they are still commonly called, though to-day they are no more characteristic of Kuenen and Oort in Holland than of Reuss and Wellhausen in Germany, Smith and others in Great Britain, Toy and others in the United States. Be it right or wrong, the set of Old Testament criticism is evidently toward this conclusion: that the Prophets, the Law, the Psalms, and not the Law, the Psalms, the Prophets, represent the true order of Israel's religious development.

Mr. Newton's closing sermon, on "The Right Ethical and Spiritual Use of the Bible," is a sufficient answer to the many voices that have charged him with an irreverent assault upon the Holy Scriptures. And yet it may be fairly questioned whether these voices have not a certain logical justification. Mr. Newton would fain believe that rational understanding of the Bible can develop a reverence for it equal to that which it has hitherto enjoyed. With a studious few it may do this. But for the great majority the ethical and spiritual uses which Mr. Newton has set forth are bound up pretty closely with the traditional view of its character. In simple truth, his Bible is the Word of Man, and, as such, it is hardly possible that it should have the influence and authority which has been accorded to it as the Word of God.

The Great Epics of Mediæval Germany. An Outline of their Contents and History. By George Theodore Dippold, of Boston University. Boston: Roberts Bros. 340 pp.

Mr. Dippold's work, though not exhaustive, is a very valuable one. It is an excellent basis of study, and is at the same time of interest to the general reader. In Germany everybody reads the 'Nibelungen Lied,' and to be ignorant of its contents is a disgrace. During the past hundred years a whole army of German scholars have been busy in editing in the original language, in translating and in criticising, commenting and lecturing on, the Nibelung literature. If all the editions of the four prominent versions, the appendages and the fragmentary poems and sagas belonging to the Nibelung cycle, were collected, they would make a large library, and, if to this were added all the translations into modern German, all the commentaries and treatises, and all the dramas and poems based on Nibelung traditions, the result would be a most formidable collection of books. In the English tongue, comparatively little has hitherto been written. We have, of course, very readable essays by such writers as Carlyle and Max Müller. We have metrical and prose translations of the Middle High German version, by Birch (published in London in 1848), by Lettson (1850), and by Auber Forestier (1877); and William Morris has given us both an excellent translation of the most prominent Norse version, and a long original poem based on all the traditions combined and harmonized. But any comprehensive work on this subject the English language did not heretofore contain. We are therefore able to apply a trite phrase to Mr. Dippold's book, and say that it fills a gap in our literature. The author has evidently made a careful study of the German literature pertinent to his theme, and presents in a very convenient form an entertaining synopsis of the contents of the 'Nibelungen Lied,' interspersed with a liberal allowance of spirited metrical translations from the various adventures. To this he has added a tolerably full account of the Northern traditions, with a discussion of their relations to the German version. The mythological elements are pointed out, and the different theories in regard to authorship and historical influences are satisfactorily presented. Much information, also, is imparted in regard to the manuscripts, the metre, the translators, and commentators. In chapter v., which tells of the poetry and art based on Nibelung traditions, Wilhelm Jordan, Morris, Geibel, and Julius Schnorr von Carolsfeld are mentioned, but we miss many important names which ought not to have been omitted.

The work also contains chapters on the charming epic, 'Gudrun,' with outlines of 'Parsifal,' 'Tristan and Isolde,' and 'Iwein,' and an admirable sketch of the development of the Arthur saga and its connection with the legend of the Holy Grail. The author's indebtedness to the leading German scholars in this field of study is fully acknowledged. The mode in which Mr. Dippold has collected and arranged his material deserves especial commendation.

On the Desert. With a Brief Review of Recent Events in Egypt. By Henry M. Field, D.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

Dr. Field's journey for this book was from Suez to Mt. Sinai, and thence northward across the desert to Palestine. As he himself says, "the peninsula of Sinai has been a favorite ground of Biblical explorers." He therefore disclaims any intention of writing more than a few notes of sketches on the desert. Of such notes there has also been no lack, for his route was not only long since described by Murray, but has now a well-established place among Cook's regular tours; so that not only for Biblical experts, but for ordinary travellers, it is familiar ground, of which nothing new can be written except the mere personal experiences of the traveller and the varied thoughts and emotions with which he is inspired by the sight of holy places. Such experiences and such thoughts make up this book. The former are such as accompany any ordinary journey in the East with camels; the latter it is difficult to characterize, for they will be judged entirely according to the bias of the reader and the amount of reverential awe possessed by him. There are certain passages whose diction and tenor command attention, but, on the whole, the book is hardly up to the grade of many of a similar character which have preceded it. The eulogy upon Moses seems to have been written as a defence against the attacks of Ingersoll, and the long disquisition on Hebrew polity would form an interesting lecture before a Bible-class during the Lenten season, but is hardly worthy of an enduring place in permanent literature. The two chapters on recent events in Egypt are not directly connected with the journey, and are not superior to the best correspondence of the daily journals of a few months since. Altogether, the book is one of a numerous class which possess chiefly a personal interest for the friends of the writer on his return from a distant land.

Contested Etymologies in the Dictionary of the Rev. W. W. Skeat. By Hensleigh Wedgwood. London: Trübner & Co.; Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

This is an interesting little book, convenient for original workers in English etymology, and full of appetizing curiosities for amateurs. Mr. Wedgwood is well known as one of the liveliest contributors to early numbers of the "Transactions of the Philological Society," and the author of an etymological dictionary, a second edition of which was published by Macmillan & Co. in 1872. It was full of learning and ingenuity, but the author attempted to use the onomatopoetic theory of the origin of language to explain English words, and that threw doubt on the soundness of the whole work.

It is pleasant to find that Mr. Wedgwood takes objection to no more than about two hundred and twenty-five words in Professor Skeat's dictionary, and that the objection to a large number of these relates merely to some far-off deduction or some supposed connection of thought. *Amerce*, for example, is by both derived from the Latin *merces;* but Mr. Skeat takes the meaning as *reward*—to *reward* for ill-desert being to *fine* or *amerce;* whereas Mr. Wedgwood goes to the secondary meaning, *mercy*, and regards to *amerce* as *to put at the mercy* of the court, and he gives quotations from early authors to show

that to have been the original meaning. Abundant quotations like these from rare sources, and parallel forms and phrases from little-known dialects, give the book its principal value to the scholar. But it is a choice collection of etymological puzzles, with many amusing solutions.

Etyma Græca: An Etymological Lexicon of Classical Greek. By Edward Ross Wharton, M.A. London: Rivingtons. 1882.

THE plan of this little book seems to be a good one. It contains first an alphabetical list of Greek words such as are not palpably formed from some other Greek words, with references in most cases by number to the particular phonetic change illustrated, which is given in the following part; this covers 120 pages with some thirty-five words on a page. The second part, giving the phonetic modifications under the three heads of growth, change, and loss, covers twenty-three pages. Two appendices, one on onomatopoetic words and one on loan-words, complete the book. Of the execution of the plan it is difficult to give a just idea without taking too much space. It is not a book fit for a beginner in Greek or for an ordinary college student; and even an advanced student would find other sources of information necessary on account of the extreme conciseness of treatment. To a conservative etymologist it will appear that the writer knows a great deal more than anybody has a right to know on this subject. Stems which most of us are content to regard as primitive, are here confidently analyzed. Many rare words are given from fragments or grammarians' notices, which often add just so much obscurity instead of throwing light on other words. Any one who will look at the words ζάψ, ζωντεῖον, νῶκαρ, σά, and at ἀγανακτέω, ἄναξ, βλάβη, ἕρκος, ἑταῖρος, θεός, κερτόμιος, σφῶι, will see some of the grounds of this opinion. No one could profitably use the book who did not know already enough to judge independently the value of its statements, but to such a man it might be of some use as a handy little compendium.

The Philosophy of Kant in Extracts. Selected by John Watson, LL.D. Kingston: William Baillie, Printer. 1882.

THIS little manual, prepared for facilitating the study of Kant among his own students, by Prof. Watson, of Kingston, Canada, might well find a more extended use. The clumsy redundancy of Kant's style has always seriously hindered readers from getting at his main drift, and the several attempts to make the path clearer by restating the meaning in orderly sequence, abandoning the form, have not met with much success. Indeed, a book of this sort very properly excites suspicion, the reader being unable to determine what proportions of Kant, and what of alien matter, the mixture contains. Prof. Watson's plan is to print the *ipsissima verba*, but to reduce their number. In 200 pages of judicious extracts he lucidly presents the current of thought which meanders through eight or nine hundred pages of Kant's 'Critiques' of Pure Reason, of Practical Reason, and of Judgment. The translations used are those of Müller, Stirling, Abbott, and, in the case of the 'Critique of Judgment,' Prof. Watson's own. For college use, such a series of extracts has many advantages over the full text. For a first reading, private students will find it convenient; and that it has been done by a competent hand the learning and ability of Prof. Watson's earlier book on 'Kant and his English Critics' are a sufficient warrant.

Der Pessimismus und die Sittenlehre. Von Hugo Sommer, Amtsrichter in Blankenburg am Hartz. Haarlem: De Erven F. Bohn. 1882. Pp. 170.

THIS little volume is a clear and timely exposition of the irreconcilable antagonism between modern pessimism, especially Hartmannism, and every sound and practical theory of conscience. Morals, it is argued, is far less a matter of the intellect, or even of the will, than of the heart. A "feeling of oughtness" arises in us long before the concept of *what* we ought, and survives a very high degree of volitional decay; nor can we will without first feeling the value of the end willed. Conscience, or the instinct of "self-preservation of the higher ego," are only other names for this feeling. In feeling of all kinds, and chiefly in this, is found what is general and common to all as opposed to the individual and accidental found in intellect. The final end is what we *really* are; and although, like all views of the whole, we can have no adequate standard of measurement for it—so that it must remain miraculous and poetical, holy—our chief moral aim is to subordinate everything in us and in nature to it, till it appears to us as it truly is, central, final, supreme. The pessimism of E. von Hartmann is based on a false hypostasization of Force, as Schopenhauer's of Will. Blind, impersonal, alogical, anti-rational though it be, it is yet made central and supreme, so that the final end of the universe is made to appear vain, illusive, and nugatory.

From this it follows that the ethics of pessimism, so often regarded as sublime enough to counteract the absurdity of its metaphysics and psychology, must be rejected as chaotic and false, because opposed to the fundamental supposition upon which alone either conscience or the religious feeling can have any authority. "We must pity, love, and redeem the transcendent suffering of the Unconscious," says Hartmann. "Impossible," replies Sommer, "for, just because it is quite unconscious, it is less capable of exciting pity than the lowest of sensitive organisms, while it is by no means apparent how pity can be made the ground of ethics, either theoretically or practically." The complacency with which Hartmann tells those who differ from him that if their stomachs are better fitted for pork and cabbage than for nectar and ambrosia, it is not his fault, is exceedingly offensive to our author; and yet he quite wrongly declares that evolution and materialism culminate in Hartmannism, when the fact is, that the philosophy of the Unconscious is far more a product of the metaphysical than of the scientific spirit. We are far from convinced of any so radical opposition between the Aristotelian standpoint of Dr. Sommer and that of Hartmann, but commend his book to those interested in a vigorous discussion of the subject.

La Botanique. Par J. L. De Lanessan. Paris: C. Reinwald; New York: F. W. Christern. 561 pp., 12mo.

THE author is Associate Professor of Natural History in the Faculty of Medicine, Paris, and is well known as a careful translator of certain English and German scientific works. He is, moreover, an author of a good treatise on zoölogy and of several papers favorable to Darwinism. From these facts it can be easily believed that this work is characterized, firstly, by the incorporation of a good deal of what forms the subject-matter of the larger English and German treatises on botany; secondly, by a broad grasp of the phenomena common to animals and plants; thirdly, by a decidedly evolutionary cast given to the whole; and lastly, of course, by French clearness. Much of what the author's extensive reading has placed him in possession of is here given without any critical comment whatever, and hence there is a good deal of trash mixed in with what is worth keeping. But it may be said to be trash for which he is not directly responsible, except that he could have left it out. As a whole, the work is convenient, very readable, and up with the times; but a volume so crowded with facts, no matter how well arranged, needs a copious index: this has none.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Practical Hints on Rifle Practice, with Military Arms. Orange Judd Co.

Preble, Rear-Admiral G. H. Chronological History of the Origin and Development of Steam Navigation. 1543-1882. Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.

Price, A. Who is Sylvia? A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Public Health Papers and Reports. Vol. vii. Presented in Savannah in 1881. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.

Racinet, A. Le Costume Historique. Part 15. J. W. Bouton.

Ritter, F. L. The Realm of Tones. Edward Schuberth & Co.

Robeson, H. J. Diagrams of Parliamentary Rules, according to both Cushing and Robert. Ann Arbor, Mich.: John Moore.

Rolf, W. J. The Two Noble Kinsmen, written by Fletcher and Shakespeare. With engravings. Harper & Bros.

Romanes, G. J. Animal Intelligence. D. Appleton & Co. $1 75.

Schönberg, Dr. G. Handbuch der Politischen Oekonomie. 2 vols. Tübingen: H. Laupp; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

Shakspere's Works. Parchment edition. Vol. iv. D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.

Smiles, S. James Nasmyth. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.

Smith, R. B. Life of Lord Lawrence. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $5.

Smith, J. A. (State Geologist). Report of the Development of the Mineral, Metallurgical, Agricultural, Pastoral, and Other Resources of Colorado, for the Years 1881 and 1882. Denver: Chain & Hardy. 35 cents.

Street's Indian and Colonial Mercantile Directory for 1882-3. London: G. Street & Co.; New York: S. M. Pettengill & Co.

Taylor, Helen Louisa. Out of the Way. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1 25.

Zimmern, Helen. The Epic of Kings. Stories Retold from Firdusi. Henry Holt & Co. $2 50.

Zöckler, Prof. O. Handbuch der Theologischen Wissenschaften. 3d half-volume. B. Westermann & Co.

Henry Holt & Co.

HAVE READY:

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Stories Retold from Firdusi. By Helen Zimmern. With a Prefatory Poem by Edmund W. Gosse. 12mo, $2 50.

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Gideon Fleyce.

By H. W. Lucy. 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1. IN LEISURE-MOMENT SERIES (well-made paper, covered boards), 30 cents.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 5, 1883.

The Week.

ACCORDING to reports received from Washington, the President seems to be more interested in the question how he can, under the existing law, prolong the interregnum in the Post-office Department a few weeks longer, than in the far more important question whom he will take into the Cabinet as Postmaster-General. It seems the President has not yet learned the great lesson that in such things procrastination creates embarrassment. Of course the choice for so high a place as the Postmaster-Generalship should not be hastily made. But every day's delay invites more advice and encourages more importunity; and after too long a siege and too much confusion of counsel, it is not unfrequently the poorest kind of advice that is followed. The President might have profited by his experience in the matter of the Custom-house appointments, which were put off till the last moment and then landed him between two chairs.

The removal of General L. S. Trowbridge, the Collector of Internal Revenue at Detroit, Mich., is as gross a violation of the principles of civil-service reform as can well be imagined. It is not alleged that General Trowbridge was deficient in the performance of his duty. There seems to be no pretence that the interest of the service required a change. But Senator Conger demanded it, and the other Republican members of the Michigan delegation put their names to a paper asking for it, for no other reason in the world than that Senator Conger asked for it. They were at the same time so fearful of the political consequences of the removal, considering the general esteem in which General Trowbridge was held, that they all desired it postponed until after the last Congressional and Senatorial elections. It seems to be a flagrant case of Senatorial dictation—just that kind of dictation which the Executive must resist at any cost if a thorough and genuine reform of the service on business principles is to be carried through.

Reports are multiplying in the papers that the leading Stalwarts are turning away from President Arthur because he is not "aggressive" enough, that is to say, because he does not turn out all the Half-Breeds still in office and give the places to working politicians of the Stalwart persuasion. Although this defection is probably not as general as is asserted, yet it is undoubtedly quite considerable. There is, for instance, plenty of evidence of dissatisfaction among the Stalwart politicians in this city. The Custom-house appointments did not satisfy them. While the removal of Colonel Burt delighted them, the appointment of General Graham, who, although in no way a sympathizer with thorough reform, is not an efficient party machinist, did not come up to their wishes. The appointment of Mr. Benedict and Mr. Ketcham was still more disappointing. Thus it turns out that while President Arthur forfeited the confidence of the reform element by the ignoble trick employed to get rid of Mr. Burt, the most exemplary man in the service, he failed to attach to himself the Machine politicians. It has been a matter of speculation, upon whose advice he acted in these cases. At Washington Col. George Bliss is pointed out as the potential counsellor. It requires no prophet to predict that the President, if he continues to follow such mentors, will not have a political friend in the world by the time his administration comes to an end.

Every day or two now there are published civil-service reform views of an extraordinary character emanating from Judge Thoman. The latest is a plan attributed to him, under which there is to be "a standard" fixed by the Commission; and all those who reach it, if they number twenty-five or more, are to be recommended to the appointing power, "but there will be nothing to indicate which of the twenty-five had passed the best examination above the standard." It may be that most of the civil-service oddities ascribed to Judge Thoman are invented, some of them perhaps as feelers by those who want to block the reform at the outset. But it is well to say to all whom it may concern that it is useless now to concoct any little devices for not doing it. The subject has been too thoroughly discussed to make it possible to nullify or evade the law by any sort of imposition or subterfuge. If it is to be done, it will have to be done in brazen and open defiance of public opinion. Judge Thoman probably sees as well as we do that the presentation of candidates in batches of twenty-five or more who had come up to "a standard," would soon be in practice the old pass examination of 1852 over again—that is, a humbug and delusion, with all the old abuses of patronage and political favoritism.

There has been a further improvement in the general aspect of money and business affairs during the week. The weather has been more favorable to business throughout the country, and more encouraging accounts of trade are reported from the West. Merchants are selling more goods and making more satisfactory collections. Statistics of the railway traffic centring in Chicago, for the month of March, show a larger business than was ever known before at this season of the year. Seeding of spring wheat has begun in Nebraska and Dakota, and it is now beyond question that the preparations made last autumn for the planting of spring wheat in all the spring-wheat region of the Northwest were on a much larger scale than ever. In the money market there has been a further progress toward ease. The operations of the Treasury have brought in about $4,000,000 for April interest, with $3,000,000 more of the April interest to come within the next few days, and also $5,000,000 to come on the 4th instant in payment of called bonds. During the week, too, there have been imports of about $1,000,000 in gold, and a considerable amount is still in transit. Foreign exchange has, however, advanced beyond the gold-importing point, and it is therefore not probable that imports will be renewed for the present. Within the past week the domestic exchanges in all parts of the United States (which a week ago were against New York) have turned in favor of this city sufficiently to make a decided movement of currency in this direction probable. The general features of the money market, therefore, point to an abundant supply in New York in May. For several days past there has been manipulation of the supply of money for call loans on the Stock Exchange, and the rates have been bid up every afternoon for the purpose of depressing the prices of stocks; but these artificial rates have no effect on the general money market for mercantile purposes. The stock market has been very dull, though prices have been firm, and have even advanced a little; but there seems more disposition to buy good railroad bonds than stocks. This is especially the case with foreign capital. Money is plenty on the Continent, and there is a good foreign demand for American railway bonds, but none for the shares.

The Merchants' Marine Insurance Company of Baltimore has begun proceedings in the Court of Claims to recover money paid for losses incurred through the depredations of the Confederate privateer *Florida*. This brings up the whole question of the claims of the insurance companies to the Geneva Award in a new form. Although Congress has steadily refused to recognize the validity of the demand, the claimants can recover if they can make out that the United States is bound by anything which the Court will recognize as a "contract" to pay them—the Court of Claims having jurisdiction over all claims of this nature. The United States got the $15,500,000 from Great Britain by presenting, among others, these very insurance claims. They got the insurance companies to send them in, they took them to Geneva and there presented them, and the award unquestionably represents them. Now the insurers say: Does not this put the United States under a contract obligation toward us? If not, what is the relation? To give the Court jurisdiction, it is enough that the contract should be what lawyers call "implied"—*i. e.*, made out from all the circumstances of the case.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* treats Dr. Dix's Lenten lectures, on what it calls "the shocking depravity of the American girl," to a somewhat elaborate examination, as in some sense an authoritative view of the condition of the female portion of American society. His picture certainly is a dreadful one, but its effect is so completely neutralized by its extravagance and exaggeration, and let us add, by its great age, that we have not ourselves thought that it called for serious discussion. As the *Pall Mall Gazette* truly remarks, the sins of which he accuses American women "are not specially Ame-

rican sins. They have characterized some portion of the sex ever since the world began, and they have afforded themes for satirists and preachers in all ages; and a good deal of what Dr. Dix has to say has been said long ago in every country under the broad sky." This is true, and it is also true that Dr. Dix has often before now said the same things himself, for the condition of woman has long been a favorite topic with him. In fact, it is not often that a volume of clerical lectures or sermons appears containing so little new matter. His views of the character and duties of woman do not differ greatly from those set out in the Laws of Manu, which, according to the Hindu theologians, were drafted thirty millions of years ago. They are, in fact, the views by which every step in the elevation of woman, from the beast of burden of the savage to the mistress of the modern drawing-room, has been contested by conservative or timid males, lay and clerical. They are the views by which Mussulman theologians would to-day oppose the appearance of woman unveiled in general society. It would, therefore, seem, without meaning any disrespect to Dr. Dix, a waste of time and space to traverse them. They may have been useful to his congregation, but they contain little food for the world at large.

The reason why they attracted so much attention here was that Dr. Dix, when he delivered his lectures, was a member of the Committee of the Trustees of Columbia College which had under consideration the petition for the admission of girls to participation in the instruction given by the College, and because in his lectures he took upon himself, with what it seems to us his colleagues must have considered some want of discretion, to couple the desire for the mysterious thing called "higher education" with the desire which he ascribed to the young women of the day to escape from the fundamental duties of their sex. He, in fact, took the ground that women who wanted the higher education were either openly and consciously, or secretly and unconsciously, inclined to frivolous views of life, to low views of matrimony, to hostility to the great end of marriage, and to general neglect of home life. From a Lenten preacher of a melancholy turn these insinuations would not have startled people or excited much comment, but coming from a Trustee of Columbia College at that particular juncture, such bold defiance of the soundest, most enlightened, most religious, most conscientious judgment of the day in all lands on the condition and needs of female education naturally made a good deal of stir. It would be a great mistake, however, to suppose that Dr. Dix could produce any such sensation speaking either as a theologian or social philosopher simply.

Some rather clumsy attempts are being made to justify Police Justice Smith in discharging Conkling (who shot his sister's paramour in their rooms in this city a fortnight ago), by citing the Code of Criminal Procedure, which gives the magistrate power to discharge the defendant on the preliminary examination, "if it appear either that a crime has not been committed, or that there is no sufficient cause to believe the defendant guilty thereof." But killing a man by assaulting him is always *prima facie* a crime. The presumption of the law is that it is murder; it is the business of the accused to upset this presumption, and the place to do it is before a jury. All that the Police Justice had to do was to ascertain, therefore, whether Haverstick had been killed by an assault. If it was proved that he had been, then it was obligatory on the Justice to find that a crime had been committed. On the point whether Conkling had committed it, there was no question, for he acknowledged the killing. The notion that killing a man with a deadly weapon is not to be considered a crime till the State succeeds in proving that it was *not* done in self-defence, is doubtless an attractive one for the criminal classes, but we hope it will be long before it obtains recognition in our courts. Pistol-carrying ought to be made a costly and dangerous proceeding under any circumstances. In nine cases out of ten the man who saves his life by the use of a pocket pistol, would never have had his life endangered if he had not had the weapon about him. It not only makes him easily provoked but highly provocative, and often leads him into bad company.

Judge Donohue, of the Supreme Court, has been indulging in the strange performance of laying down the law about the Conkling case, and overruling the District Attorney and Recorder Smyth, in an interview with a newspaper reporter. The rulings were worthy of the occasion. Justice Smith, it seems, had a right to discharge Conkling, because he had a right to ascertain whether a crime had been committed, and homicide is not always crime—*e.g.*, when the Sheriff hangs a prisoner it is homicide, and yet not crime. Our esteemed contemporary the *Herald* supports this with a still more powerful and pat illustration—viz., when a soldier kills a foe in battle it is homicide, and yet not crime. The Judge produced another, which is still more staggering—the case of a man breaking into a house to extinguish a fire, who is to the carnal eye a burglar, but to the spiritual eye of a police justice a saviour of property. This is all very entertaining, but it does not get rid of the fact that killing a man with a deadly weapon is always presumably unlawful, and that its lawfulness has to be extraordinarily plain to justify a police magistrate in recognizing it on his own responsibility. A case where an unarmed man is slain in his own house by an armed visitor is, in any civilized country, a case for a jury to pass upon, and not for a police justice, even if he were far wiser and more learned than Justice Smith pretends to be. If such performances as Justice Smith's were tolerated no homicidal brawl need ever reach either the District Attorney or a jury; or, if the McGlorys and McGloins had a friend in court, ever involve more than a night's detention in prison. The people of this city are, however, not yet prepared for this free-and-easy criminal jurisprudence, in spite of the license enjoyed by the Sheriff in hanging criminals, and by the soldier in killing enemies in battle.

General Butler is altogether too sprightly for so dignified an office as the Governorship of Massachusetts. In a recent veto he upbraided the Legislature for having passed the bill in question carelessly and without due consideration, and, by way of reinforcing his argument, he quoted "the Christian emperors of Rome in the third century as having found it necessary to pass decrees against certain methods of holding land." All these things and some others were very tartly expressed in the Governor's veto message, and flung at the head of the Legislature. But it would have been much better for Governor Butler not to do it, for the Judiciary Committee of the Senate has undertaken to look into this veto message, and in a report dissects it most mercilessly. It shows that while the Governor, contrary to all correct principle and precedent, arrogantly presumes to lecture the Legislature for having carelessly passed a bill, he himself in his veto message has proved by the grossest blunders and misrepresentations that he never knew what was in the bill, and probably had never read it when he vetoed it. But, worse than that, the Judiciary Committee teaches the Governor a most humiliating lesson in ancient history, in this wise: "And your Committee are again pained to report that though Rome had been ruled by nearly a hundred emperors before the close of the third century, no Christian emperor had as yet succeeded to the imperial throne of the Cæsars." The Committee gives free vent to its grief over the disgrace thus brought by the blunders of its Governor upon the ancient Commonwealth of Massachusetts, which "from an imperative sense of duty" it has pointed out, at the same time expressing the hope "that in future messages, if there are to be more, we shall be relieved from the necessity and pain of calling attention to such unaccountable mistakes in a Massachusetts state paper." But, to cap the climax, the Committee reminds the Governor, that "the Commonwealth at great expense has purchased and furnished an extensive library conveniently located next door to the Governor's private room, which might be interpreted as a quiet intimation that she will accept no excuse for mistakes and errors of such a character on the part of those who are from time to time called upon to fill her highest office." Thus General Butler is sent back to his school-books.

Columbia College has awakened, after a slumber of more than a century, to the need of taking the public into its confidence. Regarded as an educator merely, it has not by any means been asleep during recent years. It has bestirred itself with zeal and intelligence, adding to its scope and efficiency a law-school, if not the best in the country, certainly not inferior to any, a school of mines and civil engineering of the highest repute, and a school of political science of the highest promise. In other ways it has made itself felt as a prime factor in the educational forces of the United States. But whether it has been too proud or too modest to make its wants known, it has kept its finances very much to itself, and consequently has not shared in the windfall of bequests and donations which have fallen to other institutions of learning in the United States, or only to

the very smallest extent. In the appeal for additional funds made by the Trustees on Monday it is stated that only two gifts of substantial value have been received by the College since its foundation in 1754—one of $25,000 from Mr. Frederick Gebhard, and another, of uncertain amount, from Mr. Stephen Whitney Phœnix, which will not be available for many years to come. The great property of the College, consisting of up-town city lots, was obtained by a trade with the State Legislature more than forty years ago, the College exchanging for these lots other lands which were a part of its original endowment. Neither the one nor the other of these tracts was then deemed of any considerable value, but the up-town property has now come to yield the large sum of $214,849 in ground rents, free of tax, which is equal to a capital of over $4,000,000 at 5 per cent. Large as this sum looks on paper, it is much less than the needs of the College, if the design is taken up of making it a university akin to those of Germany, where post-graduate education may be had to the highest attainable degree, or even if the present march of improvement is to be followed up. Columbia, therefore, comes before the public, hat in hand, like other colleges, and asks for $4,000,000 to complete its endowment.

Poor Lady Florence Dixie has been going through a process nearly as trying as being stabbed by Fenians—namely, the process of having the attack on her investigated. The first accounts of the assault, including her own in the London papers, have now come out, and they are, in the light of the later discoveries, very amusing reading to the public, though doubtless serious enough to her. In the first place, the assault was at first committed in a secluded and remote plantation. It now appears it was in an open grove, in full view of the road, the sidewalk of which looked down on it from a distance of about nine yards. At first, too, the ground on which the horror took place was scored heavily by the marks of the fearful struggle, some of the tracks being evidently made by "brogues," and everybody knew what kind of people they are who wear "brogues." But now not even the most suspicious and searching gaze has been able to discover a trace of the struggle in the soil. Moreover, the assailants were two tall men dressed in women's clothes, one of them who did the dreadful work being clad in green, and everybody knew to what nationality murderers belong who wear green clothes; but, remarkable as such persons would have been on a much frequented highroad, and in a thickly-peopled neighborhood, not a soul can be found who saw them or anything like them. At first they escaped for certain in a yellow dog-cart, which was seen driving past about that time, but the man who drove it has appeared. He was a groom taking his wife to visit her sister. And then a gardener, a soldier, a woman, a hotel-keeper, who were all near the spot when the crime was committed, and in full view of it, say they saw and heard nothing. The dog, too, a huge Newfoundland, fails to show a single scratch, and, worse than all, so does Lady Florence, although she says "the man who bent over me with a dagger had an awful look of determination stamped on his face. His features were livid, and his white teeth firmly clinched." To work himself up in this way simply to cut a lady's corsets was a ridiculous thing, even for an Irish assassin. To crown her misfortunes, there now appears a "gentleman from Eton, in a high position, and deposes that he saw Lady Florence Dixie the whole time she was standing on the spot where the alleged outrage was committed, and saw her walk away without anybody accosting her."

The revelations which the Spanish courts and police are making about the operations of the secret society called the Black Hand, in Andalusia, show that it far surpasses, in power and extent, anything which the anarchical movement has produced either in France or Russia or Ireland. The province appears to have been honeycombed with secret societies acting under a central head, and executing its orders with blind obedience. These orders involved every variety of crime, such as murder, assault, house-burning, the destruction of vineyards, and the mutilation of cattle. Obnoxious persons, such as landlords, bailiffs, shopkeepers, tavernkeepers, or others suspected of giving information to the police, were tried at the monthly meetings of the League, and, if condemned, the task of murdering them or burning their houses was formally committed, as in Ireland, to a committee of the initiated. Nor does the membership appear to have been confined to one class of society. The 360 prisoners who were recently brought into Xeres by the police were not only of all ages, but included small landholders as well as simple peasants, and smugglers, and escaped or discharged criminals. The sending of threatening letters to landlords and employers, as well as to judges and police officers, appears to have been, as in Ireland, a part of the regular business of the malcontents.

Opinions vary as to whether the Black Hand has any connection with the International or other foreign Anarchists. There are Socialist organizations among the workingmen in many of the large towns in Spain, but there does not appear to be any good reason for believing that either they or the foreign societies have done much to propagate their ideas among the peasantry. Some of their documents have been found in the hands of members of the Black Hand, and some of the prisoners talk Collectivism, and Anarchism, and Nihilism, but apparently without having got hold of the true inwardness of these movements. The better opinion is that the Black Hand is a purely agrarian and purely Andalusian movement, without any inspiration from the outside. The Andalusians are very ignorant and superstitious, and very suspicious of everything foreign, and therefore very unlikely to offer a good field to agents of the International, although, of course, the chiefs of the International are eager enough to claim the operations of the Black Hand as a fresh illustration of their power, just as O'Donovan Rossa likes to claim all the Irish outrages as his doing. There are plenty of reasons, too, in the condition of the province for believing these disorders to be of purely local origin. The land is held almost exclusively in very large estates, the owners of which live in Madrid or other cities, and manage their property through agents or factors. The cultivation of the soil carried on under these conditions is of the most wretched description. The laborers employed on it are poorly paid, so poorly as to get even in good times a bare subsistence, and the farmers are not much better off. For several years back the crops have been ruined by drought, reducing a large part of the country population to absolute want. Under the patriarchal or feudal constitution of society, it was the custom in the province, when such crises occurred, for the landlords to take care of the poor, and although they did not take very good care, they took enough to prevent wild discontent. Of late years, however, the rich have felt themselves absolved from this duty by the growing power of the Government and the importation of foreign ideas. They have had less and less to do with the peasantry, and, when this last dearth came, left them to take care of themselves.

The Lords Justices of Appeal in England have decided probably the most curious club case that ever came before a court. Two brothers of Mr. Chamberlain, the President of the Board of Trade, were blackballed at the Reform Club, to the great disgust of Mr. Bright, the Marquis of Hartington, and other prominent Liberals, who thereupon attempted to get the constitution of the club amended, so as to substitute admission by the committee for election by the ballots of all the members. This was defeated, however, and the Messrs. Chamberlain ascribed its defeat to a story reflecting on their character, set afloat by a member of the club named Boyd. They therefore sued him, and he demurred, on the ground that the damage he had done them, if any, was too remote to be appreciable, inasmuch as what he had deprived them of, if anything, was the chance of being admitted to the club in case a certain change in the constitution was effected, which is something which could not be estimated by a jury. The Court sustained the demurrer. The damage was even more indirect than any that was alleged in the *Alabama* case.

The legal newspapers in London have been recording a new attempt on the part of the courts to resort to practical tests of the truth of testimony, such as created so much interest in the case of Belt against Lawes. In that lawsuit a sculptor was allowed to model in court, to show what kind of a sculptor he was. In the last case two German firms were disputing the exclusive right in certain patents for improvements in the production of coloring matter suitable for dyeing and printing. Experts swore that a certain combination of chemicals was dangerous to life, and the Judge allowed an experiment to be made to see whether this was true. The result was such that the Judge, counsel, witnesses, and bystanders fled for their lives; but as they all escaped, the test cannot be regarded as conclusive. There seem to be limits to the utility of evidence of this sort.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, March 28, to TUESDAY, April 3, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

MUNICIPAL elections were held in many Western towns on Monday. Cincinnati elected a Democratic Mayor by about 1,700 majority. The Republicans elected some of the minor officers. Dayton went Democratic, and Cleveland elected a Mayor of the same party by nearly 4,000 majority. In Toledo the Republicans elected a Mayor by 83 majority, and the Democrats many of the other officers. In Dubuque, Iowa, the entire Democratic ticket was elected. In Chicago the election for Mayor on Tuesday resulted in a majority of about 10,000 for Carter Harrison, the Democratic candidate and present incumbent. This is an increased majority.

The President on Friday appointed Mr. E. O. Graves to be Assistant Treasurer of the United States, to fill the place of Mr. A. U. Wyman, promoted to be Treasurer. The latter took formal possession of the Treasury on Monday. A committee was appointed to count the funds, and on Tuesday it was announced that there was an overplus of one cent in cash.

President Arthur, his private secretary, Mr. Chandler, Secretary of the Navy, and several other friends will start in a few days for an island in one of the Florida rivers, where they will spend a short vacation in fishing.

Secretary Folger is so much improved in health that his friends think he will be able soon to start on a voyage to the Bermudas. On Friday he appointed as Chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing Captain T. M. Burrill, of Penn Yan, N. Y., who for four years has been the Purchasing Agent of the Bureau.

During the month of March the reduction of the public debt was $9,344,826 27.

An act passed by Congress at its last session, to prevent the importation of adulterated teas, authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to appoint an Examiner of Teas, at an annual salary of $2,500. James R. Daves has been appointed to the place by Secretary Folger. Mr. Daves is a well-known member of the Republican Machine of this city. He was for many years engaged in the tea business, in which he is regarded as an expert.

The Acting Secretary of the Treasury has decided that the rate of duty, as between the old and the new tariff, is to be fixed by the date of the arrival of the importing vessel at the exterior port of entry; and that goods imported before the new act takes effect and shipped to Western ports under the Immediate Transportation Act will be dutiable under the present tariff, unless they remain in public store or bonded warehouse when the act goes into operation.

Judge Lawrence, First Comptroller of the Treasury, has decided that Congressman Ochiltree, of Texas, is entitled to his regular salary, notwithstanding the fact that the Government holds a judgment against him for $6,890. The decision is made on the ground that the Constitution imperatively orders that a Congressman shall receive compensation as fixed by law. As regards Territorial delegates, their salary may be withheld for judgments, because the office is not created by the Constitution.

Postmaster-General Howe's funeral took place at Kenosha, Wis., on Wednesday. The services were exceedingly simple. The Rev. Robert Collyer made an address. At Green Bay, Wis., on Thursday, the body was interred.

The Naval Advisory Board appointed—pursuant to act of Congress—for the purpose of investigating and reporting if, in their judgment, it be advisable to close up or sell any of the existing Navy-yards, will, it is said, report in favor of equipping the League Island Yard with all the plant and machinery necessary for the construction of iron and steel ships.

The *Jeannette* Court of Inquiry reconvened on Friday in Washington, and examined the three seamen of that expedition who have recently returned from Siberia. They all said they had no complaints to make against the officers of the expedition, and awarded high praise to Lieutenant Danenhower. That officer has just been granted a year's leave of absence. Another session of the Court was held on Tuesday, at which it was announced that the charges of Dr. Collins would probably be investigated.

Ex-President Diaz, of Mexico, and party, visited Mount Vernon on Thursday with a distinguished party of Government officials. In the evening he was entertained at the Mexican legation in Washington. On Friday morning he came to New York, where he will remain for some time.

Ex-Representative Butterworth, of Ohio, has been appointed a Government Commissioner for the Northern Pacific Railroad.

In the Star-route trial the most important event of the week was the continuation of Dorsey's testimony. On Wednesday he testified in regard to the Clendenning letter, in which that postmaster was cautioned not to allow certain prominent mail contractors to know of his (Dorsey's) request for the approval of the bonds. This he explained by saying that he feared they might knowingly underbid for the service. General denials were made of nearly all of Moore's and many of Rerdell's statements in regard to witness. On Thursday Dorsey emphatically denied that he had ever given a check for $2,000 to J. B. Belford, of Colorado, or told Rerdell to charge a check for that or any other amount to J. B. B., upon the books. The cross-examination on Friday disclosed nothing new, the witness taking every opportunity to deliver an evasive answer.

The eighteenth week of the trial was begun on Monday. The defence refused to produce certain letter-press copybooks. The Court decided that in the present case the notice for the production of the books was confined to strictly secondary evidence—letter-press copies—and even if more specific, the other side could not be called upon to produce it. Dorsey's cross-examination was concluded on Tuesday.

Judge J. B. Bissell, of Colorado, insists that he received a $2,000 check from Dorsey, notwithstanding the latter's denial, and asserts that it was paid as the result of a game of poker. This is supposed to be the famous "J. B. B." check testified about by Rerdell.

Ex-Senator Kellogg is very indignant that the Grand Jury have found indictments against him on the new Star-route cases. He asserts that Walsh's stories originate entirely in an attempt to blackmail. Brady's counsel make light of the new indictments.

Serious Indian troubles have broken out in southeastern Arizona. Twenty-one people have been murdered there in seven days. There are also dangerous bands in New Mexico, which have committed outrages.

The Rev. Jonathan Blanchard, President of Wheaton College, in Illinois, in preaching a funeral sermon in Washington, on Sunday, over the body of a young man who in life had been a prominent member of the Grand Army of the Republic, the Knights of Pythias, and the Independent Order of Mechanics, made some remarks denunciatory of secret societies. The sister of the dead man became excited, and fainted. Her husband asked the preacher to desist, but he would not until requested by the father of the dead man. The societies were present at the services.

N. L. Dukes has declined to accept his seat in the Pennsylvania House of Representatives, owing to the intense feeling against him, and it has been declared vacant by the Speaker and a new election ordered.

At Albany the Democrats of the Legislature are seriously at variance on questions pertaining to prison management. In the Senate this class of bills has been obstructed by Democratic votes, and in the Assembly there is no prospect of harmony in respect to them. On Wednesday there was a lively discussion of a proposed amendment to the code, allowing fishing on Sunday in New York Bay and contiguous waters. The Assembly refused, by a vote of 50 to 47, to order the bill to a third reading so amended, and it went back to the Committee of the Whole. The Niagara Falls Park Bill was adversely reported in the Senate. This report was disagreed to, and by a vote of 20 to 11 the bill was committed to the Committee of the Whole. A long debate on the resolution proposing a prohibitory liquor amendment to the Constitution then took place in Committee of the Whole. On Thursday the Senate passed the bill to repeal the act of 1881 for the removal of the Forty-second Street Reservoir in New York city. After two hours' debate on Friday, the Assembly passed the bill regulating the charges of grain elevators, by a vote of 79 to 30. It was favorably reported in the Senate on the same day.

The Senate on Tuesday passed the Political Assessment Bill, after amending it so that it prohibits the giving of money or any valuable thing "for appointment or election to, or retention in, office," instead of "for any political object whatever," which was the original reading. The bill now goes back to the Assembly.

Governor Cleveland on Friday signed the Capitol Commission Bill, and nominated for the Commissioner Isaac G. Perry, of Binghamton. The nomination was a surprise to the politicians of both parties. Mr. Perry is said to be a competent architect, and was not an applicant for the position. He is a Democrat, but is endorsed by leading men of both parties as thoroughly fitted for the place. It is said that he will soon assume the duties of his position, and that there is no intention of changing the architecture. Some poorly-supported charges have been made against Mr. Perry by party factions.

A special committee of the Board of Trustees of Columbia College presented a report to the full Board on Monday in regard to the financial needs of the institution. They recommended that steps be taken to thoroughly equip the College for higher and complete instruction, equal to that of the foreign universities. President Barnard said that an additional endowment of $4,000,000 would be necessary to give to Columbia the character of a well-equipped university. The report of the committee was adopted.

The Grand Jury for the March term of the Court of General Sessions in this city on Friday presented an indictment against George W. Conkling, jr., charging him with manslaughter in the first degree in shooting Wilbur H. Haverstick. It will be remembered that he was recently discharged by Justice Smith. The prisoner was admitted to bail in the sum of $5,000.

Salmi Morse gave a so-called private rehearsal of the Passion Play in this city on Friday evening. The building was crowded.

Frank Byrne, recently arrested in Paris on suspicion of being concerned in the Dublin assassinations, but discharged from custody by the French Government, arrived in this city on Wednesday. He was Secretary of the National Land League of Great Britain up to March 17.

A resolution providing for biennial elections of State officers and biennial sessions of the Legislature was passed by the Massachusetts House on Wednesday, and Senate on Tuesday.

A report has been made by the Judiciary Committee of the Massachusetts Senate upon

Governor Butler's veto of the Somerville Land Company Bill. In his message the Governor took both branches sharply to task for careless legislation. The report criticises with equal severity the Governor's action, terming it "undignified and unbecoming," and calling attention to many errors and blunders which the message contained.

Conductor E. L. Hosley, of the New Haven and Northampton Railroad, was found guilty of manslaughter in the Superior Court at Greenfield, Mass., on Thursday, for disobeying orders and causing a collision on the State Road last September, in which three persons were killed and others wounded.

By a displaced rail on the Cincinnati Southern Railroad, a train was thrown down a high embankment on Friday, and sixty persons were seriously injured.

The Supreme Court of Illinois, the full bench assenting, has filed its opinion declaring in substance that the Pullman Palace Car Company and like corporations are common carriers, placing them in the same category as railroad companies.

The bill fixing saloon licenses in the State at $500 a year has passed its second reading in the Illinois Legislature.

Lewis L. Delafield, a well-known lawyer of this city, died on Wednesday morning, in the forty-ninth year of his age. He was one of the founders of the Bar Association, and was prominent as counsel of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

General A. B. Buford died in Chicago on Wednesday night, at the age of seventy-six. He was a graduate of West Point, and was a distinguished officer of volunteers during the civil war. At its close he was brevetted Major-General of Volunteers for gallant and meritorious conduct during the Rebellion.

FOREIGN.

A man named Dennis Deasy, who carried a box containing explosives and infernal machines, and a railway porter named Patrick Flanagan, supposed to be his accomplice, were arrested at Liverpool on Thursday. They had just arrived from Cork. They were arraigned on Saturday. At the examination it was put in evidence that a letter was found upon the person of Dennis Deasy commending him to the other conspirator, Patrick Flanagan, as a person who might be intrusted with any post of duty. At Flanagan's lodgings a variety of explosives were discovered, besides a revolver, a false beard, and other equipments for dynamite war and for disguise. The most interesting evidence given during the examination was that of expert scientific witnesses, who testified that the explosive material in question was known as "lignine dynamite," an article that could not by any possibility be connected with commercial or business transactions, and which was not made for any legitimate purpose.

An American named Featherstone and a Parnellite named O'Herlihy were arrested at Cork on Thursday charged with conspiracy to murder. Carmody, a plasterer, was also arrested. It is supposed that Deasy, arrested at Liverpool, gave the information. The Liverpool police were informed that the arrests prevented the destruction of public buildings, with a possible great loss of life. On Friday morning the three men under arrest at Cork were arraigned for being members of a secret society, the object of which was to commit murders wherever it was believed that such a course would advance the interests of their organization, and to blow up buildings in the principal cities of the British Isles. Upon a preliminary examination bail was refused, it being strongly intimated by counsel for the prosecution that a number of witnesses were ready to testify in support of the charges.

The police of Cork have reason to believe that an infernal-machine manufactory has been established in that locality. On Monday it was announced that the British War Office had taken the question of explosives in hand vigorously, and had ordered that experiments be undertaken with a view to preparing an analysis of the various forms and component parts of all substances that are capable of being employed as explosives. The knowledge thus gained will be given to the police. Measures have also been taken to guard buildings in London, and especially the gas-works.

A letter, purporting to be from Fenians, is in possession of the London police, threatening to blow up the Central Telegraph office in that city unless the men charged with the Phœnix Park murders are at once released. The passage which underlies the London residence of Mr. Gladstone is now closed at sunset, as a precaution against Irish plots.

An anonymous letter has been published in London which asserts that the Fenians are engaged in sending packages containing linen infected with smallpox to persons who are obnoxious to the Irish National party.

Judge Lawson sentenced twelve of the convicted members of the Armagh, Ireland, Assassination Society on Wednesday to terms of penal servitude varying from five to ten years.

The police inquiry into the alleged attack upon Lady Florence Dixie has so far been futile. A gentleman from Eton, of high position, has deposed that he saw Lady Florence Dixie the whole time she was standing on the spot where the alleged outrage was committed, and saw her walk away without anybody accosting her.

It is said that Minister Lowell will not intercede in the case of Michael Boyton, recently rearrested in Ireland, as it has previously been proved that he is not an American citizen.

One hundred and fifty persons have left the Island of Achill, County of Mayo, on the west coast of Ireland, and sailed for America. They were driven from their homes by famine.

Mr. Parnell has received a letter from William Redmond saying that his work of organizing the Land Leaguers in Australia is succeeding far beyond his expectations.

The Vatican is displeased with Archbishop Croke, of Cashel, Ireland, for opening a subscription list for the relief of Mr. Parnell.

During a debate in the House of Commons on Monday Mr. Parnell urged that further executions in Ireland should be suspended until the Court of Criminal Appeal had been established and put in operation.

The returns for the financial year ending March 31 show that the revenue of Great Britain was £89,004,000 and the total expenditures £89,086,000.

Queen Victoria is rapidly recovering the use of her knee, but she will not quit Windsor Castle for Osborne until the end of this week.

John Brown, the personal attendant of Queen Victoria for many years, died at Windsor Castle on Wednesday. He was the favorite Scotch gillie of the Prince Consort in the early years of his marriage.

The Most Rev. Edward W. Benson was enthroned as Archbishop of Canterbury, England, at that place, on Thursday, with appropriate ceremonies.

Louise Michel permitted herself to be arrested in Paris on Friday rather than subject her mother to any further annoyance from the police. The specific charge brought against her was that she had entered bakers' shops at the head of an armed band and had plundered them of their contents.

Prince Napoleon's manifesto was again posted in Paris on Friday, but was immediately removed by the police.

The French Minister of the Interior and the Minister of Justice have signed a contract with the Crédit Foncier, by which the latter engages to build dwellings to alleviate the crisis caused in Paris by high rents.

M. Léon Say, speaking at Lyons, France, last week, advocated the opening of fresh outlets for commerce, which he said would be of more advantage to France than protection.

Count de Lesseps asserts that his recent explorations make it plain that the inland sea in the Desert of Sahara is practicable, and that it can be accomplished by using 100 excavating machines equal in their aggregate capacity to the labor of 100,000 men.

By a boiler explosion at St.-Dizier, France, on Sunday, thirty-five persons were killed and sixty-five injured, many of them fatally.

The recent speech of Signor Mancini, Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, in the Chamber of Deputies, in regard to the existing relations between Italy, Germany, and Austria, is believed to refer to a defensive triple alliance against France, with whom all agreed to endeavor to maintain friendship. On Tuesday it was officially denied in Rome that such an alliance existed, but it is believed that a similar agreement exists in an informal shape.

The fourth centennial of the birth of Raphael was celebrated at Rome with great pomp on Wednesday.

The Vatican, it is said, is inclined to facilitate a settlement with Prussia, and a Cardinal who is regarded by the latter as a hindrance is soon to leave Rome.

It is officially announced that the Emperor William of Germany has virtually recovered his usual health. Prince Bismarck is suffering with neuralgia.

There was a brilliant celebration in Berlin, on Sunday, of the sixty-eighth birthday anniversary of Prince Bismarck. The Emperor William visited him in person.

It is currently reported in Hamburg that Bismarck intends to revive the Prussian State Council, by which all bills proposed by the Government must be passed before they are introduced into Parliament. This is regarded as a reactionary measure.

German artists have petitioned their Government to intercede with the United States regarding the increased tariff on works of art.

The Spanish Government has consented to the release of Castillo and Rodriguez, the Cuban refugees, owing to the request of Great Britain. Maceo, the other refugee, will still be held in confinement, but will be leniently treated.

Count von Majláth von Szekhély, President of the Court of Cassation, was found murdered at his residence at Ofen, Hungary, on Thursday. He had been strangled, and his tongue had been cut out. The house had been robbed. A hussar stationed near was arrested on suspicion. It is known that he has been holding secret relations with two persons in no way connected with the Count's household.

The St. Petersburg Prefect of Police has unearthed a band of Nihilists at their rendezvous in that city. When the police attempted to capture them a stubborn fight ensued. Three officers were wounded, and one Nihilist, rather than submit to be captured, committed suicide. The eight remaining conspirators were arrested. One hundred and forty-four pounds of dynamite were found.

A secret report was recently presented to the Sultan, in which it is charged that several of the Turkish Ministers and high officers of the Government had entered into an arrangement by which they were to receive bribes in connection with the collection of the tobacco taxes. The Ministers accused tendered their resignations, but the Sultan refused to accept them.

The message of the Mexican President, sent to that Congress on Monday, announces that the Guatemala question is definitively settled. He will present the draft of a commercial treaty with the United States to the Senate for ratification when he deems that the proper time has arrived.

AN ENGLISH DREAM OF "AMERICANIZATION."

THE Rev. F. Barham Zincke is an English clergyman and "Chaplain in Ordinary" to the Queen, who travelled a good deal in this country some ten years ago, and showed himself a careful and competent observer. He has since been a prominent and able advocate in the English reviews of peasant proprietorship in land, and a warm opponent of landlordism and the social system based upon it in England, which, he agrees with Matthew Arnold in thinking, "has materialized the upper, vulgarized the middle, and brutalized the lower classes."

He has now published in pamphlet form a paper which, he says, he prepared two years ago, and which is the first formal attempt we have seen from an English pen to give expression to the speculations in which so many Englishmen are secretly indulging, as to the probable effect on the world, within the next century, of the continued growth at its present rate of the English-speaking democracy, or "Englishry," as he prefers to call it. He calculates that by 1980 the United States will contain a population of 800,000,000; Canada, 64,000,000; Australia, 48,000,000; South Africa, 16,000,000; and the United Kingdom 70,000,000—in all about 1,000,000,000 of English-speaking men, living under substantially the same institutions, and cherishing the same social and political ideals. Of course the 800,000,000 which he assigns to the United States will not be confined to the American Union as it now is. They will overflow into Canada at the north, and into Mexico at the south, and occupy it, and also Guatemala, Colombia, Bolivia, and Peru, and will afterward pour into the valley of the Amazon, and spread along the whole range of the Andes, and into the islands of the Pacific, across which they will join hands with their kindred in New Zealand and Australia. More than this, they will flow back into England and take their places, under the new land régime in that country, among the restored yeomanry to which their forefathers belonged, and which will again become, landlordism having disappeared, the foremost class in English society. In like manner the English settlements in South Africa, which are now essentially American in their manners and ideas, will spread over Southern Africa, pushing the native tribes back toward the Equator, and for the first time in history opening "the dark continent" to civilization, and placing its enormous resources at the disposal of the most advanced portion of the human race. When all this is accomplished, it may be said that one thousand millions of the flower of the species will have taken possession of and be living happily on the most favored portion of the globe.

What kind of society will it be which this "Englishry" will establish? What will be its social and moral standards, its notions about life and death and judgment, things present and things to come? There's the rub. Census and customs "returns" are great and wonderful things, in which the eye of the modern man delights, but they tell only a very small part of a nation's story after all. That must be sought in its manners and ideas. What kind of manners and ideas, then, will these one thousand millions have? That their manners and ideas will be fundamentally the same throughout, Mr. Barham Zincke assumes, although he maintains that difference of climate and soil will produce enough variety to prevent that dull and dreary monotony which the enemies of democracy are fond of predicting as the consequence of its triumph. He thinks the American farmer will furnish the type of the new society, and we must quote his own account of the general result:

"Among these thousand millions there will be none without any civilization at all; none with an incapacity for getting beyond a low state of civilization; none whose civilization suffered an early and permanent arrest; no savages, no serfs, no slaves; not many drones or Sybarites. They will be 1,000,000,000 who will not only be able to read and write, but also be disposed to turn these instruments of knowledge to excellent account. They will have homes of their own, and property enough of the very best and most educative kind—that is, in land—to yield to their intelligent industry sufficient means of support. They will have no social or political superiors, and therefore will manage themselves their own affairs. Society, and legislation, and the administration of affairs will be to them, as nature intended them to be, most effective means of education. Nor will there be among them any considerable percentage who have received, or are receiving, or who are looking forward to receive, a pauper's maintenance, and who therefore are intellectually useless and morally injurious to society. The lives of the vast majority of them, that will be spent in the cultivation of their own land with their own hands, will be in harmony with nature; and that not on the hard terms of the European peasant, but in the well-provided fashion of the open-handed American farmer. It will then be clear to every one's apprehension that it is not merely the faculty of speech and the formation of the hand that constitute a man, but in addition the possession of a portion of this earth, the common inheritance of all, at least for a home upon it of his own, if not more or less for his support; and that men are not so truly men as mere drudges when they are obliged to spend their lives without ever attaining to homes of their own—the home being the chiefest of Nature's humanizers; and in cultivating other people's land without hope—life without hope being death in life. The settlement in this fashion of vast continents will, indeed, be a moral renewal of the face of the earth. It will even give a new aspect to man's relations to the unseen world. It will be the bringing in of a new dispensation, of a new earth, and of a new heaven."

Morality, Mr. Zincke thinks, will in this society have a tremendous force, because there will be only one morality for all, and not as now a separate morality for each class, and it will be supported by the opinion of all. The conscience of the community will be a power such as has hitherto been unknown in the world. Women will play a larger part in the work of society than they have ever done. No pursuits will be favored by endowments or bounties, so that none of the talent of the community will be diverted into useless or false channels. It will stand constantly waiting for the real and natural demands on it. The competition between nations will be intellectual, not military, competition; and the human intellect will be under a stimulation such as has never before acted on it. The applause and admiration of 1,000,000,000 will rouse the faculties of the capable to their very highest efforts. Oratory, painting, sculpture, and architecture will grow under it as never before, and poetry will certainly be as needful as ever to satisfy the cravings of a society which has substituted freedom, increased knowledge, and improved morality for slavery, semi-slavery, poverty, and social injustice. Money will be in greater use and the precious metals have a higher value than ever. Religion, too, will have as strong a hold as ever on the human heart, for what is religion but knowledge organized for the regulation of conduct? At the head of this mighty community the United States will stand morally though not politically. The President of the United States will be its foremost man; "the predominant power" will be the press; and "none will have so wide and deep an influence as great writers and great speakers, who will be reported by the press."

The dream seems in places a wild one, but we doubt if any one can read it without, when he lays it down, finding it very hard to furnish a good reason for doubting it.

THE MARKET FOR ACCUSATORY FICTION.

THE case of Lady Florence Dixie is interesting as a fresh illustration of the certainty with which strong popular hostility to or suspicion of a class produces trumped-up charges against it. The law of demand and supply seems to work in this field almost as effectively as in the market for commodities. As soon as the popular readiness to believe discreditable stories about somebody shows itself unmistakably, men and women step forward with the stories all ready made and adapted to every taste. When Titus Oates, who has now become the typical informer of history, began his career in the seventeenth century, it was suggested to him by the popular distrust of the Catholics, and the popular fear that the Court was "going over to Rome." His first tale, that the Jesuits were going to kill the King and abolish the Protestant Church, did not take, but he was not discouraged. He knew that the demand existed, and that all he had to do was to try new styles in his goods till he hit the popular taste. So he enlarged and improved his story, and when the magistrate who issued warrants on it was found dead one morning, Oates's fortune was made. The whole kingdom was in a blaze, and he found that he could not make his accounts of the designs of the Papists too hot or strong. He received a large salary and free lodgings, and went on amending and embellishing his news every day. Several persons were convicted and one peer was executed on his testimony before the public got sick of him, and yet he had been all his life a man of notoriously bad character, and had been expelled from the ministry for perjury before he took up the trade of an informer.

The witch craze in New England not long after was another exemplification of the efficacy of popular credulity in producing false testimony. There was a crowd of witnesses—many, if not most of them, respectable people—to the doings of the witches; and, what is more extraordinary, the popular demand for witch stories acted so powerfully on some women that they confessed that they were witches, and that they practised the black art on their neighbors. And this was not in the dark ages: the New England witches were contemporaries of Isaac Newton and John Locke.

We had phenomena of somewhat the same

character here during the reconstruction period at the South. The popular mind at the North was very much excited about the condition of the negroes and the ill-treatment to which they were exposed at the hands of the whites. There was a good deal of foundation for this feeling in the Ku-klux movement and in the resistance of the whites everywhere to the appearance of the blacks in the political arena. But as soon as the Northern readiness to believe stories of outrages was well ascertained, a regular manufactory of them seems to have sprung up at the South. They came on by the dozen, especially during political campaigns, and at last began to lose all semblance of probability. One political club of colored men in Mississippi finally issued an address, in which they asserted that it was not uncommon to see long rows of colored people, including pregnant women, hanging to trees by the roadside in certain parts of the South, and one Southern correspondent of a morning paper in this city mentioned gravely, as a piece of news, that Christmas Day and the Fourth of July were every year set apart by Southern young men for shooting negroes.

Mr. Harrison, who has been writing very interesting and instructive articles in the *Atlantic Monthly* on the condition of Southern society, reports a visit to one of the concoctors of these tales living in Alabama at present. He acknowledged laughingly that his were mostly fictions, but justified them on the ground that they gave Northern people a fair idea of the state of things at the South. Titus Oates would have justified, and probably did justify, his inventions in the same way. Even if not true, they gave Englishmen a good idea of the kind of people the Papists and the Jesuits were, and of the kind of designs of which they were capable.

In like manner, when colored cadets began to find their way into West Point, and encountered there also the color prejudice which existed everywhere else in the country, the public mind was much impressed by the hardship it must entail on a colored youth when shut up, in close contact at every hour of his day, with whites who despised him. There accordingly grew up rapidly a feeling of strong hostility to West Point, and to every white person in it, from the Commandant down, and a corresponding readiness to believe anything that might be told of the capacity of the officers and cadets in the matter of arrogance, cruelty, and unfairness. This state of feeling had not lasted very long before Cadet Whittaker produced a justification for it in the extraordinary story—so like Lady Florence Dixie's—of his being set upon, cut, and bound; and he had proved such an excellent judge of his market that, in the teeth of glaring improbabilities of all sorts in his tale, it took two elaborate and prolonged and expensive inquiries to spoil his wares. He, however, was far more adroit than Lady Florence, because he lay in his swoon till he was found. She foolishly recovered from it alone, and walked home. He cut his ears, too, in a liberal and manly way, while she, womanlike, was afraid to let the knife touch her skin. The failure in both cases shows, however, the value of the press at times of popular excitement. Titus Oates's stories could not have survived a week the criticism which, doubtless, scores of writers even at that day could have given them, had they had any means of reaching the public.

NATIONALITY STRIFES IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Never since the creation of the dual system on which Austria-Hungary rests have the wranglings of the various nationalities of the Empire with each other been so constant and so acrimonious as now. In the Eastern or Transleithan division the mob fury which lately raged against the Jews has largely subsided, owing to strenuous interference and unequivocal declarations on the part of the Government of M. Tisza; and race contention is now mainly confined to the Transylvanian field, where the Saxons feel themselves sorely aggrieved by the school legislation of the Hungarian Parliament, aiming at a gradual Magyarization of all the educational institutions. The Magyars are undaunted in their resolution, and though the Minister of Education, Tréfort, a man of European and chiefly German culture, offers concessions and works for conciliation, the cause of the Germans of the formerly autonomous "Saxonland" seems to be doomed to utter defeat, in spite of the vehement protests and calls for interference raised in their favor in Germany. The Hungarian Government knows well enough that Bismarck is averse to sentimentalism in international affairs, and that he will be as little tempted to deviate from his line of policy toward his ally, Hungary, on account of her lording it over an isolated German "Stamm," as he is to interfere in favor of his less isolated and more grievously oppressed German brethren in the Baltic provinces of Russia. And the spokesmen of the "national" cause at the Parliament of Buda-Pesth have long outgrown the habits of moderation which the leadership of such statesmen as Eötvös or Deák once taught them. The arguments of the defenders of the legal rights of the Transylvanian Saxons remain unheeded, and the accusations of tyranny hurled against the Magyar race from Germany are answered with scorn.

It is, however, chiefly Cisleithania, with its incongruous mass of semi-autonomous provinces, which presents a distressing picture of dissension and strife. Of the central power which once ruled these provinces—in the times of Metternich, Bach, or Schmerling—not a trace remains. Centrifugal tendencies rule the hour. The Federalists have a majority in the Reichsrath, and the administration of Count Taaffe is supported by a coalition based on common, though heterogeneous, hostility to the nationality to which the capital and the court belong—the German. The German party, whose motto was liberal constitutionalism, has been demoralized and almost disintegrated by bad defeats and worse blunders. A vehement pro-Germanism, a Pangermanic patriotism, has taken hold of a portion of the party in the capital. Its manifestations culminated, a few days ago, on occasion of a Wagner celebration, in violent and indecent brawls, in a score of duels with advocates of Austrian principles, and in riotous demonstrations bordering on treason. Bohemia and Moravia are distracted by the old feud between Czechs and Germans, and the recent dissolution of the venerable University of Prague into two rival institutions—one Czechic and one Germanic—which was a triumph of the Slavic party, has, instead of removing animosity, only envenomed it by stimulating the Czechs to further imperious demands in the same direction. Their example and the manifest inclination of the Cisleithan Government, arising from the necessities of its situation and composition, to yield to their demands, embolden the Slovenes of Carniola and Carinthia to press demands of a similar character with turbulent vehemence, while the Dalmatians are conspiring with Croats, Herzegovinians, and Montenegrins for the creation of a Slav realm of the South, and a part of the Triestines are mourning the death of Oberdank, who paid with his life for an attempt to blow up the "Austrian tyrant" of *Italia irredenta*.

More virulent, perhaps, than anywhere else is the strife in the Cisleithan province of Galicia, between Poles and Ruthenes, who, though equally branches of the Slavic race, are divided both nationally and denominationally, the former belonging to the Roman Catholic and the latter to the United Greek persuasion. Both in regard to race and religion the Ruthenes—whose brethren in Russia are known as Malorussians, or Little-Russians—occupy a middle ground between the Catholic Poles and the Orthodox Greek Muscovites, or Great-Russians. As long as Polish patriotism in Galicia was deemed a danger to the integrity of Austria, the organs of the Vienna Government did all in their power to stir up in the rural districts of the eastern half of the province, where the Ruthenes have their seats, sentiments of tribal opposition to the Poles, who predominate in the western half and, through the higher classes, rule the cities. Russia soon availed herself of the nascent dissensions, and, through her tools among the clergy and with the help of secret associations, began an active propaganda among the masses for her own ulterior purposes. This has been kept up till now. But the radical change in the organism and tendencies of Austria wrought by the compromise with Hungary in 1867 has made the Poles masters of the situation in the northeastern province, and they are working with might and main for the permanent establishment and extension of their predominance. On this battleground Polish patriotism and Jesuitism are in a fierce grapple with Panslavism and the organization of St. George. Nihilism tries to glide into both camps, and Dragomanoff, the exiled chief of the "Ukrainophil" party, now in Switzerland, openly works for a reconciliation of Ruthenes and Poles, with the object of revolutionizing all Southern Russia and establishing a Malorussian republic side by side with a Polish.

WASHINGTON IRVING.

Irving's centenary has produced few attempts to estimate critically the strength of the foundations on which his literary fame rests. That he was in his day a very popular writer is a fact that cannot be disputed, any more than can the fact that interest in him has greatly

waned since his death. But this change of itself proves little. The same thing may be said of the reputation of Scott, of Cooper, of Byron, even of so recently famous a writer as Dickens. In Byron's case, the generation now on the stage has witnessed two changes of opinion—one to his disadvantage, and a second, within a few years, toward the rehabilitation of his fame. It is impossible to say how long a period the world will take, in the case of any given writer, to make up its mind as to the permanent position it is willing to accord him; but a hundred years is probably too short a time, and neither in Irving's case nor in that of his rivals or successors is it safe to assume that our present estimate of them will be confirmed by those who come after us.

There is no doubt that the feeling about Irving in this country is still, to a certain extent, affected by considerations which will, as time goes on, lose their influence altogether. He was one of the first of a little band of writers who redeemed this country from the reproach of being without a literature. When he appeared on the scene there was not only no literary class in America, but hardly a belief that the country could produce any. The United States had emancipated itself from English control in politics, but mentally it was still provincial. Cooper, when he began to write, was considered to have done a very sensible thing in taking the materials of his first novel from English society, of which he knew absolutely nothing, and his subsequent innovation of drawing upon America was viewed at first with alarm and distrust by his friends. At the same time it was certain that, could a literature be produced, it would, as the politicians say, be "hailed with delight" by the nascent patriotism of the country. This was Irving's opportunity. His success, when it came, was immense, because he proved to everybody's satisfaction that there really could be American authors.

But Irving did something more than this. He showed, in a certain sense, that there could be such a thing as a New York author—that the local legends and traditions could be used in literature. There were not many of them, but certainly Irving turned them to good account. The history of New York has been for the most part the prosaic and material history of a commercial capital. In our own day we are fond of reproaching it for its materialism; but at the beginning of this century it was far more open to the charge than it is now. Irving himself could do nothing with its history but make a burlesque of it; but in the Hudson and its half-mythical, half-historical associations he found material for the exercise of his imagination and fancy. If the Hudson is to us something more than a mere waterway and convenient natural agency for "moving the crops to tide-water"; if the Catskills are something more than a good place for establishing summer hotels, it is to Irving that the fact is due. If there is a touch of poetry, or romance, or human interest, about the background of New York, a mellow suggestion of myth and superstition, a legendary halo that soothes the sight tortured by the flaring, garish noon of our materialism, it is Irving who put it there. To the world at large, it may make very little difference whether the sketches of which Rip Van Winkle and the legend of Sleepy Hollow are the best remembered, were or were not added to literature; but to a community as scantily supplied with literature as ours, it ought to make a good deal.

Irving's reputation, so far as it rests on this, ought to be entirely discriminated from his repute as an essayist and historical writer. In the latter fields it is quite clear that he had no originality, and that his friends and admirers, had they desired to make sure that oblivion should overtake his fame, could not have set about it in a better way than by holding him up as an American Addison. Irving lived at a time when the old imitative theory of style prevailed, and led young writers to "form" themselves upon acknowledged masters. Franklin, if we remember right, mentions in his autobiography that he prepared himself to communicate with the public in this way. In Irving's case it is difficult to make out how much his similarity to Addison is the result of conscious imitation and how much of inborn literary sympathy. In our day we have pushed the natural theory of style—the theory that it must be a growth, and not a manufactured product—to the opposite extreme, so that our grandfathers' and grandmothers' habit of praising new writers as they appeared for their resemblance to classics strikes us as little less than ludicrous. Possibly we have gone too far. Perhaps we have fostered originality in expression to an excess, as they fostered imitation, until we have confused the grotesque with the original, and given vogue to writers whose chief claim to attention is not what they say, but their saying things in such a queer way.

Irving offended his neighbors and friends by turning into burlesque the Dutch annals of New York; but for this, too, New York owes him a debt of gratitude, for if the city was to redeem itself from the provincialism of its early days and become a great capital, it was absolutely necessary that it should learn to get a proper perspective for its past. Ridicule is the only test by which we get the true measure of the unimportance to the world at large of local celebrity. We are accustomed now to a humorous view of New York, of its society, of its government, of its literature, of its art. It does not offend us, because we are so secure in our position. The Knickerbocker tradition is fair game for all the world. But Irving was a pioneer in this field. The New York of his day was a small provincial town, which thought itself a city, and to make fun of it was a bold thing to do. Irving perceived that the thin stream of provincial history was very slender capital for self-glorification, and refused to connive at the attempt to make grand historical figures out of the phlegmatic, hard-fisted Dutch founders. In this respect he may be regarded as the father of a long line of American humorists who have persisted in exhibiting the reverse of the heroic view of American history and tradition to our generation.

THE RESTORATION OF ST. MARK'S.

FLORENCE, February 22, 1883.

I AM sorry to see Mr. Russell Sturgis joining in the outcry about the recent restoration of St. Mark's, as, in his letter in No. 919 of the *Nation*, he has done.

I went to Venice at the time of a former outcry, some years ago, on this matter, with my mind quite prepared, from what I had seen in the scraping and restoring of the Duomo here, to join in it, and scarify in the columns of the journal I represented the perpetrators of the barbarisms I believed were also being committed at Venice. But before going to work I made the acquaintance of the architect and told him I had come to investigate the charges made against him. He gave me his time, his plans, his personal attendance, his old photographs of the parts restored; he went with me to the cathedral, into the mosaic shops, and never left me until I was satisfied that I knew substantially the merits of the whole question, and he expressed sincere and cordial gratitude for the opportunity I had given him to contradict in the leading English journal the statements made in England about his work. I found him full of the most fervent reverence for the building he had charge of, and utterly removed from any idea that it could be other than injured by the best restoration. He had passed his whole life in the service of St. Mark's—his brother had been the architect before him; and he now for thirty years had been practically responsible for all the reparations. He had a touching regard for every stone which had ever formed part of the church. Such a man is not justly to be identified with the "modern engineer or architect, brought up and taught in the Italy of 1830 to 1860, to whom Palladio was a demigod."

The condition of St. Mark's is not to be measured by that of any other building in the world. It is literally built on mud, and is still slowly sinking into the mud—sinking as a mass and some parts sinking more rapidly than others, so that the piers at the side of the central doorway have gone down twenty or more centimetres more than other parts originally on the same level. In the centre of the church and beneath it is the foundation of the first church, a portion of which, forming the crypt, has been walled in and cemented so that it can resist the pressure of the water which flows and ebbs through the other portion, the sea actually coming up under the central dome of the church. The piers of this subterranean church were probably demolished to the original level of the floor of the actual church; and as the enormous mass of the modern structure goes down into the mud more rapidly than the older, slighter structure, these piers, on which the present floor rests at points, are pushing up the pavement in places, causing those undulations which fanciful people thought were meant to imitate the waves of the sea.

That no adequate foundation for the church was ever prepared may be judged from the fact that the southwest pavilion, which Mr. Sturgis says has been rebuilt, had as a basis piles six feet long, with three feet of loose rubble laid on them as the only preparation for the masonry. As this is the only part of the substructure which has been renewed, we cannot tell how far this example illustrates the whole structure. The material of the church is a very bad friable brick, of which I saw and handled samples which were rubbed easily into dust by the fingers. This was in many places split and opening to the weather—an enormous crack had opened along the vault of the southern aisle, menacing the fall of the whole southern wall, and, although repaired to the best of engineering ability, may still be seen widening slowly over the southern

inner doorway. The outer wall of the Treasury, which bears on its face the façade toward the lagoon, was split within from east to west its whole length through the brickwork, and was gradually approaching a fall, inevitably bringing down as mere débris the entire façade, including the now reconstructed pavilion, and removing the support of the southern wall of the church proper, which is buttressed by the wall of the Treasury, as is that by the southwest pavilion; and the fall of one would, in all probability, have brought down the other. If *then* the piers of the nave would have been competent to bear the new strain and push of the vault of the nave, the domes, and the roof, we cannot say; if not, the nave followed, and all that would have remained standing of the church would have been the north aisle, the wall of which was reconstructed by the Austrians before the present architect had charge of the building. I do not say that the southern aisle *would* have followed the Treasury, or that the nave would have followed that. The latter consequence was possible and the former was most probable, as the great cleft shows any one who will look for it; but the southern wall of the Treasury was doomed, and might have fallen any moment, with whatever effect might be caused by the removal of all external support from the southern wall of the church. The southwest pavilion, which serves as a sort of flying buttress to that corner of the church, was cracked and sinking as the northwest is now, the latter only being kept together by such a number of bolts and iron braces that the disfigurement is very serious.

The marble veneering, which was only about an inch to two inches thick, was so far disintegrated by the sea-damp and frosts that it was in places reduced to a crumbling, amorphous sheet which came off to the touch, and the whole was only kept in place by bolts and hooks and rivets of iron, which in their turn were rusting away with the salt air; and I myself saw large pieces in the portions now under repair which came off in my hand at the least pressure. This veneering was a mere shell of fragments kept there by all sorts of devices until the very wall had to come down. There are plenty of pieces of the veneering still *in situ* which will illustrate what I say, and which, if necessarily removed to-day, would not bear the process of removal without so crumbling that their replacement would be impossible. Moreover, this south façade, being most exposed to the sea, was most attacked. When it was decided to renew the brickwork of this wall every piece of external marble which would hold together was carefully put away—the veneering was necessarily condemned. When the masonry was opened, it was found that the builders had used to fill up and bind the central portions of the piers, etc., quantities of fire-wood, which answered as strengthening material for a time, but became dust finally and left a void.

The brickwork reconstructed, every fragment of the ornamentation of the façade and pavilion, every piece of sculptured stone, with the exception of one or two of the minor capitals in the upper tier, was replaced, one of them being in seven pieces and requiring to be held together by bolts to be kept in its place. Every column went back to its place, only the sea side being turned inward to show the side which had not suffered from the damp so much. Not one piece of sculptured stone (except the small capitals mentioned) has been lost, rejected, or left out of its original place. To prove this it is only necessary to examine the stones as I did, and compare the photograph of the façade before the restoration with that made since. Mr. Sturgis says that "none of the numerous commentators upon these restorations have denied the haste and recklessness of the demolition." I declare, confident in my ability to maintain it to any fair-minded body of men who will look into the evidence shown me, that nothing better than was done could have been done—*with one exception*. In this sinking process of the church, the cornice of the portico façade (front of the church) had taken a wavy line which was curious and told the story of the church—going down by slow degrees into the mud which had been the foundation and greatness of Venice. There was a pathetic motion indicated by this wavy line which need not have been corrected, and the architect brought it into line as far as he restored, and so broke this curved front, so bad architecturally, but so picturesque and pathetic that I should like to have preserved it.

Mr. Sturgis intimates that a change has taken place in the direction, and that in future a different course will be followed from that which he has condemned; but I am assured, on the contrary, that the plans for the restoration of the whole portico façade were prepared years ago, are still approved by the authorities responsible, and will be followed out exactly to the end, as they really were made, on the basis of doing what was necessary to prevent what is worse even than restoration, and only doing it as it became necessary. The repairs of the south flank became imperative to prevent the building falling; those on the southernmost doorway of the front were made in my own knowledge, and the veneer of marble was in some places so broken and disintegrated that there was no process by which it could be restored to its place. The under brickwork was decayed away from the columns, leaving them in some places detached, and they had for years been kept up by balks and braces of timber and iron, more disfiguring to the church than repairs. As I have said of the south flank, so of the doorway—every fragment of sculptured work was preserved and carefully restored to its exact place; the columns not repolished, but merely turned round. As for the thin slabs of veneer (absolutely the only new material visible), they could not be replaced, nor could they be always renewed in the same kind, for where the original was in verde antique the nearest approach to it that could be found was the Genoa green, the locality of the verde-antique quarries being now unknown; the Venetian supplies were taken from ancient temples. When, as in the gray marble, the material is Italian, it has been renewed with the same, no possible pains to replace the old by a similar new material having been spared. In short, I found that there was no foundation for a single one of the terrible accounts of barbarism and neglect which were told me by outsiders, antiquaries, and artists, who hate the restorations because they look new—as if any method existed, except that of time, of harmonizing new stone with old. One antiquary, indeed, had a process of rubbing all the new marbles with lead to provoke a more rapid discoloration.

But the gravest part of Mr. Sturgis's charge—viz., that concerning the mosaics—I am in a position to contradict by the evidence of my own eyes, for I saw the restorations being made. The facts are these. The wall of the Treasury was in many places cracked and cracking, the fissures extending with the settling of the masonry. At all these fissures the humidity attacked the "mastic" which held the cubes of mosaic in their places, so that there was a disintegration going on of the whole work, slowly extending from every fissure; and this had been going on for years, the floor being at any time covered with the little cubes which dropped down. So long as the decay on the walls was going on, it was manifestly useless to fill up the crevices in the mosaic; but once the walls had been so repaired that no further cracking was to be feared, the mosaics were put under repair. Careful tracings were made of every portion attacked, and these were used in the preparation of colored drawings in which the cubes of glass were all reproduced with a care which was absolutely unsurpassable. These memoranda prepared, the cement was cut away as far as it was decomposed and endangered the fall of the cubes, and then the cracks were filled up and the mosaic restored according to the drawings, as far as these went; but there were many vacant places in these drawings, due to the destruction of the mosaic along the cracks and the space created by the cracks themselves. These had to be filled up in the only possible way, by the judgment of the most experienced mosaic workers following the adjoining work. Not one fragment of the work which was firm on the wall was touched, and many people, unable to perceive that there has been any alteration, abuse the whole as an entire restoration. I certainly, standing on the platform by the side of the workmen, could scarcely find the line between the old and the repairs in many places. Compare this, which I give as my own direct testimony, with the reports which Mr. Sturgis heard and says "all agree to"—viz., "that the mosaics of these two apartments (Zeno Chapel and Bapistery), both walls and vaults, were torn down with pick-axes and without attempts to preserve even parts of them." The floor of the church, again, with its billowy insecurity to the visitor, although beyond question the result of a bad construction, is left undisturbed; but the portion of the flooring of the south aisle nearest the transept was in utter decay, the cubes loosened or worn out, and the pattern quite gone and indistinguishable. The restorers, therefore, took up the corresponding portion on the north aisle, without any change whatever, carried it bodily over to the south side, and relaid it, replacing it on the north side by a new copy of the old as close as possible to the original, but made of cubes five times as deep.

At least in one instance, Mr. Sturgis says, sections of mouldings have been changed, "as if the old work had been plucked down and carted off, etc." This must, I imagine, apply to the only change made in the south side—*i. e.*, in the little easternmost window. The change here was made back to the original moulding, of which traces remain in the window which had been altered in the sixteenth century. The tomb which stood in the middle of this wall was a late and ugly one, and of no importance, so it was simply left out in the restoration. What was there originally, there is nothing to show.

I have written at great length; but I should not be a friend of justice if I did not bear my most energetic and prompt testimony in favor of the authorities in charge of St. Mark's, who deserve all credit for their work, and their reverent manner of doing what we all regret the necessity of having done. W. J. Stillman.

P. S.—The present restorations have lately brought to light the fact that repairs are not merely the work of our time. An inscription brought from Crete, and relating to the alliance of two chief Cretan cities, which was known and incorrectly transcribed 200 years ago and then lost to all search, has just been found built into the façade of the portico.

Correspondence.

THE REASON WHY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You say that you cannot make any other explanation of B. F. Butler's election than that of a political debauch on the part of the people of the State. As I am jealous of the

reputation of the people of Massachusetts, and believe that when any considerable number of them agree upon a thing, they have a reason for it, I desire, with your permission, to state what I believe to be the reason in this case.

The political history of Massachusetts, like that of every other State and city in the Union, turns upon a process by which the Legislature has reduced the Executive to insignificance. In Massachusetts it has surrounded him with a council without whose permission he can hardly go out of doors. It has deprived him of all share in directing the government, except a simple aye or no as to whatever the Legislature may put before him. It has made all the chief executive officers separately elective by the people, and thus wholly independent of the Governor and of each other. But as administration in this way is wholly impossible, the Legislature proceeded to set up a secondary executive in the shape of a number of commissions, still independent of each other, whose policy and pay are provided by the Legislature, the nomination of the members being left to the Governor, so that the appearance of responsibility may rest upon him. These commissions work absolutely in the dark, the public hardly knowing their names; and of course that which is unknown easily becomes an object of suspicion.

In this state of things, the Republican party nominated Mr. Bishop, a man of the highest character, but whose name had no more meaning for the State than a text of Sanscrit. With such a candidate, and no policy, enthusiasm in the ranks was hardly to be expected. On the other side appeared a man who declared this government by commissions to be all wrong, and that if he was elected he would set it right. Grant, if you please, that 90,000 Democrats voted for him partly from discipline, and partly because he is a vulgar blackguard, and 20,000 Republicans because they longed for some change from the meaningless monotony of recent years, yet he was really elected by the large number of Republicans who, while they would not vote for him, were yet so disgusted with the empty farce which had been called politics that they refrained from voting at all.

Governor Butler has so far kept his promises that he has got into a violent quarrel with the Legislature, conducted in his peculiar manner. With a cynical defiance of opinion, he leaves his post and goes off to try cases at Washington. It seems as if his downfall were certain. But there is another danger to be reckoned with. Our people are apparently unable to understand that the world always has been, and always will be, governed by *men*. You cannot arouse enthusiasm in multitudes about measures which involve complex details, but you can do so about men. And so, while the virtuous are proceeding solemnly with their "platforms" and their "theory of our institutions," the rascals lay hold of human nature by setting up men. The remedy lies in appealing to the better part of the country on behalf of legitimate power and responsibility in individuals, and stronger administration. The logical and inevitable outcome of this legislative anarchy, unless corrected, is civil war—not immediately or suddenly, but by slow gradations of faction and disintegration. The election of Butler is an unmistakable symptom, and if he and his fellows are keen enough to follow up the scent they have struck, it may become a very serious one. G. B.

Boston, March 31, 1883.

WHITTIER AND CLAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a notice of Kennedy's 'Whittier,' in the *Nation* of March 15, you speak of "such characteristic and, in the main, such beautiful and elevated poems as those preserving the traits of Mr. Whittier's contemporaries—the Calhoun, Webster, Silas Wright, Garrison, Follen, Channing, Shipley, Pierpont, Leggett, Storrs, Torrey, Neall, of the earlier period; the Sumner, . . . Joseph Sturge, of the later." How is it that the name of Clay does not appear in this galaxy? Is it because the highly (some would say extravagantly) laudatory sentiments of the poem "preserving the traits" of the Western statesman contrast so strangely with the wail of the poet, sixteen years later, over the "dead fame" of his Eastern contemporary?

"So fallen, so lost," begins the latter.

> "Not fallen: no, as soon the tall
> And pillared Alleghanies fall,"

is the indignant outburst of the former against the exultation of a political antagonist over the fall, never to rise again (so he thought it), of the Whig leader in the conflict of 1832. And, further on:

> "Star of the West, a million eyes
> Are turning gladly unto him;
> The shrine of old idolatries
> Before his kindling light grows dim."

I am not sure of the adverb in the second line, for I quote from memory; it may have been *fondly* or *proudly*. I found the whole poem, while sojourning in Illinois in 1841, in a stray copy of a Chicago newspaper, in which it was represented as written of Benton! Returning to the East the following year, I called on the poet, whose acquaintance I had had the pleasure of making the year before, while temporarily in charge of St. James's Church, Amesbury, and asked him about it. He said, as I had no doubt he would, that it was written of Clay; but, he added, "the sentiments are not my present ones." Even at that early period he had cast in his lot with Garrison and the handful of doctrinaires that sided with him. Garrison himself had had a similar experience: witness the lines addressed by him (see Cheever's 'Common-Place Book of American Poetry') to Senator Frelinghuysen some years earlier, winding up with

> "How could we bear resignedly thy loss?"

E. J. Stearns.

Faulkland, Del., March 28, 1883.

BYRON AND THE CHORAGIC MONUMENT OF LYSIKRATES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The reviewer of Boetticher's 'Olympia,' in your issue of March 15, accuses his author of making a slip "when he speaks of the choragic monument of Lysikrates, a windowless building some six feet in diameter, as having been Lord Byron's 'Wohnzimmer' when he was in Athens." I do not know Boetticher's authority for the statement, unless it be the familiar tradition at Athens, where many remember the monument as it appeared when built into the southeast angle of a French Capuchin monastery, now destroyed; but in Dodwell's 'Classical and Topographical Tour through Greece,' opposite page 289 of vol. i., a steel engraving of the habitable room formed by the monument, as it appeared at the time of Dodwell's stay (1805), will be found. In the text he says:

"The choragic monument of Lysikrates, which is partly immured in the southeast angle of the convent, is so well known, and has been so fully described by Stuart, that little can be added to what has been already published upon that subject. . . . The upper part of this monument is hollow, and contains a space of nearly six feet diameter, which is at present the library of the superior of the convent. . . . I was assured by the superior that during the dilapidating mania in 1801 proposals had been made to him and to the Voivode for the purchase of the entire monument, which was to have been conveyed to a northern country, and that it owes its present existence to the protection which it derived from its position within the precincts of the monastery."

The cut shows the prior at his desk in the interior of the alcove room formed by the monument, which is accessible by an open doorway in its side, and lighted by a window in its street-wall.

In Nichol's 'Byron,' page 64, the poet is rather vaguely said, in 1811, to have "studied Romaic in a Franciscan monastery." His own 'Hints from Horace' is dated "Athens, Capuchin Convent, March 12th, 1811."

Alfred Emerson.

Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, March 23, 1883.

IRISH AND GAELIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On reading a review of the 'Imperial Dictionary,' in your number for March 29, I was reminded, from its repetition in the "Imperial," of a curious philological error which appears in "Webster" and "Worcester." Your reviewer quotes a certain definition from the "Imperial," containing, among other etymologies, this one: "Ir. and Gael. *apa*." Here "Ir." evidently stands for "Irish," so that a person not knowing better would be led to suppose that there is an "Irish" language *and* a "Gaelic" language. Bayard Taylor also, describing a trip from Belfast to Glasgow, evidently distinguished two languages when he mentioned Scotch deck-hands as talking "Gaelic," and on the same page referred to Irish harvest-hands as talking "Irish." The mistake is common enough, but it ought not to occur in a dictionary that professes to trace etymologies. I am not a Celt, yet I cannot help a feeling of astonishment that such vague or erroneous notions of the language that once held sway over all the West of Europe should prevail among people interested even to a slight degree in philological studies.

Now, the fact is, this so-called "Irish" is Gaelic *par excellence;* it is the purest form of Gaelic. It is true that a phonetic system of spelling was adopted in Scotland in the last century to take the place of the ancient, but more cumbrous, system to which the Irish still adhere; and it is also true that the Scotch, and the Irish too, have some unimportant dialectical variations of their own. But the language of the Celts of Ireland and Scotland is one language substantially, *when spoken*, and that language is *Gaoidhilg*—phonetically written, *Gaelic*. If the makers of these dictionaries, who apparently have no acquaintance with Gaelic in any form, must distinguish, where practically there is no distinction, why not distinguish as "Irish-Gaelic" and "Scotch-Gaelic"?

T. F. Galwey.

New York, March 30, 1883.

[The following extract from Mr. Skeat's "Brief Notes" upon the languages cited in his 'Etymological Dictionary of the English Language' contains the necessary comment on the above: "'Celtic' is merely a general term, and in itself means nothing definite, just as 'Teutonic' and 'Romance' are general terms. To prove that a word is Celtic, we must first show that the word is borrowed from *one of the Celtic languages, as Irish, Gaelic, Welsh, Cornish, or Breton*," etc.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

FIVE years ago Messrs. R. M. Johnston and Wm. Hand Browne published, through J. B. Lippincott & Co., an authorized life of the late (then living) Alexander H. Stephens. For this they are now preparing a supplementary chapter to cover the close of Mr. Stephens's career, and they call the public's attention to the fact that other biographies, announced since his death, must inevitably be of a kind which he strenuously deprecated.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready 'Stories from English History,' by Louise Creighton, with quaint illustrations from old prints, frescoes, etc.

The following are the principal spring announcements of the Boston publishers: *J. R. Osgood & Co.*:—A 'Life of H. W. Longfellow,' by his brother, the Rev. Samuel Longfellow; a 'Life of Nathaniel Hawthorne,' by Julian Hawthorne; Mrs. Burnett's 'Through One Administration,' and Mrs. Mary Hallock Foote's 'The Led Horse Claim.' *Houghton, Mifflin & Co.*:—A 'Life of Daniel Webster,' by Henry Cabot Lodge, in the "American Statesmen" series; a large-paper edition of Emerson's works, from new electrotype plates; a new edition of the poems of Jones Very; 'Ten Great Religions,' Part 2, by the Rev. James Freeman Clarke; 'The Freedom of Faith,' by the Rev. T. T. Munger; 'The Quaker Invasion of Massachusetts,' by Richard P. Hallowell; 'From Ponkapog to Pesth,' by T. B. Aldrich; and 'But Yet a Woman,' by Prof. A. S. Hardy, of Dartmouth College. *Lee & Shepard*:—'Travels and Observations in the Orient,' by ex-Gov. Walter Harriman, of New Hampshire; a 'Life of Longfellow,' by Dr. G. L. Austin and John Owen; and the second and concluding volume of Dr. Coues's 'Bird Life.' *D. Lothrop & Co.*:—'The Imagination, and Other Essays,' by George Macdonald. *Roberts Bros.*:—'Living English Poets'; 'Thirlwall's Letters to a Friend,' with additions to the English collection; and 'Early Christianity,' being the first part of a work entitled 'Christian History in its Three Great Periods,' by the Rev. Joseph Henry Allen. *S. E. Cassino & Co.*:—'The History and Uses of Limestones and Marbles,' by S. W. Burnham; a 'Handbook of Entomology,' by Prof. Charles V. Riley; a 'Manual of Taxidermy, for Beginners,' by C. J. Maynard; 'Letters of Indian Travel,' by Prof. Ernst Haeckel; and 'Oliver Wendell Holmes as Poet and Scientist,' by Wm. Sloane Kennedy.

The New York announcements are as follows: *Robert Carter & Bros.*:—A 'Life of Robert Moffat,' the African Missionary, father-in-law of Dr. Livingstone. *T. Y. Crowell & Co.*:—A 'Dictionary of Poetical Quotations,' based on H. G. Bohn's. *Dodd, Mead & Co.*:—'Selections from the Poetry of Robert Browning,' with an introduction by Richard Grant White. *Fords, Howard & Hulbert*:—'Books and How to Use Them,' by John C. Van Dyke; 'The Housekeeper's Year-book,' by Helen Campbell; and Judge Tourgée's 'Hot Ploughshares.' *Henry Holt & Co.*:—A 'History of the United States,' by Alexander Johnston; 'Outlines of the Constitutional History of the United States,' by L. H. Porter; Paul Lacombe's 'History of France,' of which we have had but a poor translation hitherto; E. A. Freeman's 'Impressions of America'; 'Early Law and Customs,' by Sir H. S. Maine; 'The Human Body,' by Prof. H. H. Martin; 'Botany,' by Prof. George Maclerkie, and a briefer work on the same subject by C. E. Bessey; 'Folk Etymology,' by the Rev. A. Smythe Palmer—a dictionary of verbal corruptions and perversions of words; Jean Paul Richter's 'Invisible Lodge,' translated by the Rev. C. T. Brooks; 'Classic Mythology,' by Prof. C. Witt, and 'What Shall We Act?' by M. E. James. *W. R. Jenkins*:—'Le Voyage de M. Perrichon,' by MM. Labiche and Martin, being the first of a "Théâtre Contemporain," selected from the best modern French plays, and guaranteed fit for school use or general reading. *Macmillan & Co.*:—'Some of Æsop's Fables, with Modern Instances,' designed by Randolph Caldecott; a 'Life of G. F. Handel,' by W. S. Rockstro; 'Philip and James van Artevelde,' by W. J. Ashley; 'Caucasian Experiences,' by Yuz Bashi; and 'Investigations in Currency and Finance,' and 'Methods of Social Reform, and Other Essays,' both by the late W. S. Jevons. *Scribner & Welford*:—'Memoirs of the Court and Family of Napoleon,' by Mme. Junot; 'Mexico To-day,' by T. U. Brocklehurst, and 'People I Have Met,' by E. C. Grenville-Murray.

To the foregoing should be added: *Warren F. Draper* (Andover, Mass.):—'The Hebrews and the Red Sea,' by Alexander W. Thayer. *Fergus Printing Co.* (Chicago):—A 'Pioneer History of Illinois,' by the late Gov. John Reynolds—a reprint with corrections and notes. *Townsend MacCoun* (Chicago):—'The British Constitution,' by Amos Dean, a posthumous work; and a 'History of Pianoforte Music,' by J. C. Fillmore. *J. B. Lippincott & Co.* (Philadelphia):—'The Wisdom, Poetry, and Pathos selected from the Works of Ouida,' by the Rev. F. Sidney Morris; and 'The Miracles of the Saints,' by E. Cobham Brewer.

Funk & Wagnalls have issued the second volume of the Schaff-Herzog 'Encyclopædia of Religious Knowledge' (Gabbatha-Ozanam), of which the first volume was reviewed at length in these columns.

Mr. Howells's 'Sleeping-Car Farce,' which so enlivened *Harper's Christmas*, has been republished in pocket-shape by J. R. Osgood & Co., and is now available for home amusement by amateur performers.

Mr. Henry James's 'Daisy Miller,' 'An International Episode,' 'The Diary of a Man of Fifty,' and 'A Bundle of Letters,' make No. 303 of Harper's Franklin Square Library.

The twenty-four days' proceedings last summer at the Concord School of Philosophy are given in abstracts, approved by the several speakers, in 'Concord Lectures on Philosophy' (Cambridge: Moses King). An historical sketch of the foundation of the School, with a summary of the courses of the three previous years, is prefixed; and biographical notes convey considerable information concerning the philosophers who held forth in 1882.

The annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for 1882 is one of the most interesting of a series always instructive, and for the most part level with the popular comprehension. Professor Cook devotes himself particularly to a discussion of the sandstone region, with great thoroughness and detail, supplying numerous lithographic illustrations from original photographs of rock exposures. There is also a section on the clay product, which furnishes 80 per cent. of the architectural terracotta made in the United States, a new industry in fire-proof "terracotta lumber" having sprung up which leaves no excuse for death-traps in our great cities. The seaside developments are attractively described, and a surprising list of them from the Highlands to Cape May prepares one to trust Professor Cook's prediction that their further multiplication involves an ultimately continuous line of *beach* railways between the points named, thus affording "one of the grandest railway rides on the continent." Already "there is not a point on the coast line more than ten miles by navigable waters from a railroad station." The agricultural prospects of the southern part of New Jersey brighten yearly. Its climatic advantages are also rapidly becoming appreciated. Cotton and sugar-cane are profitably cultivated in Cape May County, whose winter temperature corresponds to that of West Virginia and western North Carolina and Georgia, while its climate is more even than theirs. Large space in this Report is given to water supply and drainage, the basins of the State being indicated on a small map. The large colored geological map, with additions and emendations, accompanies the Report as usual.

The first (April) number of the *Interchange*, published by Howard Challen, Philadelphia, is before us—nine octavo pages in double columns, giving the contents of leading periodicals, notes on current periodicals, and book notices: a beginning which will be improved upon, doubtless, in subsequent issues.

The April *Wheelman*, Boston, begins a second volume. The tasteful cover, the numerous illustrations, of good quality, and the text itself, rank this among the most attractive of the monthly magazines. The bound volume i. makes a very handsome appearance, and has a permanent usefulness in its descriptions of bicycling tours by which the adventurous may be guided.

With the February issue the *Bollettino* of the Italian African Society entered upon its second year. It promises at least a quarterly appearance hereafter.

An Alsatian photographer, M. Meyer, says the March *Polybiblion*, is about to employ his art in preparing an Alsatian iconography, for which distinguished subjects abound. Some of the portraits to be thus reproduced are great rarities; but M. Meyer will also take account of living celebrities. The late M. Stoffel was engaged, at the time of his death, upon a 'Dictionary of Alsatian Biography.'

The rubbishy 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili,' which has just been literally translated for the first time ('Le Songe de Poliphile,' version of Claudius Popelin, Paris: Isidore Liseux), is summarized, with numerous illustrations, in *Le Livre* for March. But by far the prime attraction of this number is the opening tribute of M. A. Quantin to his fellow-publisher, M. Alfred Mame, head of the great establishment at Tours—a model establishment for the world, one may safely say. M. Mame's enterprise, his pride in his art, his typographic masterpieces, his magnificent business, his care for his employees, his benevolent foundations, are set forth in a way to command universal respect and esteem for so fine a character. An etched portrait of M. Mame shows a countenance in full accord with the good that is related of him. We commend M. Quantin's article to every American publisher who takes a philanthropic interest in his calling.

We have been puzzled by the ante-dating, post-dating, and non-dating of books. A European novelty in this field is the double-dating instituted—unless others wish to claim priority—by the publisher of the eminently respectable series of "Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen" and "Sammlung gemeinverständlicher wissenschaftlicher Vorträge" (Berlin: Carl Habel). Franz von Löher's 'Das neue Italien' (No. 175 of the former series), and Dr. M. Alsberg's 'Die gesunde Wohnung' (No. 407 of the latter), which are before us, both bear "1883" on the cover, while the title page gives "1882" as the date of publication (or delivery of the "Vortrag"?). There is certainly no deception intended in this case, but the practice is nevertheless reprehensible and misleading, as we have experienced in the reference in Herr von Löher's pamphlet to the 16th of July, "two years ago."

Announcement has already been made of the

illustrations to Poe's "Raven" made by Gustave Doré, and shortly to be published by Harper & Bros., with a preface by Mr. Stedman. We should think that some American publisher would also find his account in bringing out an edition of the very curious designs made for the same poem by another French painter, the impressionist Édouard Manet—designs at once mystic and realistic. Next to Cooper, Poe is perhaps the best known in France of all American writers, and we have had occasion recently to see a French edition—undated, but probably not old—of one of his most characteristic tales, 'The Thousand and Second Night,' freely turned into French, and illustrated by quaint and characteristic drawings by the late André Gill.

Mr. Kurtz's 'Illustrated Art Notes' for the fifty-eighth Spring Exhibition of the National Academy of Design has promptly made its appearance (Cassell & Co.). Excellent features of the present issue are the biographical summaries appended to each contributor's name, and diagrams showing the position of each picture as actually hung upon the walls of the Academy.

One of the pleasantest pieces of Italian news is that relating to the Corsini Palace in Rome. The Government decided to purchase it, and make of it a *palazzo delle scienze*—a sort of Roman Somerset House. Depretis, with the Minister of Education, Torlonia (the Roman syndic), the presidents of the *lincei* and other scientific societies, met with Prince Corsini to complete the contract. The terms included the palace, with all the land adjoining as far as the Janiculum, the price paid being $625,000. After the papers had been signed, the Prince informed the assembled parties that he made a gift to the new establishment of the Corsinian library and gallery of pictures—both of great value.

Mr. Stillman's letter on another page, defending the restorations of St. Mark's Church, Venice, will doubtless lead some of our readers to turn back to the communication of Mr. Sturgis with which issue is taken. We believe that, for the purpose of understanding and reaching an intelligent conclusion in a controversy which in English circles has been attended with much heat, no better material exists than these two letters afford. This is no slight recommendation, considering the small library of pros and cons in pamphlets and articles in periodicals which an exhaustive study—not of the facts, but of the arguments and epithets—would require one to examine.

—The sale of a library described by the London *Times* as having been "originally formed by the famous Admiral Sir Francis Drake, and added to from time to time by his descendants," took place in London on the 11th of March and three following days. The *Times* says that "many of these books and old tracts were, no doubt, collected by the great Admiral, especially those very scarce tracts of the early seventeenth century relating to the English voyages to America"; and it instances Rosier's 'True Relation' as certainly one of "those identical ones which Drake had preserved at the time of their publication." To say that Drake died in 1596, and that Rosier's tract was not printed until 1605, is to question the accuracy of the *Times's* statement; and if we were inclined to be particular, we might ask how it happened that Sir Francis's "descendants" could have any hand in the collection of the library, seeing that the histories put it down that Sir Francis himself "left no posterity." The books, however, by whomsoever collected, were veritable nuggets, and grand prices were bid for them at the auction. Rosier's 'True Relation of the most prosperous voyage made this present yeere 1605 by Captain George Waymouth in the discovery of the land of Virginia,' a tract of only twenty leaves, and unbound, went for £301 to Mr. Bernard Quaritch. A copy of this rare tract, elegantly bound, was in the Brinley sale (No. 280), where it fetched no more than $800. And some years further back the sale of a copy is recorded (Inglis sale) at nine guineas, the work going to the British Museum. Mr. Quaritch also secured Hariot's 'Briefe and True Report of the New Found Land of Virginia,' London, 1588, a work of which only two other copies are known—one in the British Museum, the other in the Bodleian; £300 was the closing bid for this precious volume. 'Newes from Virginia' (six leaves), by R. Rich, London, 1610, brought £93; 'Good Newes from Virginia,' by A. Whitaker, London, 1613, £90; 'Good Speed to Virginia,' by R. G., London, 1609, £30; and 'True Declaration of the Estate of the Colonie of Virginia, with a confutation of scandalous reports,' etc., London, 1610, £80. For all the works relating to America large prices were paid; and as among the buyers we notice the names of Mr. B. Quaritch, H. Stevens, and Ellis & White, gentlemen who buy largely "upon orders," it is not unlikely that some of their purchases will find their way to this country.

—Lovers of Old-English literature in this country ought not to let the death of Mr. William G. Medlicott, of Longmeadow, Mass., pass without a word of commemoration, if only to remind the world how rare an example he afforded, and how worthy of imitation it ought to be by those situated as he was. It was Mr. Medlicott's good fortune to possess one of the best collections of Anglo-Saxon and Early-English books in this country, among them volumes which had belonged to celebrated men—to Sir Frederick Mad den, Thorpe, Conybeare, Cockayne—and which were enriched by their MS. notes, with numerous and rare editions of 'Beowulf,' Cædmon, etc. But what was more uncommon was the generous and enlightened spirit with which this collection was placed at the disposal of scholars and specialists working in the field of Anglo-Saxon. Mr. Medlicott freely lent his books, often sending them at considerable risk to great distances, and leaving them in the hands of borrowers for months together. Such liberality in this epoch of jealously-guarded libraries deserves appreciative mention.

—A number of theological handbooks are upon our table. First is the Oxford 'Parallel New Testament, Greek and English.' This handsome volume presents side by side the Authorized Version of 1611 and the Revised Version of 1881, each with its marginal notes, and the Greek text as adopted by the Revisers; the displaced readings being preserved in the margin among the notes proper. The work also contains the Revisers' preface and the translations preferred by the American Committee, and thus leaves nothing to be desired as regards the body of the New Testament. Next in order are two concordances to the Revised Version—the 'Complete Concordance,' by John Alexander Thoms (Chas. Scribner's Sons), and the 'Students' Concordance' (D. Appleton & Co.). Like the Parallel Testament just mentioned, Mr. Thoms's Concordance is published under the joint authorization of Oxford and Cambridge Universities. It includes the more important marginal readings of the English and American Revisers. The 'Students' Concordance' is anonymous, but is the work of several hands (English). Its typography is the more inviting of the two and the easier for reference, but its references are less complete than Mr. Thoms's. For instance, under *belly*, the latter gives three more texts, one of which, to be sure, is the preferred American, but the other two are to be found in the 'Students' Concordance' under other words in the same connection. Mr. Thoms has sixteen entries under the pronoun *I*, which the rival concordance takes no account of. He, again, inserts proper names in the main alphabet, which is certainly better than to group them by themselves. A fourth volume is Dr. John F. Hurst's 'Bibliotheca Theologica: a Select and Classified Bibliography of Theology and General Religious Literature' (Scribners). This very intelligent and conscientious guide cannot fail to be of great usefulness to the students, ministers, and teachers for whom it was designed. Bibliographically, it is sufficiently minute, giving the size of each book, the number of pages, the edition, the publisher's name, and the date. It is liberal in its inclusiveness, admitting Unitarians and Universalists to the equal company of the evangelical denominations, as a glance at the title "Sermons" will show. It has two excellent indexes, of authors and subjects, and is beautifully printed.

—Among the contributions to the fifteenth volume of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' ninth edition (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), two have the dimensions of good-sized volumes: "Mammalia," by Professor Flower, and "Mechanics," by Professor Tait. "Magnetism," by Professor Chrystal; "Measurement," by R. S. Ball; and "Medicine," by Drs. Creighton and Payne, are also extensive scientific articles. Geography and history are treated in notices of generally moderate dimensions and little attractiveness, the geographical ones—like the notices of Louisiana, the Isle of Man, Manchester, and Maryland—being often particularly remarkable for dryness, while many an interesting title, such as Lusitania or Lützen, is forgotten. Among the more valuable contributions of this class are Rev. A. H. Sayce's "Lydia," Rev. C. W. Boase's "Macedonian Empire," Rev. J. Sibree's "Madagascar," and Professor Robertson Smith's "Mecca" and "Medina." This scholar has also a good article on Malachi, while Professor Harnack discourses learnedly on Mark, Marcion, and Manichæism, the Rev. J. Sutherland Black on the Virgin Mary, and Professor Kessler on the Mandæans. Too brief and in every way inadequate are the articles on the Books of Maccabees and the Maronites, and unnecessarily bristling with titles, references, and foot-notes are Dr. Schiller-Szinessy's "Mahzor" and "Maimonides," the Hebrew of which—including such words as "siphethe," "hilekhoth," "dibere"—is not without flaws. The latter article is almost purely bibliographical, and the *life* of its interesting subject is all but completely forgotten. Incomparably more attractive lives of authors are those of Lotze (by Merz), Lucian (F. A. Paley), Lucretius (Professor Sellar), Macaulay (Rev. M. Pattison), and Machiavelli (Symonds). Professor Lindsay contributes the life of Luther, Gairdner that of Mary Tudor, Swinburne a much longer biography of Mary Stuart, and Professor Villari a connected series of sketches of the Medici family in Tuscany. The French queen Marie de Médicis, however, is forgotten, and so are Marie Louise, Maria Christina of Spain, Maria da Gloria of Portugal, and Mary Magdalene.

—The manner in which many of the biographical sketches of the 'Britannica'—in this volume as in others—open is almost amusing. One of them begins thus: "Lysimachus, son of Agathocles, a Thessalian in the service of Philip of Macedon, was born about 361 B. C. During Alexander's campaigns he was one of his immediate bodyguard. . . ." That the subject of the article is not Philip's Thessalian, but the Thessalian's son, there is nothing in the context

to indicate, and we must read on to find out that we have been so unceremoniously introduced to a famous commander and King of Thrace. Another opening runs thus: "Mandeville, Bernard de (1670–1733), is generally known as an ethical writer of debasing and degrading tendency, but he was at least as much of a humorist as a philosopher, and set up as an analyst of 'what is,' repeatedly disavowing all pretensions as a lawgiver of 'what ought to be.' He was a foreigner by birth, a native of Rotterdam. . . ." This is a rushing *in medias res*, or rather *in ultimas res*, before giving the plainest information to the common reader—as, for instance, *where* Bernard de . . . was a foreigner. Under "Luther," we read of a "First Period (1483–1517)" before reading the name of Martin. These are, however, trifling irregularities, in no way impairing the value of the biographical notices. The greatest defectiveness of the 'Britannica's' biography shows itself in the dynastic portions —excepting the English—and nowhere so glaringly as in this volume under "Louis." The histories of the various countries are generally referred to as almost completely covering the lives of the monarchs, and the notices of the latter mostly present but a few details as to parentage, age, marriage, etc. The reference is, however, always in great part, if not almost completely, deceptive; for, as a rule, the general history of the country tells of the reign, but ignores the prince's personal life and characteristics. The eighteen French Louises are despatched in two pages—St. Louis receiving four lines and a reference to "France"; Louis XVI. five lines and a reference; and Louis XVII. six lines without a reference. Not much more space is allotted to Maria Theresa, though "the events of her reign have been [but] briefly summarized under AUSTRIA and HUNGARY," or to Matthias Corvinus, though only "the leading events of his reign are summarized in the article HUNGARY."

—The method of Mr. Green, of Worcester, Mass., of making the public library a help to the schools by what might be called a course of library lectures—conferences between the librarian and the scholars, at the library, in which they learn what can be done there and how to do it —in which some of them apparently learn for the first time that there is a library—this practice, we say, is slowly spreading. Some small libraries, then Cincinnati, and now Chicago, have adopted it. At Chicago the teachers have fallen in with it readily, and the Saturday mornings have been engaged for weeks ahead. No doubt it will become more and more common, and will succeed wherever the librarian has the faculty of catching the attention of young people. It is an increase of his work—one more added to the long list of qualifications of the perfect librarian, which, as drawn up by the Abbé Cotton des Houssayes and others, is already sufficient to make a bold man hesitate before accepting the place. Knowledge of all languages, familiarity with all sciences, a natural aptitude for classifying, familiarity with and manual skill in all the book-preserving arts, perfect command of temper with the impertinent and overbearing, unwearied patience with the stupid and the ignorant and the scatter-brained, quickness of thought to be able to answer the man who has not a minute to spare, plodding perseverance in the service of those who are searching for a needle in a haystack—these qualities have always been expected of him. Now, it seems, he is to add to his learning the power to impart it, and not only to be able to help those who want to know, but to instill the very desire for knowledge. It is not every one who can do this, and it would be well for the general success of the experiment if librarians who have not the tongue of a ready speaker should depute this part of their work to more fortunate assistants. Some years ago much was said at librarians' conventions and written in the newspapers about professorships of bibliography, with reference chiefly to colleges; the idea being that instruction in the use of books for study and investigation should be given by college librarians to the students. Not much appears to have come of the talk; most of our college libraries, so far as we know, are conducted in the same way as before, with very little effort to train the students in what should be called not so much bibliography (description of books) as bibliochresis (use of books). But the idea has taken root lower down. The public librarian may soon deserve the additional title of Master of Bibliochresis. And if pupils are taught at our grammar and high schools Reading for Profit and the Art of Investigation, there will be no need for the college librarian to instruct any but those who have prepared for college at a distance from the large libraries.

—We referred the other day to the subscription circular sent out by the Cambridge Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women (Harvard Annex). Two documents also now obtainable of the ladies of the Executive Committee, with Mrs. Louis Agassiz at their head, deserve a very wide circulation, and, wherever they go, will create the disposition to give which the circular just named seeks to profit by. One of these is the Report of the Executive Committee; the other, Extracts from Letters of Pupils. There is little in the Report which we have not communicated to our readers at one time or another, but it is supplemented by the formal testimony of the instructors, who all agree as to the pleasure they have derived from teaching the young women, and the essential mental equality between these and the male students. Professor Dyer has been struck, in his philosophical course in Greek, "with the entire absence of intellectual indifferentism on the part of the young ladies; their questions have been most intelligent, and where the first answer did not satisfy them, persistent—an encouraging sign that they are unwilling to content themselves with words." So Professor Palmer, in philosophy, says: "The girls being keener questioners, I have usually found myself obliged to treat my subject more fundamentally with them than when I have discussed it with my college classes." In political economy, Professor Laughlin observes that "while political and business interest stimulated the men, I think that with the women it was a desire to solve social questions, especially by those who had already known something of charitable movements." All the instructors comment on the eagerness and assiduity of the women; but this was to be expected, under the circumstances. It is pointed out that the system of courses favors the attendance of women whose aim is not teaching or professional employment, but simply the perfecting of their own culture. Finally, as Professor Lane remarks, "Every one of these young women is more or less of a missionary. Therefore, in training one you may be training fifty or hundreds." The extracts from the letters of pupils, in response to a request for their judgment of the value of the Annex, must strike every one as the product of minds deserving the highest training that can be afforded them. The shortcomings they enumerate are mostly if not all easy of correction when endowment gives the Annex a recognized connection with the University. The lack of social relations is one of these, and we presume can only be overcome by the building of a dormitory or hall. Noticeable is the readiness with which the writers inherited, so to speak, the influence of the seat of learning at which their own status was so ill-defined and unsatisfactory. Their pride in the name and fame of Harvard would never suggest the novelty and insecurity of their tenure.

—A document akin to the foregoing, and also useful as a weapon wherever the struggle for the higher education is going on, is a pamphlet, entitled 'The Admission of Women to Universities,' by Mr. W. Le Conte Stevens, whose article on this theme in the January *North American* will be remembered. He presents the replies of various college presidents to stated questions concerning their experience of co-education. The testimony here also is singularly uniform, both as to mental capacity and physical endurance, and as to the humanizing effect of the women students upon the men. On the score of health, indeed, the replies are emphatic. "Fortified as they are," says President Beach, of Wesleyan University, "by the proprieties of their sex, from which they will not and cannot well break away, they ought to be, in college, and I think will be found to be, the hardier sex." There is a single instance of difference of opinion from the Harvard instructors' estimates as to the mathematical capacity of the women. President Le Conte, of the University of California, finds that with few exceptions they "have an aversion to the mathematical studies, and to those branches of exact science which involve the application of mathematics"; and he infers "a reflex influence" of their physical organization on their intellectual manifestations. Against this may be set the fact that one of the Annex students whose letters are quoted chose the department of astronomy, "with private study and practice at the Observatory"; and the explicit assertion of Professor Byerly, that the average marks in his elective mathematical courses have "invariably been higher" with his Annex than with his college classes, though the latter consisted of picked men. Professor Peirce is less laudatory, but among his few pupils have been "some of marked excellence, and all give evidence of ability and a serious purpose." Mr. Stevens's pamphlet concludes with some account of the progress of female education in the English universities. It can be had on application to the Secretary of the Association for Promoting the Higher Education of Women in New York, at No. 53 West Fifty-first Street.

—Mr. Koulouriotis, of Athens, has compiled a modest pamphlet in modern Greek, entitled 'Αλβανικὸν Ἀλφαβητάριον' ('Albanian Primer'). The sources of information respecting the Albanian language are few, and those who are interested in the subject will be glad to be directed to this brief account, by an Albanian, of the language as it is spoken in the Greek kingdom. The little book contains a statement of the sounds of the letters, a collection of popular myths with translation of the same into modern Greek, and a classified vocabulary. Those who are acquainted with modern Greece are aware that there is a considerable Albanian element of population in the immediate vicinity of Athens. Eleusis, Salamis, and Argos are inhabited mostly by Albanians, and the same is true of the islands of Hydra and Spezzia, those nurseries of the Greek marine. Until recently it was the fact that within a short distance of Athens one could meet peasants who understood very little Greek; and though, owing to the improvement of the schools, this would no longer be true of the men, yet it is altogether likely that, if one were to enter a peasant's house in Eleusis, he would find the women chattering Albanian, and the older women unable or unwilling to speak Greek.

The Albanian language is difficult to learn, and it is said to show marked analogy in structure with the ancient language of Lycia, in Asia Minor. It has been reduced to writing, we believe, by the British and Foreign Bible Society, and the New Testament, in whole or in part, has been printed in an alphabet made up of Greek and Latin letters. The different sounds outnumber the letters in either the Latin or Greek alphabet, taken singly. *B* and *v* are found, *g* and *gh*, *k* and *kye*, *d* and *dh*, *z* and *j*, *s* and *sh*, *ch*, as in China, and the sounds represented by the Spanish *ll* and *ñ*. Mr. Koulouriotis has contrived, by turning certain Greek characters alternately to the left and to the right, to represent all the sounds by characters closely resembling the Greek. Σ, for instance, represents *s*, and ϫ represents *sh*. The system seems a good one, for the redundant letters in the Albanian naturally form pairs with certain letters of the Greek alphabet. The compiler claims for his little book that it is the first Albanian grammar printed at Athens, and he also states, we believe correctly, that the idea of making the Greek alphabet, with some modifications, serve as the alphabet for the Albanian language had the approval of the late Mr. George Finlay. On the title-page of the pamphlet is printed the following sentence, which spelling reformers would approve: Ἓν καλὸν ἀλφαβητάριον εἶναι ἡ κρηπὶς τῆς γλώσσης, "A good alphabet is the foundation of a language."

—It is not often that an American audience has an opportunity to hear a native composer conduct a symphony of his own. Such an opportunity, however, was afforded the patrons of the Brooklyn Philharmonic Concerts on Friday afternoon and Saturday evening, on both of which occasions Professor J. K. Paine conducted his second work of this kind, the "Spring Symphony." The immense superiority of spring music over spring poetry will at once strike every one in listening to this fine composition. In choosing this epithet for his symphony, as well as the descriptive titles placed over the different movements —Departure of Winter, Awakening of Nature, May-night Fantasy, A Romance of Springtime, The Glory of Nature—Professor Paine, like Beethoven in the case of his Pastoral Symphony, doubtless intended them to be "more an expression of feeling than an attempt to paint in tones." Nevertheless, there are not a few characteristic passages which are easily recognized as definite descriptive motives. The leading theme of the Introduction indicates the sad feelings inspired by a desolate winter scene. It is worked up with other themes into a stormy climax, suggestive of the boisterous departure of winter, and followed by a calmer spirit, like the arrival of a prophetic breeze laden with the perfume of spring. The allegro paints the awakening of spring by means of a great variety of rhythmic and melodic effects, the soft opening figure being made to flow faster and faster in a crescendo, like a mountain rill, leading into the proper spring motive, which is first announced by the 'cellos and violas. With this spring motive the winter motive is ingeniously interwoven, by means of a variety of contrapuntal devices, producing a mixture of sad and joyous feelings. The ending of this movement is highly poetic. The May-night fantasy is a lovely scherzo—a kind of Walpurgis-night dream, abounding in pretty effects of instrumentation. The spring-time of love is suggested by the adagio, the episode in F minor in which has a sad and almost dirge-like expression. The long pedal point on the dominant makes an ingenious canonic effect with the leading motive. The adagio seems to us less inspired than the other parts, and not equal in beauty to the slow movement of Mr. Paine's First Symphony. The last movement, on the other hand, marks the climax not only of the Spring Symphony, but of its author's creative power. It introduces a sort of hymn of joy in the last movement for full orchestra, the grand harmonies and stirring, vigorous rhythm of which irresistibly make the audience vividly feel the "Glory of Nature."

—Not only Harvard College but America may well be proud of having produced such a musical composition, in which excellent workmanship is combined with originality of invention. A single fault is its extreme length. In this respect a good lesson is taught by Beethoven's Eighth Symphony, which was played at the same concert and only consumed about half as much time—twenty-three minutes. The tendency of modern music is toward concentration of ideas, and this is one of the reasons why symphonic poems seem to be gradually taking the place of symphonies. Professor Paine, too, has written a symphonic poem, "The Tempest," which it is to be hoped Mr. Thomas will give us an opportunity to hear next winter. Attention must finally be called to the brilliant, clear, and effective instrumentation of the Spring Symphony. Professor Paine has the true orchestral instinct, and is in this respect immensely superior to Herr Max Bruch, for instance, who has just left Liverpool to pay this country a professional visit, and who in pure scholarship has few rivals among living musicians. The other features of the Brooklyn concert were Liszt's first concerto, which Mrs. Rivé-King played in a brilliant and quite satisfactory manner; two movements from Spohr's ninth violin concerto, in which Mr. Rhodes displayed the same good qualities heretofore fully commented on, and Berlioz's brilliant and sensuous orchestration of Weber's dashing "Invitation à la Valse," which was prepared as a substitute for the missing ballet music in the "Freischütz" when that opera was first produced in Paris.

LORD LAWRENCE.

Life of Lord Lawrence. By R. Bosworth Smith, M.A., author of 'Mohammed and Mohammedanism,' etc. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

Mr. Bosworth Smith has manifestly spared no labor, thought, and study to make his life of Lord Lawrence worthy of its subject; and as a piece of literary workmanship these volumes are worthy of high commendation. As a picture of Lord Lawrence himself, or of India under British rule, they will not be so satisfactory to those who anticipated from Mr. Smith's literary antecedents a certain measure at least of critical discrimination. An excess of enthusiasm is an infirmity from which few biographers are exempt; but the examples are rare in which the malady has been possessed in so acute a form as by Mr. Bosworth Smith. He knows neither weariness nor satiety in enlarging upon the excellences of his hero. Whenever he gets him in a new light, he withdraws his readers, as it were, to a convenient distance, and, "with pointing pole in hand," teaches them what it is proper for them to admire at this stage of his career. He extends these feelings of rapture and enthusiasm—only slightly moderated—to nearly all of Lord Lawrence's friends and official colleagues, with the result, we have no hesitation in asserting, of making his book altogether a disappointment to those who have studied the history of the English in India in a spirit of independent criticism. The book, however, is of great interest. Whatever Mr. Bosworth Smith desires to say, he says well; and it is impossible to deny that here, at last, we have a book on India undefaced by barbarous and unintelligible technicalities, and thoroughly readable from the first page to the last.

The chapters of the greatest interest and importance are those which deal with the great Indian insurrection of 1857, and the long struggle between the mutinous sepoys in Delhi and the handful of Europeans and Punjabees which held the ridge in front of the city. Then it was that John Lawrence became known to the world as a man cast in the heroic mould. He was Chief Commissioner of the Punjab, which had been annexed only a few years before, and he found himself, on the outbreak of the mutiny, cut off from intercourse with the Governor-General in India, without prospect of succor reaching him from England, and compelled to act as the supreme ruler of Northern India, to preserve order in his own provinces, to raise a new army in place of that which had revolted, and to wage war against an insurrection which aimed at, and all but accomplished, the overthrow of British domination in the East. Lord Lawrence, although, like all the other British officials in India, he had had no forefeeling of the insurrection, was the only prominent man in Upper India who discerned at once the gravity of the crisis, and the only means by which it could be encountered successfully. Incredible as it seems, the Commander-in-Chief of the Indian Army and his military advisers were of opinion that an immediate march upon Delhi was not necessary; that the wiser policy would be to collect such troops as they could bring together, with a fortified camp, and stand upon the defensive until reinforcements reached India from England. And but for the earnest advice and remonstrances of John Lawrence there would have been no advance upon Delhi.

"Your Excellency," he writes in one of these urgent epistles to General Anson, "remarks that we must 'carefully collect our resources.' But what are these resources but our European soldiers, our guns, and our material? These are all ready at hand, and only require to be handled wisely and vigorously to produce great results. . . . Pray only reflect on the whole history of India. Where have we failed when we acted vigorously? Where have we succeeded when guided by timid counsels? Clive, with 1,200 men, fought at Plassey, in opposition to the advice of his leading officers, beat 40,000 men, and conquered Bengal. Monson retreated from the Chumbal, and before he gained Agra his army was disorganized and partially annihilated. Look at the Cabul catastrophe. It might have been averted by resolute and bold action. . . . Our friends, of whom we had many, only left us when they found we were not true to ourselves. How can it be supposed that strangers and mercenaries will sacrifice everything for us? There is a point up to which they will stand by us, for they know that we have always been eventually successful, and that we are good masters. But, go beyond this point, and every man will look to his immediate benefit, his present safety. The Punjab irregulars are marching down in the highest spirits, proud to be trusted, and eager to show their superiority over the regular troops; ready to fight shoulder to shoulder with the Europeans. But if, on their arrival, they find the Europeans behind breastworks, they will begin to think that the game is up. Recollect that all this time, while we are pausing, the emissaries of the mutineers are writing to and visiting every cantonment."

These letters had the effect of infusing a more energetic spirit into the counsels of the Commander-in-Chief and his staff. They marched for Delhi, but too late to stamp out, as might originally have been done, the insurrection at a single blow. Nearly four months had to pass away before Delhi was stormed and taken; and, in truth, it would never have been stormed and taken but for the invincible fortitude and determination of John Lawrence. At one time some of his most trusted subordinates, even in the Punjab, questioned the wisdom of his policy to risk everything rather than allow the small be-

sieging force to withdraw from Delhi with their task unaccomplished. They advised that he should leave Delhi to its fate, and concentrate all his resources for the defence of the Punjab. But Lawrence never wavered for an instant. He saw that British authority in the Punjab absolutely depended upon success before Delhi. The chiefs and soldiers in the Punjab had not, at the outbreak of the mutiny, comprehended the magnitude of the crisis. They regarded it as a military *émeute* which, by discrediting the sepoys, would open for them a way into the military employ of the East India Company; and hence the alacrity with which they came forward with the proffer of their services. But as days grew into weeks and weeks into months, and Delhi was uncaptured, and everywhere, except in the Punjab, the authority of the British throughout Bengal was wholly or partially annihilated, they understood what a splendid opportunity for recovering their independence they had allowed to escape. The Sikhs inside Delhi—and they were numerous—despite all overtures fought desperately against the English to the end. Those who participated in the siege, although they would not abandon the English so long as they held their ground, would certainly have made common cause with the enemy if General Wilson—the successor of General Anson—had raised the siege, as at one time he desired to do. Lawrence saw all this clearly. Writing to Lord Dalhousie, after the rebel fortress had fallen, he says:

"We have indeed had a terrible time. Up to the capture of Delhi, the scales were trembling in the balance. The Punjabees of all classes have behaved admirably, and the zeal and courage of the Punjab troops have far surpassed my hopes and expectations. Still, if Delhi had not fallen, we must have been ruined. Had the troops retreated, all must have been lost. Had, indeed, the storming not succeeded, all must have gone."

And Delhi could not have fallen if Lawrence had not discerned at the outset that there it was that the fate of the British in India had to be decided, or, having discerned it, had lacked the courage to strip the Punjab of its garrisons until the besieging force had been sufficiently strengthened to assail the fortress with success. When, at last, Delhi was captured, the humanity of the man shone no less conspicuously in the hour of success than his courage during the season of darkness and trouble. He preserved the mosques and palaces of Delhi from the destruction which would certainly have overtaken them if the military authorities had been allowed to have their way; he put limits to the immeasurable rapacity of the prize agents, and sternly repressed the inhumanity of the military commissions; but, unhappily, not until much had been done which Englishmen of future generations will be very loth to be reminded of,

At the time of the great insurrection, it was generally regarded as a half-frantic revolt of barbarism against a higher civilization which it both feared and hated; but with the lapse of years this view has been largely modified. Even Anglo-Indian officials are now willing to admit that British rule in India before 1857 was a rule defaced by great and grievous defects; that the upper classes had been reduced from a state of prosperity and influence to one of extreme indigence; that the revenue administration and judicial procedure pressed with a crushing weight on the mass of the people; that the high-handed and unscrupulous manner in which Lord Dalhousie carried out his annexation policy had, with reason, destroyed the popular belief in British candor and equity; that an insurrection, in brief, was an incident which might and ought to have been anticipated. The very fact that the sepoys of the native army believed that the "greased cartridge" was manufactured with malice prepense, for the express purpose of destroying their caste, and compelling them, against their wish and will, to become Christians, shows the profound distrust with which the policy and behavior of the English in India must have inspired the minds of the people. The facts being so, it becomes not a little perplexing that a man such as Lord Lawrence should have been so absolutely taken by surprise as it is plain from this biography that he was.

The explanation would seem to be this: Lord Lawrence was essentially a man of action, not a man of thought. There is nothing in these two bulky volumes to show that he ever devoted even a moment's thought to what was to be the final end and outcome of British domination in India. He passed his official life buried in questions of administrative detail, which, apparently, left him without leisure or inclination to look beyond them, or to reflect upon the possible consequences of such a sweeping political revolution as Lord Dalhousie was endeavoring to accomplish throughout the continent of India. And thus he failed to discern "signs of the times" which men far less eminent than himself, and with not a tithe of his knowledge and experience of India, had detected clearly enough. We have called attention to this fact because it is here that the inherent vice and weakness of British rule in India are to be looked for. In all civilized countries there is a division of labor; the business of political thinking is never carried on by the same persons upon whom devolves the business of practical legislation. In India alone the administrator has to do his own thinking. It is demanded of him that he should not only be his own "Mr. Gladstone," but that he should be also his own Bentham, Mill, newspaper press, and public opinion. And the only time he has for thinking is after an exhausting day spent in the consideration of multitudinous petty details—a discipline as inimical to comprehensive and synthetic habits of thought as it is possible to imagine.

"I begin," writes Lord Lawrence to Sir Charles Wood, in reference to his work as Governor-General (and the account is equally true of his life as Chief Commissioner of the Punjab), "at 6 A. M., and, with an interval of half an hour for breakfast, I sit at my desk until 5:30 P. M., working all the time as hard as I can. When necessary, I work again after I come in from my ride or drive." How can a man think under such a burden as this? How is he to find the leisure to look before and after? Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof. And the account which Lord Lawrence gives of his official life as Governor-General might apply to that of almost every English civilian in the country. They are all borne down and overwhelmed by a huge mass of official details. Every day they have, Sisyphus-like, to roll a huge stone to the top of a hill; and each succeeding morning they find another, similar in size and weight, awaiting the commencement of the day's labor. When the task is accomplished, the spent and exhausted official has about as much energy left for thinking as a man would who had just rowed stroke-oar in a closely contested boat-race. And so it was that an insurrection like that of 1857 could be secretly matured in the hearts of the people without their English rulers having a thought of the approaching catastrophe.

There is, however, still another question requiring an answer: How was it that the British officials obtained no information? And this leads us on to a question of policy which is discussed at considerable length in these volumes. When the Punjab first became a British province it was placed under a Board of Administration, the leading members of which were John Lawrence and his brother, Sir Henry. The differences between the two brothers—mainly upon one important matter—led to the dissolution of the Board and the appointment of John Lawrence as Chief Commissioner, his brother being transferred to another province. The point at issue between them was the treatment to be meted out to the chiefs and large landholders who flourished in the Punjab under Runjeet Sing and his successors. Sir Henry thought they ought to be maintained in the enjoyment of their lands and other privileges; Sir John was of opinion that the severity of British rule required that they should be (to quote his own expression) "reduced to the plough" by the gradual resumption on the part of the state of the lands which they occupied. Lord Dalhousie, agreeing with the views of John Lawrence, removed his brother from the Punjab, and made John the sole Governor of the province. Now, this dispute between the two brothers is one that came up for settlement whenever an Indian kingdom came under British rule; and it is a remarkable fact that those Indian administrators who were best acquainted with the government of independent native states have, almost without exception, been in favor of preserving to the native aristocracy their ancient rank and privileges. On the other hand, civilians—as, for example, John Lawrence—who knew, by direct experience, only those provinces where British rule had long been established, have always been jealous and suspicious of natives of rank and influence. They have professed to see in them nought but consumers of the public revenue which, with greater advantage to the body of the people, might be diverted to the coffers of the state and by it expended upon administrative improvements. Hence, their constant aim has been to grind down all classes and orders of men to a dead level over which (as they declared) the wheels of the administrative machinery would work with the smallest possible amount of friction. And in this policy they have been entirely successful. The descendants of the men who governed provinces and commanded empires in the days when India was independent would now be found, if they could be found at all, following a plough, almost as ignorant and quite as unambitious as the bullocks they were driving. But this result has incalculably weakened the authority of the Government. Turbulent and adventurous as these men were, they represented the most advanced, the manliest, and most vigorous classes in the population, for eminence in a native state is rarely due to birth alone; and the reduction of these men to insignificance, under the levelling tendencies of British rule, has affected India very much as the expulsion of the French Protestants by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes affected France. By the destruction, moreover, of these—the natural leaders of the people—the English unintentionally created a sort of bastard aristocracy out of their own subordinate native officials. These really governed India, for no information could reach their English superiors except such as they chose to supply; and they were careful to supply none but tidings of general joy, contentment, and prosperity at a time when all classes in the land were suffering from their rapacity and oppressiveness. The English, in short, having removed the people to a vast distance from themselves, interpreted as peace the solitude which they had created, and were only awakened from their pleasing delusion by the terrible events of 1857.

The incidents of Lord Lawrence's life subsequent to the mutiny can be told in a few words. He came home to be greeted, and deservedly so, as the saviour of the Indian Empire; and a couple of years later, upon the death of

Lord Elgin, he returned to Calcutta as Governor-General. His viceroyalty was free from startling events, but it was notable for hard, unceasing, unobtrusive labor in the interest of the masses of the people. Never in India, either before or since, was the business of government carried on with such regularity, promptness, and punctuality as under the government of Sir John Lawrence. He was sedulous to allow no arrears in his own work to accumulate, and was rigorous in the exaction of the same from his subordinates. The last act of his simple and heroic life was to head the opposition to the insane invasion of Afghanistan in order to find a "scientific frontier" which existed nowhere, and least of all in the brain of the statesman who invented the phrase. It is a singular illustration of the wisdom with which the world is governed that his judgment on this question—the fruit of thorough knowledge and long experience—should have been contemptuously rejected in favor of that of Lord Lytton and Sir George Colley.

MORTILLET'S PREHISTORIC ANTIQUITY.

La Préhistorique Antiquité de l'Homme. Par Gabriel de Mortillet, Professeur d'Anthropologie préhistorique à l'École d'Anthropologie de Paris. Paris: Reinwald; New York: F. W. Christern. 1883. 8vo, pp. 642.

In this volume M. de Mortillet has given us the result of many years of study, and, as he is a recognized authority in archæology, his conclusions are entitled to a respectful consideration, whatever may be thought of their soundness or of the illogical manner in which he sometimes deals with his evidence. As a matter of course, the work is more or less controversial in character, and yet it is but justice to say that, in spite of his strong convictions and of the prominent part he has played in all the discussions that have taken place on the question since the discovery of flint implements in the valley of the Somme first made the antiquity of man a living issue, he has given us as complete and (apart from his theories) as satisfactory a résumé of all that is known upon the subject as any that has yet been published. This he has done in a simple and attractive manner, without the slightest attempt to conceal or gloss over the weak points. Indeed, so far is he from availing himself of any technical advantage in the arrangement of his evidence—or perhaps it might be more correct to say, so satisfied is he of the truth of his theories—that in beginning the investigation with "tertiary man," the very point where, logically and scientifically, he is believed to be most vulnerable, he may be said almost to have courted a fall.

Strictly speaking, the expression "tertiary man" is deceptive, as our author does not recognize the existence of man in this epoch, though, as an archæologist, he is satisfied that when the miocene beds of western Europe were laid down there lived a being who built fires, chipped flint implements, and, we may add, did everything that the river-drift man of quaternary times can be shown to have done. This being, however, was not man; for our author, speaking now as a palæontologist, tells us that, according to "palæontological laws," it is impossible that man could have been in existence at that remote epoch—the contemporary of a fauna now extinct—and have preserved his type unchanged amid all the geological revolutions that have taken place since that time. To bridge over this difficulty he is reduced to the necessity of inventing a sort of ape-like precursor of man, which he calls an anthropopithecus, and which he endows with intelligence enough to build fires and manufacture stone implements. This is substantially his position, and a more unsatisfactory one, no matter from what point of view it be regarded, cannot well be imagined. So far as palæontology is concerned, it is a sufficient answer to say that the laws that govern the development of animal life do not apply to man to the same extent that they do to other animals; and even if they did, our author's position would not be strengthened, since in inventing a creature possessed of a man's intelligence, and calling it by some other name, he is simply "whipping the devil around the stump." If the stone implements found by Bourgeois and Ribeiro in undisturbed tertiary beds in France and Portugal are artificial—and of this there cannot be much doubt, in view of the testimony of Franks, Engelhard, and Worsaae, to say nothing of Mortillet himself—then they are the work of man, because, so far as we know, man is the only being that ever existed who has built fires and manufactured stone implements. This fact is a bar to all speculation on the subject; and until it is proved that, at some time in the world's history, there has existed some creature other than man who has also made fires and chipped stone implements, we may safely dismiss the anthropopithecus to keep company with the "boojum" in the realms of wonderland. And here we may also add that, if the geological formations in which these evidences of man's handiwork have been found belong to the tertiary epoch, as they are said to do, there can be no doubt that man existed at that time. The conclusion is inevitable, and the sooner the so-called laws of palæontology are made to correspond with the fact, the better will it be for certain palæontologists.

In treating of the existence of "tertiary man" in America, our author is even more unsatisfactory, not because he has seen fit to discredit the fact, but because the grounds upon which he does so are wholly insufficient. Thus, in ruling out the evidence of the Calaveras skull, he tells us that although it came into Prof. Whitney's hands nearly twelve years ago, yet he has never published an account of it. In making this statement, our author betrays inexcusable ignorance; and when he goes out of his way to attribute this "long silence" to the influence of "the clergy," he is simply impertinent. In point of fact, Prof. Whitney, in July, 1866, within a few months after the skull was discovered, presented to the California Academy of Sciences as full a description of it, and of the circumstances under which it came into his possession, as it was possible for him to give at that time; and this account was soon after published in the third volume of the proceedings of that body. Since then he has lectured upon the subject at different times; and in a work entitled the 'Auriferous Gravels of California,' issued in 1880, he has proved, as conclusively as human testimony can prove anything, that not only was this particular skull taken from the "cement," but that other human bones, as well as stone implements of various patterns, have at different times been found in the same geological formation. Whether he is right in ascribing this formation to pliocene times is, perhaps, an open question, though even upon this point the evidence of the flora and fauna would seem to be decisive. These have been submitted to a close examination, and are said to be distinctly pliocene; in fact, we are told that, while the bones of an extinct fauna are more or less common, not a single living species of animal has yet been found in these beds. That this skull closely resembles that which is supposed to be characteristic of certain Indian tribes of a low order of intelligence is true, and it is also true that some of the stone implements found in these gravels show a higher degree of skill than the river-drift man of the succeeding geological epoch is supposed to have possessed; but to assume, as is not unfrequently done, that these facts furnish data for a conclusion as to the age of the beds from which the specimens were taken, is virtually to beg the whole question. So far are they from throwing any light upon this point, that they may be said to involve questions that depend for their solution upon the way in which the geology of this region is itself finally settled.

Coming down to quaternary times, our author is on firmer ground. The anthropopithecus has disappeared, and in its stead we have man, not perhaps of a very high order, but still man, such as he is to-day. The proof of this consists in certain rude stone implements which are found in the river drift, and are supposed to show marks of human workmanship. Practically, it is the same sort of evidence as that which was discovered in the tertiary beds of France and Portugal; and though it is not regarded as sufficient to demonstrate man's existence at that time, yet in the present instance it is held to be conclusive, for the reason that the palæontological conditions that are supposed to have ushered in the quaternary epoch are believed to have been favorable to his appearance. This point having been settled to our author's satisfaction, all the rest becomes plain sailing, as it now only remains for him to follow man down through the various geological changes, until he is brought face to face with conditions that characterize the flora and fauna of existing times. For this work our author is well fitted. His familiarity with the character and geological position of the numerous archæological discoveries that distinguish this epoch, joined to his thorough knowledge of the methods of the ancient workman, as displayed in the choice of material and the character and quality of the work, enable him to trace with a masterly hand the gradual development of industry from the rudely chipped stones of the river-drift to the carved and polished ornaments and implements that mark the close of the quaternary and the beginning of what is termed the existing epoch.

So long as he confines himself to this branch of his subject, and limits himself to a description of these "finds," and to discussing their bearing upon the question of the antiquity of man, he may, as a rule, be followed safely and with profit. But when he forsakes this path, and begins to theorize upon the facts, it becomes necessary to proceed with caution, as he is very apt to push his conclusions further than the premises will warrant. Thus, in the summary which he gives of the results of his investigations, he tells us that man appeared in Europe at the beginning of quaternary times; and this may be safely conceded even if we do not put it still earlier, though it is by no means certain that the facts justify us in fixing the precise date of that event at not less than from two hundred and thirty to two hundred and forty thousand years ago. So, also, we may entertain serious doubts as to the peaceable character of "quaternary man," though perfectly satisfied of his gradual advance in mechanical and artistic skill, and convinced that during all this time he dwelt in caves and rock shelters, and lived by hunting and fishing. And, finally, the practice of burying the dead and of wearing ornaments (or, as they are called, amulets) can hardly be considered as proving definitively the "religiosity" of neolithic man, though there is reason to believe that the former of these customs was introduced into western Europe by a race of brachycephalous invaders from Asia, who brought with them the knowledge of pottery, of agriculture, and of the domestication of animals. Before making up our minds upon the doubtful points here indicated, and some others that might be

mentioned, it is advisable to wait for the additional word which we are told archæology is yet to speak, and which, let us hope, she will utter in such a decided manner as will make it impossible to subordinate that which she teaches as fact to theories drawn from palæontology or any sister science.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Siege of London; The Pension Beaurepas; and The Point of View. By Henry James, jr. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

Shandon Bells. A Novel. By William Black. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1883.

Gideon Fleyce: a Novel. By Henry W. Lucy. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co. 1883.

My Connaught Cousins. By the author of 'The Queen of Connaught.' [Franklin Square Library.] Harper & Bros.

George Van Brugh's Mistake. By H. Baden Pritchard. [Franklin Square Library.] Harper & Bros.

The Golden Shaft. By Charles Gibbon. [Franklin Square Library.] Harper & Bros.

Divorce. By Margaret Lee. John W. Lovell Co.

The Surgeon's Stories. First Cycle. Times of Gustaf Adolf. By Z. Topelius. From the original Swedish. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.

A Word, only a Word. By George Ebers. From the German by Mary J. Safford. William S. Gottsberger.

An Honorable Surrender. By Mary Adams. Charles Scribner's Sons.

It was a Lover and his Lass. By Mrs. Oliphant. [Franklin Square Library.] Harper & Bros.

Criquette. Par Ludovic Halévy. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

Le Bonheur des Dames. Par Émile Zola. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern. [In English, translated by John Stirling. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.]

'The Siege of London' is Mr. James's latest study in international manners, and deals with a subject of deep contemporaneous interest—the possibility of an American lady of doubtful matrimonial antecedents getting into good English society. Mr. James has, we think, rather exaggerated the problem by making his Mrs. Headway a little too much divorced. She has been married to four or five husbands, and during one winter her own sister did not know what her legal name really was. Moreover, she has tried New York and has failed; yet she succeeds in getting taken up in England and marrying a man of title whose mother is anxious to prevent the match, and who himself is made afraid by his suspicions of his *inamorata.* Anything is possible in love; but we have to carry faith pretty far to believe in Mrs. Headway. In some respects 'The Siege of London' is one of the best of Mr. James's international sketches. The skill with which he reproduces the impression made on the various persons with whom his heroine is thrown in contact is inimitable. The story will probably be sharply criticised, as unfair to "society" in London and to American manners; indeed, even New York, which first rejected Mrs. Headway as an impossible person, comes in for a terrible piece of satire at the end, when it appears that since her English marriage people here are beginning to manifest an interest in knowing who Mrs. Headway is.

The story contains a hint that is of some social interest—viz., that Americans, or at any rate American women, now succeed in English society not by imitating the English, but by being as American as possible. It is the difference and novelty which constitute their charm, and the more original and eccentric they are the better Americans they are supposed to be. The one thing they must do is to amuse, and as they have, as a rule, a great deal more social brightness and vivacity than English women, this is not very difficult. But only an adventuress of genius could, under Mrs. Headway's circumstances, make Mrs. Headway's match. 'The Pension Beaurepas' and 'The Point of View' belong together, one being a continuation of the other, and both together forming a most amusing study of international life.

Mr. Black would hardly make a reputation, if it were necessary for him to make one, out of 'Shandon Bells.' It is an Anglo-Irish story, with a love plot and a good deal of literary life—enough of the first to show the reader the truth of the old proverb about the character of the path of that passion when it is true; and of the second to let him into some of the secrets of the trade. It is not a novel to stir the blood, but it possesses the narrative charm of all Mr. Black's stories, and just enough of his pleasant humor to relieve it from the charge of dulness.

It is reported that 'Gideon Fleyce' created a sensation in London because of its lifelike sketches of certain well-known public characters. This may well be, but the book challenges admiration on its merits as a story, and will be read with pleasure by readers who know nothing and care as little about London notabilities. It combines various kinds of merit more or less rare by themselves, and rarer still in combination. Its style is attractive in its artful or, rather, artistic simplicity. Its plot is more intricate and more full of surprises than one is accustomed to look for nowadays, and, though hovering on the brink of melodrama, never actually loses its air of every-day, newspaper reality. It is a study of character, but not an obtrusive study. We learn to know the principal personage much as we learn to know a person in real life. We revise our opinion of him from time to time; occasionally we suspect that we have been mistaken in him; and it is only toward the end that we feel as if we really knew him. The author presents him to us in a semi-sarcastic sort of way, much as a gentleman might introduce us to an acquaintance whom he did not care to vouch for, but against whom he did not wish to prejudice us. He plays with him as a cat does with a mouse, and evidently has a sneaking kindness for him with all his faults. The art of the author is shown in various ways. Many of the scenes he describes and of the topics he handles have been almost done to death in English novels of the past quarter of a century. There is an election, there is a dinner-party, there is a trial, there is a good deal of what in unskilful hands would be at once condemned as impudent and superfluous padding; but in Mr. Lucy's hands it is all fresh and graceful and interesting, and when the reader has finished the book he would not willingly dock it of any of these accessories. Mr. Lucy's minute and accurate familiarity with certain out-of-the-way phases of Jewish habit and character makes it seem probable that he is of Jewish descent and was brought up in such a Jewish household as he describes. It is true, his description is not by any means complimentary, but that only makes the conjecture more probable, for converts are proverbially zealous.

'My Connaught Cousins' are a bevy of winsome girls from whom, or through whom, are gathered a collection of eerie legends or grim tragedies such as might be expected in County Mayo to-day. The most original and the most entertaining tale is in a different strain. It is a Shrovetide match-making of a sort that we are more accustomed to attribute to the prosaic calculations of the French bourgeois than to the happy-go-lucky instinct of the Irishman. It may be read with the more enjoyment since the blooming Norah is rescued from the sordid clutches of Shamus Beg and his son by the bold dash of her own true lover. Says Macdermot:

"'Another heifer! Troth, then, I never will. Don't ye know already that Norah has the biggest fortune of any girl in Storport? There's five cows (four milch cows and one in calf) and two fat pigs ready for rent day; a strong donkey for drawing turf, and three pounds in gold.'

"'And if she has, what is it? Hasn't my boy got a good house and a bit of land, and foreby that a strong mule and a good cart? There's plenty of fortunes in the village that's waiting for him, believe me, so if ye don't throw in the heifer, I'll just take myself to another house.'"

The girl's anxious mother interposes:

"'Will ye take a small sow, Shamus Beg? Tony would make it a sow.'

"'I would not, then,' returned her husband.

"'Is that your last word?' asked Shamus.

"'Troth, and it is, thin; unless, indeed, ye'll take a couple of pigs out of the litter there and make the matter right.'

"Shamus walked over to the corner and gazed meditatively at the litter of pigs which were reposing on the straw. 'Will ye say three, Sham Macdermot?'

"'No, I will not say three.'

"'You will not? Wall, would two and a couple of hens be any loss on ye?'"

Whereupon the mother settles it: "'Ye'll make it a couple of hens and pigs and say no more about it.'" The girl who is thus bargained away to a man she has never seen, "white as any corpse, shrank further into the shade," and the reader himself breathes more freely as he finds her rescue on the next page.

'George Van Brugh's Mistake' contains two very good character sketches in the Dickens manner—Mrs. Parkle and Job Hollings. The tale itself turns upon that transparent villany and that blind credulity without which novels must have come to an end long ago; but this is redeemed from triteness by the pretty country life in which it is set, and by the long-suffering, unswerving faithfulness of Job Hollings. It seems pitiful that such a mistake must be so costly, yet one feels that a story of such devoted patience could end fitly only in a better world than this.

'The Golden Shaft' is worth reading if for nothing else than the cleverness with which all the characters are made to attend, almost as for life or death, upon the unwindings of the much-tangled plot. Morally, there may be some doubt about the story, in this sense, that in the laudable desire to prove that nobody has been very bad, and that nobody need be ashamed of himself or his forbears, it appears as if there had been a great deal of needless suffering, and as if one life, at least, had been wrecked merely to make a story. The one thing that reconciles us to the existence of suffering is its inevitableness, and the moment it seems to be wantonly inflicted, we recoil and spare our sympathy by remembering that this is only fiction.

'Divorce' is full of good intentions which we fear are futile from the extravagance with which the characters are drawn. They are taken from the newly rich of New York. The wife has every virtue and grace, combined with remarkable mental ability. Superlative creature as she is, she is not in herself impossible. The difficulty lies in the supposition that a man could desert such a woman for a faded, pretentious person of doubtful character. It makes him at once such a knave or such a brute that the indignant denial rises on the instant—the story never was and never can be true. It is probably by accident that it parallels in richer,

if not higher, life 'A Modern Instance,' but in that story the poor wife by her very faults proved herself a reality.

To each his own taste, and surely never more so than when an author chooses his subject; but reading the sketch introductory to 'The Surgeon's Stories,' it seems a matter of great regret that Topelius had not chosen to describe men and things he had himself known. It would take but little to make the surgeon a worthy companion for some of Fritz Reuter's best figures. "An heirloom like the old man Bäck—the uncle of all and the confidant of all—was one of the little town's household guardian spirits, without whom it was impossible to conceive how the general welfare could be maintained."

We have ourselves raised the question heretofore whether the day of historical novels has not passed. Be that as it may, there cannot be two opinions about such times and scenes as both Topelius and Ebers have selected to portray in the books before us. Gustaf Adolf, like Philip II., lived in a time of hard, brutal cruelty. The men who stand preëminent in them for justice and humanity stand so by contrast with the dreadful background. Modern sentiment, let us be thankful, shrinks from such sights, and neither author has failed to appreciate that fact. But it would be well had they gone a step further and realized that therefore a true picture is impossible. The perspective is distorted, the high lights are blurred for want of their corresponding shadows. A few striking episodes are given, but the whole lacks reality. Ebers, moreover, has striven to cover too wide a field. A generous, daring boy sets forth in life, believing in the charm of one word to win for him all that is best—fortune (luck), art, fame, power, and at last love. The Black Forest, Madrid, Florence, Lepanto, Antwerp—it is almost all Europe, and a great deal of the sixteenth century; too much by far to put between two covers. And we return to our first suggestion: what if all this skill and labor had been bestowed on something Ebers had known at first hand?

'An Honorable Surrender' is well written—in some respects, very well written. Yet many readers will pause at the close to consider whether to class it with 'A Fair Barbarian' or with 'An Earnest Trifler.' This, it will be perceived, is to ask the question: Has it a voice of its own, or is it but an echo? Some will reply in the words of the heroine herself, "It was not imitation, but real likeness." Others will hold their judgment in suspense until the author shall give some further proof of original power. The two men are of purely conventional types, the one, "obviously a gentleman," the supposed product of culture, the other the "man of nature." The heroine cannot be rendered in one phrase, nor in many. In fact, much of the doubt about the book will be upon the point whether she is made consistent with herself, or with any probable theory of the thoughts and deeds of young ladyhood. The author has undeniably succeeded in making her attractive, though she endows her with a subtlety of analysis and reflection quite unlikely in a girl of twenty. In her study of George Eliot, she has overlooked the fact that the abstract arguments, the keen logic, the delicate balance of motive occur only in the author's own comments. The words and formulated thoughts of Dorothea Brooke and Gwendolen Harleth are concrete and simple to the last degree.

The work is clearly that of an inexperienced hand. A loveless marriage as an escape from poverty is the temptation of the heroine, but, for aught that appears, she is the heiress of "Fairfields." That may mean dulness, stagnation; it is not poverty. To dwell each half-dozen pages upon the youth and freshness of hero No. 2 may be pardoned, but when in addition he is described for the fourteenth time as "boyish," the insistence of epithet becomes ludicrous. Alice's father is so amazed at her growth during a three years' absence that he does not know her, but he has prepared as a surprise for her an elaborate dress, which fits to a marvel. In a novel, dress as a due accessory has its importance and is pleasing. Dress for its own sake becomes importunate, annoying. One who means to master the art of novel-writing might learn much from George Eliot and Miss Thackeray, who, though so different from each other, never make a mistake on this point. The whole subject of dress in fiction would be profitable to an essayist. Besides its value as a part of the picture of contemporary manners, it frequently curiously reveals the personal traits or associations of the writers themselves.

From fine phrases and strained self-questionings it is delightful to turn to the gentle simplicity of Mrs. Oliphant's people. True story-teller that she is, the coming of a new book of hers gives the same assurance of sweet, fresh pleasure as the tidings that the June roses are in bloom again. She takes us this time to Scotland, where we first knew 'Katie Stewart,' a life-time ago for some of us. There is old Sir Patrick, who lived twice as long as was expected, and his son, who was as old as himself. There is the manse, full of gay voices, whither, for the sake of the bonnie Katie, come "the lang-leggit laddies"; and the dim old manor-house where sit the ladies of Murkley, Margaret queening it bravely—queen-regent only, though she be—and Jean, that sweetest of all women, "an old maid who is still a young one." Above the village rises their father's folly, a great palace uninhabited and unfinished; white and splendid, but all naked, vacant, and silent. The hero is a *preux chevalier*, and the heroine, though with a very distinct self of her own, is another of the tender, impulsive, high-hearted girls whom Mrs. Oliphant has so long loved to draw.

Admit that the whole has a little the air of prearrangement, that things may not have fallen quite so of themselves, the picture is so attractive that we gladly lend ourselves to the illusion, and believe at least in the might-have-been. Mrs. Oliphant's scenes and people have always had a tender glamour over them, yet not a light of dreams nor of faery. It is like what this *preux chevalier* sees as he comes driving into Murkley village late in the summer evening of the Far North, "when it is sae lang light." "In that wonderful light everything had been softened and beautified—a sort of living romance was in the air; and the evening softness, and the strange magic of the lingering light, had given a charm to everything." More stirring tales will be sought for respite or forgetting in the midst of hard work, but these peaceful chronicles will beguile the long afternoons of youth's summer holiday, or solace the hours of age when the work is all done. *Grata quies.*

'Criquette' is a tale of theatrical life. It discusses incidentally and with cold and bitter sarcasm social conditions not freely discussed in American novels intended chiefly to be read by that curious entity, the Young Girl. Criquette herself is as innocent and as good in her way as was the Abbé Constantin in his way. We see her first a tiny child in the streets, before she made her appearance in a fairy spectacle at the Porte St.-Martin as a pert little princess. We see her after she has left the stage and entered a convent to be educated. We see her when she runs away again to go back on the stage. We see her at last when she goes forth to death to save the life she loves. Around Criquette hangs a whole gallery of theatrical portraits—Pascal, who is her first defender, Leruche, the old manager who had created four parts at the Théâtre-Français, and his sister, and the leading actor, whose wife scolded the young ladies who resisted his fascinations. All the minor characters are drawn with a firm touch and an extraordinarily clear sense of humor. Altogether, 'Criquette' is a stronger piece of work than the 'Abbé Constantin,' though certainly less adapted to be made a text-book in American schools for young ladies.

M. Zola's new novel is just the reverse of M. Halévy's, being both dull and dirty. Of all his works it is the least readable. It lacks interest. The story is weak and it is feebly told; yet the idea of it was fertile. Just as in 'Pot-Bouille' M. Zola confined most of his action and nearly all of his characters to one dwelling, so in the 'Bonheur des Dames' he confines them to one huge shop. His story tells of the growth of one of the gigantic bazaars dear to all good Americans in Paris—the "Bon Marché" or the "Louvre." We might call it a French version of the 'House of a Merchant Prince,' except that the French Merchant Prince is a retailer, and that the only ship whose commerce concerns him is that on the arms of Paris. Here is a subject worthy of Balzac, whose name is ever at the end of M. Zola's pen whenever the novelist turns critic; and what Balzac would have made of it we can imagine. But we are reminded rather of Rétif de la Bretonne. M. Zola's moral code is as bad as Rétif's, and yet he lacks the straightforward and honest frankness of his predecessor. It was announced that M. Zola had heard the call to repentance, and that the 'Bonheur des Dames' was to prove that he, too, could abjure sack and write cleanly, if he would; and it is true that the book is much less offensive than its forerunners. But it is disfigured by the same hopelessly low tone, by the same disbelief in any nobility of thought, word, or deed, by the same grovelling incapacity to be clean, even when cleanliness is the most marketable quality.

WALFORD'S INSURANCE CYCLOPÆDIA.

The Insurance Cyclopedia. By Cornelius Walford, F.I.A., F.S.S., Barrister-at-Law. London: Charles & Edwin Layton; New York: The *Spectator* Company.

MUCH of the confusion in Probabilities is owing to the lack of distinction of its subdivisions. As a matter of fact, the science has three branches so distinct that the methods of the one apply only in part to the others. The first of these branches is the science of the Chances in which the probability of a single event is considered. Such is the probability of any given throw of dice or turn of cards. It may be applied to human events, as, to the outcome of a business enterprise or the probable time of death of an individual, and the attempt has been made to apply it to judicial affairs. This branch of the science depends for its certainty on the amount of our knowledge, and its results are but the expression of our ignorance. When applied to practical affairs, it has been justly accused of taking the nature of gambling.

The second branch is the science of the Mean, in which the most probable result is drawn from many measurements of an individual object. The circumference of the earth is absolute, and could be expressed, if known, to the fraction of an inch, but its measurement is subject to a large number of errors which we are unable entirely to eliminate. Different measurements give results which, when made with all possible accuracy, differ from each other. The question then is, What is the most probable value as shown by these measurements? and it is this question which

the science of the Mean enables us to answer. In this division falls the theory of errors.

The last is the science of Averages. The preceding is applied to things which have an absolute though unattainable value. The science of averages gives simply representative values to things in themselves different. The first branch, then, gives the measure of certainty, the second the certainty of measurements, and this, approximation to a type. The first and second deal with individuals, this with large numbers. There is no absolute length for rivers, nor height for mountains, nor weight for horses, nor stature for men, but there is in each case an average value. It may not be true for any individual, but it represents that feature of the class, and the larger the number of individuals employed in getting it, the more nearly representative does it become.

It is to the last branch that belong the deductions from statistics. The demonstration of their stability is now more than a century and a half old. Their development in the hands of many eminent men, notably in those of Quetelet, has brought out into plain view the curious certainty of events among large numbers of men. For any given country the number of births, deaths, suicides, dwarfs, blind, is almost invariable from year to year or province to province, and is determined by the average of human emotions, passions, and contingencies. Thus it is possible to predict with a great approach to accuracy how many suicides will occur in France or Germany next year. It is not, however, possible to point out the individuals who will commit this crime. Here lies the moral advantage of financial ventures founded on the third over those founded on the first branch of probabilities. For the former the event, being an average, is fairly certain; for the latter the event is uncertain. The former is a fair business venture, the latter is a wager.

Walford's 'Cyclopedia' is a book which gives, with unusual fulness and accuracy, the raw materials for one part of the science of averages—viz., that part which relates to human misfortunes, casualties, disease, death, and to the business of insuring against them. It treats of marine, fire, health, accident, and life insurance, and contains much interesting information concerning the kinds of so-called insurance which properly come under the first branch of probabilities and are really forms of gambling. The author has planned the work on no small scale. It is not only a dictionary of the terms used in insurance, but it is also full in the biography, bibliography, and history of the subjects, and is a compendium of vital statistics. The author ranges with fair fulness and accuracy from Harvey to the Gunpowder Plot, from Alkali Works to Comets and Cyclones, from Contentment and Education to the Crusades and Spontaneous Generation, affording a curious illustration of how a technical and apparently limited subject grasps deeply into many other branches of science and literature. The political economist will find here the fullest collection of tables ever made relating to mortality, to health and disease, and to casualties. He can glean from important articles on the Census and on Consols. He will find extensive tables of great fires (ninety pages), of famines, floods, hailstorms, and great frosts. He will have fifty-three pages concerning the curious English Gilds and 373 pages on Friendly Societies. The physician has long articles on Cholera, Consumption, Death, Disease, Fevers, Health, and so on. The ordinary encyclopædias repeat one another, and the new ones are often only the old made over; but Mr. Walford is here ploughing a new field, and turns up gems and curiosities without number.

The work was first announced in 1866, and the first volume published in 1871. The sixth volume is now in course of publication. As it begins early in the letter H, the work must be about half completed, and, if finished, will consist of ten or twelve volumes. The volumes are thick—having 600 to 700 pages each—and the print fine. It is one of the largest literary enterprises ever undertaken by a single person; for internal evidence indicates that it is almost entirely the work of the author alone. As in some other literary ventures, Mr. Walford, having misgivings about its reception in England, "had an abiding consolation" in his belief in its hearty reception on this side of the Atlantic. Here, he says, it will find countless thousands of readers; for here, in Insurance as in everything else, the fact is recognized that knowledge is power. After this gratifying tribute to us, one is rather pained to hit upon the article "Actuaries, Institute of (Great Britain)," and find that while in England no one is allowed to practise as actuary until he has taken, and passed examination in, a stiff three years' course of preparation, here he becomes an actuary when he can find a board of directors who will appoint him. There the actuary is made, here he seems to be born, like a poet. The author has evidently made an attempt to be as full as possible on American affairs. He has given an abstract of the insurance laws of each State, under the heading of the State, and has much American information, under general and special headings, scattered through the work. On the other hand, the information concerning France and Germany is collected under a single heading, each with about one hundred pages.

In so large a work, and one which will prove so useful that its owner can dispense with most other books on its topic, it seems ungenerous to point out trivial errors and defects. There is, however, a serious fault of omission affecting all the volumes which have appeared up to this time. Dealing as this Cyclopædia does entirely with subjects appertaining directly or indirectly to mathematics, one would at least expect to find it instructive under purely mathematical headings. To many consulting the book a single formula would often mean more than a page of explanation. If there is a formula in these five large volumes, we have failed to discover it. One of the things which the statistician has often to do, is to eliminate fluctuations from crude tables and get out the succession of numbers which most nearly represent the natural law involved. This is a particularly important process for actuaries, and they have been prolific in methods of doing it. One would expect, in a work of this character, that at least their methods would be given with sufficient fulness to enable one to employ them without going back to original authorities, and that the methods invented by other statisticians would be at least sketched out for comparison. Nothing of the sort is done, however. We have articles on "Adjustment," "Fluctuations," "Graduation," etc., with abundant quotations concerning the methods; but for the methods themselves we are left to go to the original sources, and these are often inaccessible to the ordinary student. The author is not strong on the mathematical part of his subject. In the various headings on "Averages," he is correct in the maritime and fire parts, so far as we can follow him. There it is question of law and customs; but in the parts relating to mathematical average he gives indications of different views in different articles, but with no hint that these views are not only unlike, but irreconcilable. He has general custom behind him, but this is no sufficient excuse, for his entire work is directly or indirectly concerned with averages. The list of authors under "Differential Calculus" is incomplete, and unsatisfactory otherwise. As if it were not enough to sin in omission in this part of the work, he also sins in commission. What connection have "Barycentric Calculus," "Binary Arithmetic," "Chinese Arithmetic" with the subject; and why should they be admitted even in brief when so much useful matter is omitted? Many of the mathematical articles are not without interest. For instance, under "Chances" and "Calculating Machines," we have important historical summaries. There is still time to correct the general defect of which we have spoken. Nearly everything desirable could be brought into the future volumes under Probabilities, or even under separate headings, with little loss of systematic regularity.

For those interested in insurance, in whatever capacity, these volumes will prove a treasure. The author enumerates sixty-four different genera of insurance, under each of which we may have more than one species. Besides the great business of marine, accident, fire, and life insurance, there are others which have been to a small extent, or might profitably be, introduced into this country. Among these are health, cattle, baggage, parcels, fidelity, hail, forest, weather, plate-glass, and steam-boiler insurance. There can be nothing objectionable to other forms if they are conducted on business principles. Among such are insurances relating to domestic changes and to the value of property. As, however, in this country at least, they are usually employed for "confidence" or speculative purposes, and conducted on swindling or gambling principles, public opinion is, very properly, against them. Many interesting details are given of the various bubble and gambling insurance projects. These have related to bargains, christenings, expected profits, personal adventure, captivity, mercantile profits, losses by servants, the price of stocks, female beauty, and many others, some of which decency forbids us to mention. We do not find any heading for "Graveyard Insurance." This can hardly be a Yankee invention, unknown to so erudite a man as Mr. Walford. The mortality tables are given in large numbers and *in extenso*. The practical part of the business is not neglected, and we have either suggestive notes or important articles, under such headings as "Advertising," "Accounts," "Amalgamation of Offices," etc. The history of important companies is given in some detail. To the "Equitable Society" are devoted nearly a hundred pages, to "Annuities" and "Government Annuitants" about as many more, to "Female Life" fifty pages, to "Bottomry" twenty pages. It seems that so far as mortality is concerned, the "Clergy" is the favored class—due probably to their comparative freedom from anxiety concerning matters here and hereafter, and to the regular lives which both their duties and their professions cause them to lead. The author gives the subject twenty pages. On the other hand, as is shown here, "Clerks" (meaning of the mercantile class) have a decidedly unfavorable mortality.

It is inherent in the nature of such a work that it should contain curious and rare bits of information in sufficient number to make it a mine of wealth to a Notes-and-Queries man or newspaper paragrapher. Apropos of the recent great fires and the unusual loss of life in some cases, and of the consequent flood of so-called inventions of fire-escapes, our author shows us that this field has been carefully tilled for a century or more, and is now about exhausted. His classification (borrowed from Brand) of fire-escapes into two classes—viz., those requiring the aid of outsiders, and those which can be worked, without aid, by the occupants of a burning building—might be supplemented by a third class

more important than the other two—viz., those fastened permanently to the building, as external ladders and balconies. Of the first class, the most useful are the telescoping ladders and the "shoots." The latter are usually of canvas, in which the velocity of fall can be regulated by spreading the elbows and knees, but to which the two objections apply that they are inflammable, and that the air offers obstruction to their movement from window to window. An attempt has been made to remedy these objections by making them of a network of copper wire in one case, and in another by a tube of iron with network compartments descending on an endless chain, the speed of which can be controlled. Of the second class there seems to be nothing on the whole better than a knotted rope or rope ladder with the means of fastening it to the window-sill. What is now wanted would seem to be not novel and ingenious fire-escapes, but the general adoption of a single form, or a few simple forms, with which both firemen and the public could become perfectly familiar by frequent public exhibitions and through the public prints. A person in imminent danger of death by fire is not in a fit condition to investigate a new and complicated fire-escape, though it might be well adapted to his wants if he knew how to use it.

It is not generally known that Babbage found so many centenarians that he was enabled to construct a centenary mortality table, the highest age in which is 150. The table was formed from 1,751 fairly authentic cases, the most of them from the last century. The perennial crop of newspaper centenarians has not even novelty to recommend it. It seems that marine insurance has a feline aspect. While a cat is alive on the ship, an old English law declares that the ship cannot be a "wreck." Besides, each captain is bound to have a cat on board a ship infested with rats. As it is stated that in 1871 London had 700,000 cats, it would seem that there would be no difficulty there in obtaining the fellow-voyager required by law. It appears that Cocker never saw the arithmetic on which his fame rests. It was published in 1677, the year of, but after, his death. The fortieth edition was published in 1723, and many editions have appeared since. Under "Family," we have a large number of interesting details. The most remarkable family recorded is that of an English bleacher named Pearson. He was married four times and had by each of his first three wives thirteen children, and by his last fourteen, making a total of fifty-three. Of polygamous marriages Mr. Walford gives the result in the case of a certain Kimball, whose administrators, according to their report, filed in 1869 in Salt Lake City, found forty-one children. But we refrain from going further, though the temptation is almost irresistible.

Linguistic Essays. By Carl Abel, Ph.D. London: Trübner & Co.; Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1882. 8vo, pp. vii.–265.

In 1859, Dr. M. Lazarus, Professor of Psychology in the University of Bern, and Dr. H. Steinthal, Privat-docent of General Philology in the University of Berlin, issued a prospectus of a magazine entitled *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenschaft*, which in due time was issued by the publishing-house of Ferd. Dümmler in Berlin. The chief object of the magazine was to discover and explain the psychological characteristics of the different races, nations, or peoples of the earth. The editors intended to lay the foundations, and proceed as far as possible in the construction, of a new science, which should investigate mental phenomena from a social instead of an individual point of view. To accomplish this, they announced their intention of laying under contribution everything relating to the history, manners, and customs, institutions, literature, art, science, and (above all, if not including all) language of each people. They maintained that the language of a people represents most fully and completely the view which that people takes of all things about which the mind of the people has concerned itself. In short, a complete knowledge of the language of a people carries with it a knowledge of all that people has been or is.

How far the editors succeeded in establishing and developing their new science it is not our purpose, nor is this the place, to inquire. They certainly succeeded in making a very interesting magazine, and among the contributors to it have been many of the ablest writers of Germany—philosophers, historians, jurists, critics in art and literature, and especially philologists. These "Linguistic Essays" of Dr. Abel were intended to form a contribution to the new science of *Völkerpsychologie*. But it would certainly be unjust to Messrs. Lazarus and Steinthal and their disciples to form a judgment of the methods and possibilities of the science from the work of Dr. Abel. It consists of ten essays, most of which have heretofore been communicated to the public through various channels. It is difficult to see for what reason the volume has been included in the "Oriental Series" of Trübner & Co. The thirty-odd volumes of that series which have already been published, with perhaps the single exception of Dr. Hahn's book on the religion and mythology of Southern Africa, have all been of a strictly Oriental character. But of the present volume, all, except a very small portion, has nothing specially Oriental about it. Much of it, however, is entertaining, ingenious, acute, suggestive, but not scientific.

In his first essay Dr. Abel compares the manner in which the French use their word *ami* and the Germans their corresponding word, *Freund*. This essay is interesting—sometimes even amusing; but it is evident that the writer has throughout been guided, perhaps unconsciously, by his preconceived notions of the differences in the character of the two nations. The second essay is entitled "The Conception of Love in Some Ancient and Modern Languages." The languages treated are the Latin, English, Hebrew, and Russian. Under the conception of love in English, for example, are included the emotions expressed by the words love, affection, charity, fondness, passion, liking, and attachment, and the meanings of all these words are elaborately discussed. But patriotism, friendship, philanthropy, and many others, might have been included with as much propriety as "charity." In an appendix to this essay Dr. Abel cites a large number of passages in support of his views from writers in the languages mentioned, each accompanied by an English translation. But the freedom of his translations often amounts to "perfect looseness." We would not assert that Dr. Abel has not a competent knowledge of Latin, Russian, and Hebrew, but certainly some of his translations from the Latin, if made by a Freshman, would receive a mark far below "max."

The third essay treats of "The English Verbs of Command"—to wit, the eleven verbs, command, order, enjoin, bid, ordain, decree, dictate, prescribe, direct, charge, and appoint. This is the longest essay in the book, and the distinctions between these words are discussed with much acuteness, and generally with correctness. But there is one great defect in their treatment which is more or less observable in almost all the other essays. Of the history of words either Dr. Abel knows little or does not care to make any use of what he knows. None of the words in question are traced to the roots from which they have sprung. Their original meanings, and the various ways in which those meanings have been modified, are nowhere pointed out, and yet it is precisely this knowledge which would seem to be of the highest importance, either in arriving at an exact comprehension of the meaning of the words, or in ascertaining what light they throw upon the workings of the English mind.

The limits of our space compel us to pass over several of the essays with a mere indication of their subjects. The fourth treats of "The Discrimination of Synonyms"; the fifth, "Of Philological Methods"; the sixth, of "The Connection between Dictionary and Grammar"; the seventh, of "The Possibility of a Common Literary Language for the Slav Nations," as to which Dr. Abel concludes that it can come about only by the general adoption of the Russian by the other Slav nations. We presume that no impartial observer will feel the least inclination to question this conclusion. Whether this result—manifestly the only one possible—is itself attainable, is a question which the future alone can solve. The eighth essay treats of "Coptic Intensification"; the ninth, of "The Origin of Language"; the tenth and last, of "The Order and Position of Words in the Latin Sentence." Discussions of the origin of language have of late years been regarded with great disfavor by philologists. The opinion is daily gaining ground that the time for grappling successfully with this question has not yet arrived. The historical development of written languages, and especially the organism of barbarous languages spoken by peoples who have not yet attained that stage of development which produces writing, must be much more carefully investigated than they have been, before any sound conclusions can be attained. Dr. Abel's essay is open to the same criticism to which all previous attempts are subject: they all proceed upon the express or implied assumption that at some time there have been communities of human beings essentially the same as ourselves, but destitute of language. No such people exists anywhere on the face of the earth, and there is not a particle of evidence, of the slightest scientific value, that any such people ever has existed. It is possible that Dr. Abel's essay may be of some utility in calling attention to the condition of language at that stage when writing begins to be developed; but the origin of language lies a long way back of this, and requires a far different course of studies.

Dr. Abel writes very good English, and much of his book will prove entertaining to the general reader. It may give some useful hints and suggest some subjects for profitable investigation even to philologists, but its positive contributions to science are of little account.

Das Land der Inca in seiner Bedeutung für die Urgeschichte der Sprache und Schrift. Von Rudolf Falb. Leipzig: J. J. Weber. 1883. 8vo, xxxvi. and 455 pages. Illustrated by woodcuts.

The promoter of the lunisolar theory of earthquakes, Rudolf Falb, originally a Styrian priest, is also the renewer of the exploded theory of an ancient ethnic connection between the Aryans and the Peruvians in race and form of speech. Nothing daunted by the unanimous condemnation of Lopez's unscientific Aryan-Kechua dictionary (1871) by competent critics, Falb attempts to reconstruct the oldest phonetic forms, which "were the common property of both stocks," in the dilettante publication whose title we give above. His knowledge of the Peruvian

languages is limited to a smattering of two dialects only—the Kechua and the Aimará; and, instead of studying first the numerous other Kechua dialects as a safe basis for a comparative grammar, he set himself to work comparing what he fancies to be their primordial forms with those of languages known to us from a period preceding by twenty or thirty centuries his two Peruvian dialects.

But let us look at the results. The reconstruction of the earliest sounds in the beginning of oral language is, according to Falb's theory, as follows (p. 306): From the earliest and primary sound, rh, were first evolved hva, ra, and dsa. From hva—a sound of paramount importance in Falb's system—were evolved ua, va, ga; from ra: la, ya; from the "spitting sound" dsa: da, sa. The further developments are as follows: from va came fa and wa; from the latter, ba, pa, ma; from ga originated the guttural sounds; from da: na, ta. Why the sonant mutes should be more ancient than the corresponding surd sounds, is just as enigmatic to us as why our author makes different sounds of hva, ua, and wa, which are *de facto* identical in all Indian languages. But the functions of his "primary syllable," hua (why not hva, as before ?), are still more wonderful, for he states (p. 162) that hua signifies any kind of radiation or indentation—hand, breath, star, rain; the reduplicated form huahua becomes *huara*, and from it is formed huarana, or, in contracted form, *huana*. These two are the great roots from which Falb's genius derives a stupendous array of words from the most disparate Aryan, Semitic, Egyptian, Basque, and Peruvian dialects, without paying any regard to their older forms as known to us. From *huara* spring χείρ, gêr, Wehr, aurum, aurora, fire, Feuer, vier, vir, parĕre, parare, puer; the Sanskrit terms kara (head), vara (man), from which our baron, varón, herus; Semitic words like or (light), barâ (to prepare), and the Aimará huarahuara, *star* and *red at dawn*. From huana Falb derives γονεία, generatio, sun and son (both being sa-huana, or "double huana"); sol (Lat.), which is sa-huala, the Kechua huano (excrement, manure), the Aimará kauna (egg), the Chinese man (lance), and a Tatar and a Basque word to boot. Readers not satisfied with this brilliant array of erudition will be gratified, in reading further, to learn that there is a connection between the Kechua words cacha, *salt*, and cocha, *ocean*, and that θάλαττα is the radix of salt and Selters-water (p. 8).

Exactly the same sort of chaff is contained in the archæological and ethnographic portions of the volume, both of which are thickly interspersed with the peculiar linguistic views of the author. A profusion of elaborate sculptures referring to ancient worship render the gate of Tiahuanaco (near Lake Titicaca) the most important architectural monument of these countries. One of these carvings, the "Weeping Sungod," holds in his right hand a sceptre-shaped object resembling a capital Y. Falb regards it as a double snake and as a bundle of lightnings (p. 48, etc.), thinking that it was meant for the "sickle of death," because in Sanskrit we should call it *suna*, weapon of death. He is very liberal in giving us various etymologies of the name Tiahuanaco, which has evidently had some mystic attraction for the investigator, judging from the great number of passages devoted to it. He explains it on p. 51 by seat of death; on p. 205 by cave of the treasure, *or* cavern-treasure; on p. 233 by seat of the phœnix *or* of the Phœnician; seat of the procreator, seat of primitive man, of the wild man; finally, by seat of the rabbit.

The above extracts will give a general idea of one of a too numerous class of works which encumber the book-market, to the great detriment of genuine scientific publications.

An Anglo-Saxon Dictionary, based on the Manuscript Collections of the late Joseph Bosworth, D.D., etc. Edited and enlarged by T. Northcote Toller, M.A., late Fellow of Christ's College, Cambridge, and Smith Professor of English in the Owens College, Manchester. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press; London: Henry Frowde. 1882. Parts 1 and 2. A–Hwi.

TOLLER'S edition of Bosworth's Anglo-Saxon Dictionary is a useful book. In the present state of Anglo-Saxon lexicography, indeed, it is indispensable to all students of that language; but it is a great disappointment, nevertheless. Those who knew Bosworth's work knew, of course, that he would have no adequate materials for a comprehensive scientific dictionary. But there is the most urgent need of a good manual for general readers and for academic use. All our good colleges, and many academies, have classes in Anglo-Saxon, and yet there is no dictionary accessible; for Bosworth's 'Compendious Dictionary' does not deserve the name.

Bosworth, if no scientific philologist, was an enthusiastic and indefatigable worker in Anglo-Saxon, and it was hoped that he had left material which a competent editor might work over into a good handbook for general use. But this book has the bulk and cost of a philological reference-dictionary. The contents are open to the criticism which has been so freely dealt out to Bosworth for want of critical spirit and scientific mastery of his material. The articles in this book look like an undigested mass of Bosworth heaped with unassimilated layers of Grein. But it improves as it goes on; and it will answer a good purpose till Mr. Sweet, or Prof. Skeat, or some of the young Germans or Americans who are now devoting themselves to English studies, make us a dictionary which is a dictionary, and find a publisher for it.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barnard, F. A. P. Perpetual Calendar. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 40 cents.
Bell, H. T. M. Verses of Varied Life. London: Elliot Stock.
Bowles, T. G. Flotsam and Jetsam. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Butterfield, C. W. Washington-Irvine Correspondence. Madison, Wis.: David Atwood.
Bush, C. G. Our Choir. A Symphonie in A, B, C, D, Flats and Sharps, Major or Minor. Opus 1881. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Carr, J. C. Modern Landscape. London: Remington & Co.
Carter, Agnes L. The White Nun, and Other Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Cheever, G. B. God's Timepiece for Man's Eternity. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1 50.
Cobb, J. F. Martin the Skipper: a Tale for Boys and Seafaring Folk. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1 25.
Cooley, T. M. A Treatise on the Constitutional Limitations which Rest upon the Legislative Powers of the States of the American Union. 5th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Cox, S. S. Why We Laugh. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Dix, Rev. M. Lectures on the Calling of a Christian Woman. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Eastlake, C. L. Notes on the Principal Pictures in the Louvre Gallery at Paris, and in the Brera Gallery at Milan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Edwards, H. A Mingled Yarn. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. xv. Loo-Mem. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Fall, C. G. Employers' Liability for Personal Injury to their Employees. Boston: A. Williams & Co. 50 cts.
Fanchette. By One of Her Admirers. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Figuier, L. L'Année Scientifique et Industrielle. 1882. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions. Vol. xlii. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Harris, J. R. New Testament Autographs. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University, 50 cents.
Hartelius, Prof. T. J. Home Gymnastics. With a Short Method of Acquiring the Art of Swimming. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.
Hawthorne, N. The Scarlet Letter, and Blithedale Romance. The Marble Faun. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2 each.
Hazeltine, M. W. Chats about Books, Poets, and Novelists. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 50.
Howard, J. Respiratory Control: The Breath in Singing and Speaking. Albany: E. S. Werner.
Howells, W. D. The Sleeping-Car: a Farce. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 30 cents.
Johnson, S. Lectures, Essays, and Sermons. With a Memoir by Samuel Longfellow. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
McCreery, J. L. Songs of Toil and Triumph. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
McLane, W. W. The Cross in the Light of To-day. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 12, 1883.

The Week.

THE appointment of Judge Walter Q. Gresham, of Indiana, as Postmaster-General, has been received with no little satisfaction by the public, partly on account of its inherent merit, and partly because it entirely dispels the fears, entertained by some, of much worse things that might have happened. Mr. Gresham has been a patriotic and brave soldier and a good judge; and as a politician he has not belonged to the class of narrow-minded, hide-bound partisans. He has had but little, if any, opportunity to prove his administrative capacity, but it may be taken for granted that he will take hold of the business of the Department which he is to conduct, with a firm determination to have it honestly and efficiently done. The appointment reflects credit upon the President. And if it is true, as reported, that Mr. New, one of the Assistant Secretaries of the Treasury, and Mr. Hatton, the well-known Assistant Postmaster-General, are dissatisfied with it—the former, as an Indiana man, because it shuts him out from a Cabinet appointment for which he is ambitious, and the latter because he would have liked to be Postmaster-General himself—this circumstance will not disturb the general contentment. On the contrary, it is hoped that Mr. Hatton will not be permitted to play such pranks under Postmaster-General Gresham as he did under Postmaster-General Howe.

The State election in Rhode Island on Wednesday resulted in the defeat of the combined Democrats and Independents, under the lead of ex-Senator Sprague, by a considerable majority—considerable at least for Rhode Island. This result will be generally regarded as a defeat for General Butler, who appeared on the scene as ex-Senator Sprague's main champion, for the purpose, as was widely reported and believed, of securing for himself the Rhode Island delegation in the next National Convention of the Democratic party. The morning papers publish a declaration from General Butler, emphatically denying that he is a candidate for the Presidency. This denial will not meet with as much incredulity now as it would have done last week. He is, however, working hard to recover some of the ground he has recently lost, by the investigation of certain abuses in the management of the Tewkesbury Almshouse, the outcome of which threatens to be quite sensational. No greater mistake could be made by the Investigating Committee of the Legislature than to permit itself to be put in the attitude of defending the abuses against the charges made by the Governor. If any abuses exist, the Legislative Committee should show such zeal in exposing them, with a view to their correction, as to make all outside stimulus appear superfluous.

Governor Butler defends himself against the very severe strictures which the clergy have been making on his Fast-Day proclamation, by announcing that he played them something in the nature of a trick by taking as his model a proclamation issued by one of his predecessors in 1810; but admits that he inserted the warning against preaching on political topics, which in 1810 would not have been necessary, because the clergy avoided such topics at that time. We suspect he is greatly mistaken on this point. The Massachusetts ministers were great politicians from the beginning down to 1810 and later, and one result of their political activity was the absence of Butler. His growth would have been impossible when they were in their heyday, or, if he had appeared, he certainly would have caught it in a way of which the sermons last Fast Day give but little idea. The Massachusetts ministers, indeed, as everybody knows who has perused any of their sermons about Jefferson, the Democrats, or the French Revolution, were not mealy-mouthed in old times in talking about such a son of Belial as Butler would have seemed to them to be at any period, and as he undoubtedly is. Nobody, in any age, who looks at him from an ecclesiastical point of view, and feels bound to characterize him, can avoid using language of great strength.

Last week we recorded the removal of General Trowbridge from the office of Collector of Internal Revenue at Detroit, Michigan, as one of the most glaring and inexcusable violations of all sound civil-service principles on the part of the Administration. A Detroit paper now publishes the correspondence between General Trowbridge and General Green B. Raum, the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, which preceded the removal, and puts the arbitrary character of the latter in the strongest light. On March 21 Mr. Raum telegraphed to General Trowbridge: "I am directed by the President to inform you that he has concluded to ask you to send in your resignation as Collector of Internal Revenue. Please reply to me by telegraph to-day." General Trowbridge promptly answered this curt message by saying that while he entertained the highest respect for the President, he declined to comply with the request for his resignation, and would give his reasons in full by letter. But Mr. Raum could not wait for those reasons. He forthwith telegraphed to General Trowbridge: "I regret your declination, and hope you will at once reconsider it and telegraph your resignation on receipt of this date." But General Trowbridge declined again, saying that he was not conscious of any act that would justify a demand for his resignation; that he had "served the Government faithfully in war and in peace," and that he was "unwilling to leave that service under the implied appearance of a forced resignation." And in the letter giving his reasons more fully he modestly but firmly declined again to resign, and then added: "During my administration I have received from you the most flattering commendations, and have been told that my office was second to none in the country in point of efficiency and good management. On the other hand, my administration has been such as to receive the unqualified endorsement of the entire body of the taxpayers who had business with the office. With a unanimity truly surprising, they have protested against any change in this office. There is, therefore, no reason connected with the public service why I should resign, at least so far as I know." Neither General Raum nor President Arthur could say in reply that there was any such reason. But General Trowbridge was simply removed and a favorite of Senator Conger put in his place.

A report of the Assembly Committee on Public Education—the only report, it is said, which that Committee has made this year—recommends the following important and encouraging bill:

> "Any person who shall sell, loan, or give to any minor under sixteen years of age any dime-novel or book of fiction, without first obtaining the written consent of the parent or guardian of such minor, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, punishable by imprisonment or by a fine not to exceed fifty dollars."

The determination shown in this to arrest not only the sale, but the reading, not simply of pernicious literature, but of all fiction, among the young of both sexes, proves that there are probably far more friends of virtue in the Assembly than the public has been in the habit of supposing. The author of the report is Mr. Abel Goddard, of St. Lawrence County, a gentleman hitherto little known, but, unless all the usual signs of greatness are deceptive, destined to fill a large place in American history. He is just the kind of man of whom the new school of historians, like Green and McMaster, will make much, and with good reason. What we like most in the bill is the evidence it affords that Mr. Goddard himself is a man of serious tastes, who reads for mental discipline, rather than to kill time, as most readers, we fear, do. There are, we fancy, not many persons among us whose acquaintance with the literature of fiction is as meritoriously slight as his seems to be. He is evidently under the impression that the term "dime novel" is a generic name, and covers all tales. Hence his stringent but healthy provision for putting anybody in jail who lends "Ivanhoe" or "Robinson Crusoe" to a boy of sixteen without receiving a written request to do so from the youth's papa or mamma. Indeed, it looks as if fiction and liquor were mixed in Mr. Goddard's mind in a vague way, as synonymous terms.

The keen competition of the law continually produces ingenious novel devices for getting the better of an antagonist. According to the *Legal Adviser* of Chicago, the lawyers of that city have got what is regarded as a "new racket," viz.:

> "when the lawyer for the plaintiff is making his closing speech, to constantly interrupt the speaker, and protest both as to the line of argument and language made use of, and demanding of the Court to rule both as to the fitness and propriety of the argument and the correctness of the statements made, whatever they are, and

excepting to the rulings of the judge and making up a bill of exceptions and taking the case up on such exceptions."

This seems to be a very neat way of trying the whole case twice over; but it must have a bad effect on forensic eloquence. We doubt if the greatest orators at the bar the world has ever produced would be able to do themselves any justice in addressing the jury, if such a "racket" were to become a recognized part of a trial. An impassioned appeal to the feelings, for instance, in a murder or breach-of-promise case, continually interrupted by disputes over its fitness and propriety, and by requests to the judge to "note an exception," would lose much of its effect. All the traditions of the profession, from the days of Cicero to those of Howe & Hummel, seem to be opposed to this new "racket."

The showing of the Augustinian Fathers in Massachusetts of the results of their savings bank operations is very melancholy reading. Their liabilities to their depositors are, they say, $455,000. This sum, with a mortgage of $60,000, has been put into four parsonages, churches, and schools, which are called the "assets," and are valued at $569,000; but it is admitted that if sold now they would not bring $28,450, or five per cent. of the total debt. It is rather difficult to understand the state of mind of the Fathers when disposing of the poor people's money in this way. It is impossible to believe that it was one of pure recklessness, and that as long as they got the money into churches they did not care what became of the depositors. We incline to believe that, if the truth were known, the Fathers would be found to have been the victims of that great and curious delusion about "basing," which had so much to do with diffusing the greenback craze after the war. The Greenbackers have always maintained that as long as promissory notes were "based" on tangible property, you might issue any amount of them whatever; that, for instance, you might issue an amount equal in nominal value to the real value of all the property in the country, and they would then be "based" on the property. If you asked them what they meant by "based," they would say that they were issued "against the property," or that the property was "there" to meet them, but would always admit that you could not exchange them for the property, or any part of it, so that the "basing" really established no connection, except in the mind of the holder, between the paper money and anything else in the world. The "basing" idea probably got hold of the Fathers, and they thought that as the churches and parsonages were there, the claims of the depositors were "based" on them, and so all was right.

International "events" like the late balk-line billiard tournament for the championship of the world would be more impressive and interesting to the nations concerned if they were not so frequently and indeed customarily followed by charges of "fraud." There seems to be no real reason for doubting the fairness of the game in which Vignaux was defeated by Schaefer; but Vignaux was playing in a foreign country, and watched by a foreign audience, and besides this he was beaten. According to all precedent, this is quite enough as a foundation for the gravest charges. Owing to the fact that with nine-tenths of sporting men sport is entirely a matter of dollars and cents, what may be called the business view of an international contest must be very prevalent. One of the correspondents writing about Vignaux and Schaefer remarks that the contest was so close that "either player by selling the game could have made himself comfortable for life"—much as if a transaction of this sort was an every-day occurrence among champions, and that therefore the sense of honor shown by Schaefer and Vignaux in not making a "deal" was little less than sublime. Every country will doubtless in the long run take most pride and interest in those of its champions who refrain from selling their games.

Fine weather at the West has made an improvement in crop prospects, especially for winter wheat, though the general condition of that crop, as shown by the United States Agricultural Bureau report on Tuesday, the 10th instant, is below that of last year. Reports from the West also show that the seeding of spring wheat has made good progress, and that the area this year will be largely increased over last year's. Large numbers of immigrants are already moving into Minnesota, Dakota, Nebraska, and Northern Texas, and the general aspect of trade and industrial affairs at the West is very encouraging. Within the past week the money market has become decidedly easier, and rates for discount of mercantile paper have declined one-half per cent. Easier money has enabled merchants to remit on foreign account, and rates of foreign exchange have advanced about 2 cents on the pound. There has been an increased demand for investment in railroad bonds, which have advanced from 1 to 4 per cent. The greater part of this investment has been of a speculative character, in bonds which are below par, and the future of which depends on the prospective business of the railroads issuing them. Within the past few days the speculative disposition above mentioned has apparently extended to railroad stocks. Monday was the most active day in the stock market thus far this year. The general advance of prices of stocks in the past week has been from 1 to 5 per cent. Those which have advanced the most have been Burlington and Quincy, Milwaukee and St. Paul, Louisville and Nashville, Delaware, Lackawanna and Western, Union Pacific, Central Pacific, Missouri Pacific, and Lake Shore.

The British budget for 1883 shows the financial condition of the Empire to be extremely satisfactory, notwithstanding the strain put upon its resources by the war in Egypt, the disturbed condition of Ireland, and the arrearages incurred under the Beaconsfield Government. The national debt has been reduced during the year by about £7,100,000, and a further reduction of £8,000,000 is expected this year. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, Mr. Childers, said that the debt, which is now £762,000,000, might be reduced £172,000,000 during the next twenty years without difficulty. The revenue for the year was £89,000,000, and the expenditure, including debt reduction, £88,900,000. The expenditure on account of the Egyptian campaign was £3,896,000. The Chancellor proposed sundry reductions of taxation, the most important of which was a reduction of the income tax by three half-pence. He also thought that the charge for telegrams within the United Kingdom might be reduced to sixpence—the existing rate being one shilling for twenty words, counting the address and signature. The report was received by the House of Commons "with loud and prolonged cheers"—which is not surprising when we reflect upon the great deficit left by the Tory administration as the result of its "spirited foreign policy" in Turkey, Afghanistan, and South Africa. The most significant part of Mr. Childers's showing is that which looks toward the eventual payment and extinction of the national debt. The example of the United States has had a great and beneficial influence upon the mother country in this behalf. The fact that American 3 per cents sell higher than British 3s was commented upon by the *Economist* lately as a phenomenon which could only be ascribed to the persistent debt-paying policy of the United States.

The nitro-glycerine discoveries in England are very startling, and may well alarm people, and cause much doubling of guards and patrols and great detective activity. But then the facility with which, apparently, the explosive factories are discovered shows what difficulties the laborers in this field have to contend with, and indicates, perhaps, that the world is unnecessarily frightened by them. Nothing is easier than to hire a house and begin compounding dynamite in it, but the dynamite in the factory is of no use to the conspirators. It has to be transported considerable distances in order to serve their purpose, and is a very ticklish thing to transport even in small quantities, and a quantity of it large enough to do real execution is large enough to attract attention. It has, moreover, in order to terrify tyrants thoroughly, to be placed in or rather under their lairs, so that when it explodes it may rend the building completely, like the explosion in the cellar of the Winter Palace; but it is no easy matter to get a snug keg or can of dynamite into a tyrant's basement and explode it without damage to the conspirator himself. Most of the Fenian attempts in England have failed. The two successful ones—that at the Clerkenwell Prison and that the other day in Westminster—were poor affairs, owing to the explosive having been placed outside in the street and in small quantity. The quantity was small, doubtless, because it was all a man could carry without attracting notice, and because a large quantity would be liable to concussions or other accidents which would convert the patriot carrying it into vapor.

What the dynamite party now need is resolute men, willing to sacrifice themselves in the cause of liberty. Their explosives have apparently nearly reached perfection; all that is now wanting is people to touch them off who

do not object to being blown up themselves. Such men could carry dynamite anywhere. They could rush into the Houses of Parliament or into the Home Office, with their pockets full of it, before any one suspected or could stop them, and apply the match or electric spark, or whatever it is, the minute a policeman touched them; and the result would be a vacant lot on which St. Stephen's once stood. In other words, the great difficulty in the way of the dynamite reform is the old one, which has always stood in the way of so much evil and so much good—the unwillingness of men to face certain death. Men willing to run great risks abound everywhere. Volunteers for the most desperate forlorn hope can always be had for the asking, but to get them there must always be a chance that at least one man will escape. The dynamite war, if carried on effectively, would offer no such chance. Anybody who goes into a basement with a can of nitro-glycerine and personally superintends its operation as a liberator of the oppressed, is sure not to see the fruits of his toil. The Russian Nihilists are apparently not far from being able to command the services of such desperadoes, but they are only possible under a régime of such extreme repression as exists in Russia. In countries in which speech is free, such types rarely show themselves, no matter how great the popular discontent may be. It is silent or secret brooding which produces the real political fanatic or martyr. When the malcontent can publicly fume, and rave, and threaten, as he does in England and France and in this country, he hardly ever makes up his mind to much personal sacrifice in the cause. He enjoys talking to the reporters, and being described and pointed out as the implacable enemy of kings and capitalists, too much to be willing to quit a world in which notoriety can be had so cheaply.

The promptness with which Sir William Harcourt's Explosives Bill was passed in Parliament, the cheers with which it was greeted, and the rapidity with which it obtained the royal assent, show how deeply the public mind has been stirred not simply by the explosion at Westminster, but by the discoveries of the police at Birmingham. It was certainly high time for some such legislation, as the previous penalty for keeping or preparing explosives without a license was only two years' imprisonment, and was intended merely to be a preventive of accidents. Michael Davitt has again raised his voice against the dynamite policy, but neither his protests nor those of Mr. Sullivan, or in fact of anybody in England or Ireland, seem to produce any impression on the Irish agitators here. As far as one can judge from their public expressions, they are highly delighted with the panic created by the conspirators in England, and we have no doubt this feeling exists among thousands of the Irish who would not join in the dynamite conspiracy, or give money for explosives. They like to see the English scared and made uncomfortable, especially if it can be done without loss of life or destruction of property; but they like to see it in any case, and believe that in this way the British public will eventually be prepared for the concession of Home Rule or Irish independence. For the inconvenience, loss, suffering or danger which the dynamite policy may entail on the Irish in England, of course they care nothing.

Another split is impending in the French Ministry, which appears to be the result of getting General Thibaudin into it. His appearance on the scene as Minister of War, after his conduct in 1871, was a national disgrace, but this was not all. His breaking his parole, and the excuse he gave for it—that his "patriotic blood boiled"—showed him to be a good deal of a demagogue, and with much capacity for giving trouble. He has, accordingly, apparently been more occupied since his accession to office with pursuing the Orleanist Princes than with improving the discipline or organization of the Army, and has, in fact, apparently made himself the organ in the Cabinet of the extreme Radicals in the Chambers, to whom, like our Stalwarts, the first and greatest political interest is the expulsion from office of everybody who does not agree with them. General Thibaudin's success in getting the Orleanists put on the retired list has emboldened him into making an attack on the Marquis de Gallifet, who is, and with more reason, another great object of Radical dislike. Gallifet is not simply the best cavalry officer in France, but by far the best—probably the only one who can manœuvre cavalry on a great scale; and if war broke out to-morrow would be simply invaluable in the present dearth of military talent in France. But he was an Imperialist, though he cares very little for politics, and—which makes him most obnoxious to the Paris Reds—was very prominent and remorseless in putting down the Commune. He shot hundreds whom he caught in arms, and made himself terrible to the Belleville people. They therefore hate him with a deadly hatred, and their hatred, working upwards, takes in the Chamber the form of a strong desire to get him out of the Army, or, at all events, out of high command. But it is clear that if this chase after prominent military men is continued, a profound dislike and distrust of the Republic is likely to spread through the Army. The frequency with which these dissensions break out among the Ministry shows the difficulty of making what may be called "scratch" Cabinets—that is, Cabinets composed not of men long accustomed to act together, but of such materials as may on any given day happen to come to hand.

The malcontents in Jamaica appear to have succeeded so far as to secure the removal of the Governor, Sir Anthony Musgrave, who is to be sent to Queensland. But they have lost the last shred of popular government. The people had some representatives in the Governor's Council who, when the recent difficulties began, tried to paralyze him by absenting themselves. An Order in Council of the Home Government now provides that any three official members of the Governor's Council may legislate on all matters without the presence of any elected members. As Sir Anthony Musgrave goes to a post bringing less salary, it looks as if the change carried with it some disapproval; but Jamaica is probably more highly paid than Queensland, both because it is a Crown Colony and because the climate is bad.

The swiftness of English justice, especially in murder cases, has long been an object of envy and admiration on this side of the water to those who think that punishment, to be effective, should be prompt. It is not often that in England more than two months elapse between the capture of a murderer and his execution, if convicted. Sometimes he is hanged within a month of his capture, and within a fortnight of his conviction. With us it is difficult to get a murderer hanged within two years of his capture. He often has a longer day than this even, and but very rarely a shorter one. He seldom goes to the gallows without at least two formal trials, for he always appeals on some point of law, if convicted. The appeal, if it does nothing else for him, prolongs his life, and for this reason alone his lawyer always advises it. There are, however, a good many chances that the delay will make a second trial abortive, or secure, at the worst, a commutation of his sentence. Within a year, important witnesses may die, and, even if they do not, the mere flight of time diminishes the popular indignation over the crime and the popular desire for vengeance, and in this way disposes the minds of the jurymen toward clemency. After a year or two, also, Governors become less stern, and the number of influential persons ready to sign petitions for commutation greatly increases. In other words, delay is very apt to transfer a considerable share of the popular pity from the murdered man and his family to the murderer and his family. It is to the uncertainty thus created in nearly every State in the Union that we owe much of the alarming frequency of homicide, and the steady increase of unpunished homicide, and the growing readiness to resort to the pistol and knife, which is now the disgrace of our civilization.

In England there is no appeal in criminal cases, unless the judge thinks the points raised by the defence worthy of consideration by the full bench. In that case he "reserves" them, and they are argued before several judges, and, if sustained, a new trial is ordered. But a point has to be a very strong one indeed, and one from which the prisoner has really suffered some damage, to procure its reservation in this way, and the consequence is that it is but seldom that the prisoner can get to the court above. The feeling, however, that appeal ought not to be a privilege dependent on the consent of the judge who tries the case, has been growing for some years, and has at last led to the introduction of a bill into the House of Commons, which has now reached its second reading, giving criminals in capital cases an appeal as a matter of right. It is not, and cannot be, alleged that the judge's discretion has often been abused, and the swiftness of justice in such cases is generally recognized as most valuable to the community. But the humanitarian sentiment of the day will no longer allow any man's chance of life to be dependent on the opinions of a single judge, whose temper may have been roused against him by contact with him during the trial.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[Wednesday, April 4, to Tuesday, April 10, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

President Arthur on Wednesday nominated Walter Q. Gresham, of Indiana, to be Postmaster-General. The nomination was a general surprise, and has met with warm approbation from many sources. Mr. Gresham was born in Indiana, in 1833. He was an aggressive Union man in the Legislature of that State at the outbreak of the war. In the army his career was brilliant and his promotion rapid. He was brevetted Major-General in 1864 for gallant services. He resumed the practice of law after the war, and in 1869 was made United States District Judge for Indiana, and holds that position at the present time. In 1872 he sympathized with the Liberal movement. In 1880 he favored Grant for a third term, but afterward warmly supported Garfield, who would have given him a place in his Cabinet but for local jealousies.

About noon on Thursday President Arthur, with Secretary Chandler, Private Secretary Phillips, and a New York friend started from Washington in a special car for Florida. He arrived at Orlando, Fla., on Monday, and that evening took a boat from Kissimmee City for an island, where he will engage in fishing.

United States Treasurer Wyman has promoted Thomas E. Rodgers, financial bookkeeper in the Redemption Division, to be Superintendent of that division, in place of E. O. Graves, promoted to be Assistant Treasurer. This appointment is a recognition of civil-service principles by Mr. Wyman. Mr. Rodgers entered the service, almost unknown, as a subordinate clerk. He speedily developed remarkable skill at figures and good organizing ability, and has lately been eminent as chief financial bookkeeper.

Mr. Richard Crowley, of New York, has resigned his position as special assistant counsel for the United States in the prosecution of alleged election-fraud cases in South Carolina. The resignation is said to be connected with a recent heavy bill presented by Mr. Crowley for special services as Government attorney, which was cut down by Attorney-General Brewster. Another report is that he has quarrelled with President Arthur.

Lieutenant Raymond P. Rodgers, United States Navy, who was directed by Rear-Admiral Cooper, commanding the North Atlantic Station, to pass over the line of the Panama Canal and examine its general plans, its conditions, and prospects, has made his report. He believes that there can no longer be any doubt of the intention of the company to carry out their project; that it can be accomplished for the amount estimated, $120,000,000, but will probably cost more, and will not be finished for several years after the contemplated date—1888.

The *Jeannette* Court of Inquiry reconvened on Friday morning, and it was announced that thirty-five questions had been received from Dr. Collins in regard to the treatment of his brother. Fireman Bartlett testified that Mr. Collins was treated with all due respect by the officers and crew of the *Jeannette*. He had heard him say that he (Collins) was prevented from saving his papers when the ship was lost. Nothing damaging to the officers of the ship was elicited from the witness.

Consul Taintor, at Liége, has sent to the State Department at Washington a very remarkable report on adulterations of American goods and of German products in Germany and Austria. He asserts that nearly all articles exported from Germany are adulterated, and American petroleum is subjected to a similar process.

General Crook will make an aggressive campaign in Arizona, with a view of carrying out Secretary Teller's idea of wiping out Juh's troublesome band of Indians.

Brigadier-General Joseph K. Barnes, retired, Surgeon-General of the Army from 1864 to 1882, died at his residence in Washington on Thursday. He was one of President Garfield's physicians, and the constant attendance told upon his health.

In the Star-route trial on Wednesday, Harvey M. Vaile, one of the defendants, was called to the witness-stand, and examined by his counsel, Mr. Henkle. He testified as to his relations with Miner, Peck, and John Dorsey. The witness denied, positively, the whole conversation at the National Hotel, as described by Rerdell. Vaile was cross-examined on Thursday, and explained that he was magnanimous to Miner, because he did not wish to crush him, and that he did not wish to take advantage of the Government. John Dorsey, brother of the ex-Senator, testified on Friday. John R. Miner, another of the defendants, testified on Monday and Tuesday.

Senator Don Cameron, of Pennsylvania, will soon go to Europe for a health trip. There are speculations as to whether he will be called upon to resign his Senatorship for a seat in the Cabinet on his return.

The Everhart Anti-Free-Pass Bill finally passed the Pennsylvania Senate on Wednesday.

There was an unusually heavy vote in the Rhode Island State election on Wednesday—Sprague, the Independent-Democratic candidate, was badly defeated, the plurality of Bourn, Republican, being about 2,800. The Republican strength in the new General Assembly will be about the same as last year.

After two years' agitation of the temperance question the Ohio Legislature has agreed on two amendments to the Constitution to be submitted to the people, either of which may be adopted or rejected. The one provides for the regulation of the liquor traffic by the Legislature, its power to levy taxes being unlimited. The other absolutely prohibits the manufacture of or traffic in intoxicating liquors.

At Albany, on Wednesday, an important caucus of Republican Assemblymen was held. They resolved to make a party question of the New York charter, and oppose it in its latest phase. Similar action was taken in regard to the primary-election bills applicable to the State and city. The proposed constitutional amendment, prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, met its death in the Assembly on that day. The Judiciary Committee, having held it as long as its introducer, Mr. Page, thought proper, he moved to discharge that Committee from its consideration in order to bring it into Committee of the Whole. A motion was made to lay it on the table, which was carried by a vote of 53 to 39, only three Republicans voting in the affirmative. The bill making the time of New York the standard time throughout the State was lost. The Senate agreed to adverse reports on several prison bills, showing their disposition to permit no disturbance of the existing prison laws. In executive session, on Thursday, the Senate confirmed the nomination of Isaac G. Perry for Capitol Commissioner. There was only one negative vote. A bill was introduced in the Senate on that day to prevent any attempt to represent any being recognized as a divinity in the Bible by any show, play, or dramatic representation, under penalty of a fine of from $500 to $2,000, or imprisonment for not less than six months nor more than one year. It has been favorably reported, and passed to a third reading. In the Assembly on Thursday the Sunday-Law amendments to the Penal Code were passed by a vote of 87 to 14. They prohibit all shooting, hunting, fishing, horse-racing, gaming, or other public sports on the first day of the week. The fact that the more influential Democrats see that it will not do to pass the New York charter amendments in the shape in which John Kelly and his Tammany allies agreed to them, was shown in the Assembly on Thursday evening, when the bill was recommitted by a vote of 48 to 45. The Anti-Free-Pass Bill was laid to rest on Friday, when it was adversely reported in the Senate. On Monday evening Governor Cleveland sent to the Assembly a veto of the bill to oust the present Republican Fire Commissioners in Buffalo, and substitute Democrats. This act has created great indignation among the Democratic partisans of that city. There was a spirited debate on the Civil-Service Bill in the Assembly on the same evening.

Petitions containing the names of about one thousand leading business and professional men of New York city have been presented in the Assembly by Messrs. Miller and Roosevelt, and in the Senate a large number more by Mr. Pitts, asking for the passage of the bill to regulate and improve the civil service of the State.

Peter Cooper, the venerable philanthropist, who completed his ninety-second year on February 12, died at 3 o'clock on Wednesday morning at the house of his son-in-law, Abram S. Hewitt, in this city. He had contracted a cold which seemed of little importance, and on Saturday, March 31, he drove to Cooper Institute. His cold grew worse that evening, and on Sunday, April 1, pneumonia set in. On Tuesday morning it appeared that he had little chance of life, and he was fully convinced of it himself. He spoke freely of what should be done after his death, chiefly in regard to the interests of Cooper Institute, expressing the wish that his plans for it be fully carried out. He retained consciousness to within a short time of his death, cheerfully bidding his friends good-by. His remarkable career cannot be summarized in a paragraph, but a mention must be made of his chief benefaction—Cooper Institute—on which $1,549,192 has been expended. The announcement of his death called forth tributes of respect from many sources, and flags all over the city were put at half-mast. At 9 o'clock on Saturday morning the body was taken to All Souls' Church, where it lay in state, and was viewed by multitudes until 3 o'clock in the afternoon, when the funeral services were held. The Rev. Robert Collyer delivered the principal address. He was followed by the Rev. Dr. Howard Crosby. At 4 o'clock the body was taken to Greenwood Cemetery, and placed in a receiving-vault. A private burial will take place at some early date.

Ex-President Diaz, of Mexico, was entertained by General Grant at dinner on Wednesday night. On Thursday the Produce Exchange of this city gave him a reception. He was in Boston on Monday and Tuesday.

At Greenville, Texas, the End Hotel, a three-story brick building, fell with a terrible crash at midnight on Saturday. Thirteen persons were buried in the ruins, of whom all but one were killed. The ruins took fire.

Nearly three hundred Mormons, who reject polygamy, under the leadership of Joseph Smith, jr., opened services at the old Mormon Temple in Kirtland, O., on Friday.

FOREIGN.

Startling discoveries were made in England and Ireland during the week of widespread Irish plots to wage a dynamite campaign. A semi-weekly London newspaper, the *City Press*, on Wednesday announced that it had received a letter, without signature, threatening to blow up the Government offices. The affair was referred to the police. Late that night a man was arrested in Fleet Street, having been followed from Birmingham, who had in his possession at his lodgings a box of explosives. The arrest was regarded as very important. Precautions were immediately taken to guard the public buildings, and extra sentinels were posted at Windsor Castle. Considerable excitement ensued in business circles, and it was reported that the whole conspiracy in Great Britain and America was to be exposed. On Thursday nearly half a ton of

nitro-glycerine was seized in London. It was ascertained that the man arrested in Fleet Street had first given his name at his lodgings as Ormund, stating that he was a medical student. Subsequently, he said that his name was Norman. The box of explosives had been obtained from the Birmingham factory mentioned in the following paragraph. Rubber bags, containing nitro-glycerine, were found in Norman's quarters. It is alleged that he is of respectable birth, and that he is the innocent agent of an American named Fletcher.

Another alarming incident of the day was the discovery, by the Birmingham police, in Ladywood, of a Fenian nitro-glycerine factory in full operation. The apparatus for preparing and mixing the explosive compounds was constructed on scientific principles. It was ascertained that the premises had been rented two months ago by a man named Whitehead, an Irish-American, who hung out a paper-hanger's sign. He was arrested when the descent on the place was made. He is described as twenty-five years of age, and has a marked American accent. A considerable quantity of nitro-glycerine was seized, and the detectives believe that the place was the central manufactory of explosives and depot of infernal machines in the kingdom.

The arrest of Norman led to the arrest on Thursday, in Lambeth, a London suburb, of two other men. The first inquiry for Norman's lodgings had been made by an elderly man; subsequently a person who looked like a tramp took a box of explosives there. It is believed that these two men were arrested at Lambeth. Their names are Wilson and Gallagher, and papers were found upon the latter connecting him with Whitehead. His portmanteau was packed with explosives similar to those found in Norman's lodgings. Evidence is forthcoming that all the persons arrested are connected with the Invincibles.

A fourth arrest was made in London on Thursday night of a young man named Henry Dalton, who had arrived from the United States in February. He was an occasional caller at the American Reading Room, and his arrest was owing to papers found on the other prisoners. It is believed that he is an emissary of the dynamite faction in America. He is also suspected of being the perpetrator of the recent explosion at the Local Government Board in Westminster.

The four prisoners were arraigned in the Bow Street Police Court on Friday, charged with having in their possession, with felonious intent, explosive material. They were all remanded without bail. A communication was received at a London police station on Friday that a large quantity of dynamite had been consigned from Liverpool to an address in London.

On Saturday a man named John Kerton was arrested at a railway station in London for connection with the conspiracy. On the same day the Glasgow police arrested a man named Bernard Gallagher, charged with causing the recent explosion at the gas works in that city. He is a brother of the man of the same name arrested at Lambeth.

A man named Ansburghe was arrested in London on Sunday, near Waterloo Bridge. Communications found on Gallagher and Norman connect him with the conspiracy. It is believed that seventy or eighty persons are concerned in the plot. It is said that the Birmingham police have certain evidence that Whitehead and the London prisoners were implicated in the recent outrages in that city. On Monday it was rumored that four more arrests had been made in London. On the same day letters threatening to blow up the Liverpool Post-office were received, and thirty additional detectives were put on duty there, and the fire brigade warned to be ready for any emergency. Additional precautions were taken in Dublin on Tuesday for the protection of the officers of the court trying the Phœnix Park murderers.

Increased excitement was created in Government circles on Thursday afternoon, when the report came from Newry, Ireland, where are situated large Government infantry barracks, that the sentinel guarding the powder magazine had on the previous night challenged a man who was discovered scaling the wall. He fired a shot and gave the alarm, but the search was fruitless.

A large number of Fenian documents have been discovered at Salford, England, and have been forwarded to Sir William Harcourt, Home Secretary. The papers include letters from members of Parliament.

Michael Davitt has written a letter from his prison in Ireland, to the Young Ireland Society of Glasgow, in which he says that the dynamite policy can only have the effect of exasperating the English Democracy.

On Monday Sir William Harcourt introduced a bill in the House of Commons relating to explosives. It provides that the maximum penalty for causing an explosion by which life or property is imperilled shall be lifelong servitude. An attempt to cause an explosion, or the making or keeping of explosives with intent to cause an explosion, is made punishable by imprisonment for a term of twenty years, and the unlawful making or keeping of explosives under suspicious circumstances is to be punishable by fourteen years' imprisonment. All accessories to such crimes are to be treated as principals. Provision is made in the bill for the ordering of official inquiries into the crimes specified, for the arrest of absconding witnesses, and for searching for explosives. The penalties are to be inflicted irrespective of the damage done by the explosives. The bill was with all haste passed and sent to the House of Lords, where it was agreed to without delay. The royal assent was given to the bill on Tuesday, and it became a law.

The men charged with the Phœnix Park (Dublin) murders were brought into court in that city on Monday, under a strong guard. The Grand Jury was sworn; it retired and soon returned with a true bill against Joe Brady, charging him with the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish. He was arraigned and pleaded not guilty. Curley, Kelly, Thomas Caffrey, and Fitzharris were next each arraigned separately. They each pleaded not guilty. All were held for trial.

At the trial of the prisoners charged with the Phœnix Park murders in Dublin, a photograph of a man named Tynan, recently alluded to by the name of "Tyner," will be produced. This photograph has been identified by James Carey and three other persons as that of "Number One."

In the House of Commons on Thursday Mr. Hugh C. Childers, Chancellor of the Exchequer, laid before the House the budget for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1883. The revenue was £89,004,000. This exceeded the estimate by £4,069,000. He said the expenditures had been £88,906,000, showing a surplus of £98,000. The expenses of the war in Egypt, including the amount contributed to defray the cost of the Indian contingent, were £3,896,000. For the coming year he estimated that the expenditure would be £85,789,000. The national debt was reduced the past year by about £7,100,000, and he expected to make a further reduction this year of about £8,000,000. He expected to see the debt reduced during the next twenty years by £172,000,000. He estimated that the coming year would bring the Government a revenue of £88,480,000, giving a surplus of £2,691,000. Mr. Childers proposed that the tax on railway earnings, where the fares were small in amount, be abolished, and the standard moisture of tobacco and snuff on which exemption was allowed be raised 1 per cent.; that a provision be made looking toward the reduction of the rate for telegrams to 6d. each; that 1½d. of the income tax be removed.

In the House of Lords on Monday, in the case of Clarke against Bradlaugh, Lord High Chancellor Selborne declared that Mr. Clarke, as a common informer, was unable to sue Mr. Bradlaugh for sitting and voting in the House of Commons without taking the oath of allegiance. The judgment against Mr. Bradlaugh was therefore reversed with costs.

The complete recovery of Queen Victoria from the injuries to her knee is less rapid than her physicians had hoped, but she is making progress.

Mr. Herbert Spencer's health causes his friends in England some anxiety. Since his return from America he has been unable to perform his usual quantity of work.

Trouble has arisen in the French Cabinet. At a recent council M. Waldeck-Rousseau, Minister of the Interior, refused to have published in the *Official Journal* a note the effect of which would have been to deprive General de Gallifet of the command of the cavalry. This was the measure of General Thibaudin, Minister of War, and it is said that he threatened to resign. The dispute grew out of the aversion of extreme Republicans to Gallifet and other leaders who took part in the suppression of the Commune. It is generally understood in Paris that a compromise by which the question of cavalry manœuvres was allowed to drop in the Cabinet, is merely to be considered as a postponement of a rupture in that body until the Chamber meets in the latter part of this month.

On Friday night a dynamite cartridge was exploded in the tower of a chateau near Monteceau-les-Mines, France, doing little damage. The London arrests have created considerable uneasiness in Paris.

Louis Veuillot, the French author, and editor of the Paris *Univers*, the leading journal of the advanced French Catholics, died in Paris on Saturday.

The new pier at Nice, France, was burned on Wednesday. The loss is $1,000,000.

A secret Congress of German Socialists was held in Copenhagen last week. On the fourth day of its session it was suddenly broken up by the Prefect of Police. Four of their number, members of the German Reichstag, were arrested at Kiel, and their papers confiscated. They were afterward released.

It was reported on Thursday that a large mine had been discovered in Moscow, connecting with the Kremlin, where the Czar is to be crowned. An official denial was published in St. Petersburg on Friday.

It is asserted in a Roman newspaper that the Governments of Italy and Austria have given their assent and affixed their signatures to a treaty, by the terms of which each empire guarantees to the other complete integrity of territory. Although Germany is not directly and by signature a party to this treaty, the document contains a clause in which it is mentioned that her approval has been given.

The Supreme Tribunal in Leipsic has confirmed the decision of the lower court and acquitted Professor Mommsen, member of the Reichstag, of the charge of libelling Prince Bismarck.

The National Theatre at Berlin was burned on Wednesday afternoon. There was no loss of life.

Baron Wertheim, the wealthiest manufacturer of Austria, died on Wednesday.

The Spanish Chamber of Deputies has passed the bill permitting the substitution of affirmation for the oath when desired.

There have been serious riots among the canal workmen in Panama, originating in race hatred between the Jamaicans and Carthaginians. About twenty of the former have been massacred.

The revolutionists under Alfaro continue to be successful in Ecuador.

PRACTICAL MORAL TRAINING.

No one can have seen or read of the funeral of Peter Cooper on Saturday without being struck by the impression which his career has made on the minds of the younger generation. There has been no such funeral in this city in our time. No such tribute has been paid to a man who never held high political office, and never made any mark in war, or in literature, or in art, or in science. Nor did he owe this to the fact that he was a successful business man, shrewd, enterprising, inventive, prudent, who never made a great mistake, never failed to meet all his liabilities, tried many things and succeeded in all, and, while never speculating, was never left behind in the race of industrial progress. This and other cities have produced many men as skilful in making money as he was—men, too, who owed as little to fortune or extraneous advantages as he did, but who, when they died, got no honor from anybody but their own family and personal dependents or old business associates. What made his death a public event and his funeral a great public occasion, was not only the fact that he devoted so much of his fortune and his energy to the service of his fellow-men, but also to that other fact, of so much importance in our time, which Mr. Collyer described in his admirable address by saying, "Here lies a man who never owned a dollar he could not take up to the Great White Throne." In other words, Peter Cooper was honored because he was a man who had contrived, not for a brief season, but through a very long life, not in one enterprise, but in many, to unite the highest integrity with the highest success, and who had at every step used his success, as far as it went, to make the world an easier and happier abode for such of his fellow-men as he could reach.

All this has, however, been dwelt on in a thousand pulpits and newspapers within the last few days. The point we would here make prominent, and which we could wish had been more frequently touched upon, is the extent to which the honors paid during his life not only to such a man as Peter Cooper, but to every man, are an educating influence for those who are just beginning life. One of the oddest and most persistent delusions of our time is, that the moral training of the young is done or can be done mainly through books and sermons, or, in other words, through direct addresses to the understanding. What makes this delusion all the odder is that everybody knows it to be a delusion by his own experience. Everybody knows in his own case that nothing, apart from hereditary influences, has had so large a part in the formation of his character as the associations and examples of his youth, and, above all, as the careers of those, both in public and private, whom he was taught to admire by seeing his parents and employers and neighbors honoring them. This is so true that one can tell almost with certainty what kind of men any given generation will produce by seeing the kind of men it was taught to applaud and imitate in its childhood.

The lesson of this for the merchants and bankers and preachers and teachers and writers and parents of our time, who are groaning so terribly and with so much reason over the decline of commercial morals—over the frauds and defalcations and embezzlements which have during the last twenty-five years done so much to discredit many American investments, and, what is far worse, to discredit the American name—is that if they wish to have honest clerks and cashiers and bookkeepers, it is not enough to stand uncovered while the story of a long and stainless life like Peter Cooper's is read. To make their admiration of such men as he prove a really fortifying influence to the character of the young, they must refrain from adulterating it by going home and bestowing before all the world precisely the same marks of respect they used to bestow on Peter Cooper on men whose lives are, in every respect but success in money-making, the exact opposite of his; who have accumulated great fortunes by means which he would have loathed; who have used them, not, as he did his, to open paths of usefulness to the poor and helpless, but to work the impoverishment and confusion of their neighbors at home, and the disgrace of their country abroad. They cannot afford to act toward any man in such a way as to produce the impression that there was nothing greater in Peter Cooper's career than his having got hold of a good deal of money and having kept it till he died. For this reason they cannot afford to have it go forth that there is a statute of limitations in the forum of morals, and that everybody who has contrived to outlive his rascalities without losing his booty, ought, to all outward seeming, to be as welcome to their hearts and homes as Peter Cooper, who never let a dishonored dollar into his safe, or spent one hour in corrupting his countrymen or bringing their institutions into contempt.

A good many people who ought to know better think they can consult their own interests by treating successful knaves as Peter Coopers, on the sly, as it were, without letting their young men see the full significance of it; or that they can neutralize any harm that may flow from it by a discourse of unusual vigor on honesty as the best policy, in the church on the following Sunday. But there never was a greater mistake. The young men do not blurt out their impressions about the doings of their elders in the counting-houses, or write them to the Sunday papers, and are perhaps not always conscious of them themselves. But it would hardly be possible for Satan himself to present to them a spectacle better calculated to sap silently the very foundations of character, than bestowing on men of acknowledged and notorious baseness social honors and rewards which they have done nothing to deserve except having, in trying times, successfully escaped the proper legal consequences of their misdeeds. That "no man can serve God and mammon" is a saying of more meaning than some people like to suppose. One of the truths it conveys is, that you must not give to the lucky knave the welcome and the applause which you owe only to him who has all his life long given every man his due, and so used what was his own that his neighbor never had any reason to complain.

THE PROTECTION OF TESTATORS.

The Michigan Legislature has under consideration a bill designed to remedy an evil felt more or less everywhere, but nowhere so much as in this State and city, viz., speculative attacks on the wills of rich men. The measure does not change the existing law with regard to wills, but adds to it a provision that any one who desires to do so may present his will to the circuit or probate judge of the county in which he lives, together with a petition declaring that it was duly executed by the petitioner, that he was of sound mind and memory, and not subject to any undue influence, and praying that it be allowed. He is at the same time to furnish a list of all persons who would be interested in his estate as heirs. A day is then to be appointed for hearing the petition, which the heirs may oppose if they choose. At the hearing the judge is to inquire into the testamentary capacity of the testator, examine any witnesses that may be produced, and if it appears that he is in a fit condition of mind to dispose of his property, is to make a decree establishing the will, which shall be final and conclusive as to the question of testamentary capacity. The contents of the will are not required to be made known.

The opportunity for breaking wills, or instituting proceedings to break them with a view to a "compromise," arises almost altogether from the fact that, at the time when the inquiry into the validity of a will begins, the testator is dead. In nine cases out of ten, so long as he is in the flesh not a whisper is heard as to his sanity. His prospective heirs, far from thinking him unfit to manage his property—and no one who can do this is unfit to make a will—are only too glad to have him go on buying and selling, making contracts, executing deeds, carrying on his business, whatever it may be. The richer he grows, the brighter the future looks for them; and while he is accumulating his money an attempt to deprive him of the power of making a will would usually be regarded in all quarters as mere folly. No jury or court in New York, for instance, could have been got to listen very long to arguments to show that the late Mr. Vanderbilt was incapable of making a will. Yet when he is once dead, the testator is at a decided disadvantage. His daily life was, while it lasted, the best possible proof of his sanity; but, now that he is out of the way, it is comparatively easy for unscrupulous relatives to get up a picture of his existence which is calculated to raise a doubt, and a doubt is enough as a basis for a will contest. All men have peculiarities and eccentricities, and rich men are no exception to this rule; where the man is not alive to explain his acts, nothing is easier than to exaggerate, and distort, and color these until they wear a very dark look. Alienists are called in to give their opinion on the case as presented by the side which employs them, and an alienist retained in this way generally finds what he looks for.

The practice of contesting wills is a growth of the last fifty years, and it was at one time greatly stimulated by the condition of the law

which allowed the contestants to pay the expense of the contest out of the estate, whether they were successful or not. Our Legislature has put an end to this, and contestants have to pay their own way like other litigants. Courts and juries, too, are nowadays less inclined to believe in "insanity" than they were a generation ago. But even with these drawbacks, "striking" the estates of rich men is still a very attractive field for speculation among rascally lawyers, who can greatly embarrass the settlement of them, and thus get themselves and their clients bought off.

Under these circumstances, why should not a man be allowed, as proposed by the Michigan bill, to establish his own testamentary capacity, or, in other words, sanity, during his lifetime? The time when he makes his will is the time at which the evidence on the subject is most accessible; and if all those who could by any possibility be interested in disputing it are allowed an opportunity of doing so, no unfairness seems to be possible. Of course, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred there would be no opposition, for relatives who did not know the contents of the will would be very chary of making the testator their enemy by disputing his sanity. But then his sanity is not dependent on his manner of disposing of his property, and the opinion of an heir who did not know how it was to be left would be far better worth having than that either of a legatee or of persons "cut off with a shilling." Under the present system, we invariably find that the testimony that the testator was a shrewd, clear-headed man of business always comes from those who get his money; the evidence to the contrary is always that of those who are left out of the will.

In one respect, however, the Michigan bill appears to be impracticable. The question of "undue influence" cannot be properly inquired into as long as the contents of the will are unknown. Undue influence is always exerted by a beneficiary under the will, and without knowing its contents an heir cannot possibly form any opinion as to whether or by whom such influence has been exerted. This is a different matter from that of testamentary capacity.

THE CRISIS IN NORWAY.

A CONSTITUTIONAL conflict of great magnitude and violence has been agitating the Norwegian nation for years, and seems at this moment to be approaching a crisis. The Constitution of the kingdom is the most democratic ever introduced in a monarchical state. It was framed in the spring of 1814, under the auspices of the Crown Prince of Denmark, with the aim of securing the adhesion of the Norwegian people to his scheme of establishing himself on the throne of an independent Norway, at the moment when Bernadotte, then Crown Prince of Sweden, was preparing to invade and occupy the country by right of the Treaty of Kiel, which he had forced the King of Denmark to sign at the beginning of the same year. England and Russia had promised Norway to Sweden as a reward for the latter's services against Napoleon and his stanch ally, Denmark, which was thus to be stripped of a province ruled by the Danish sceptre for centuries. In order to secure the aid of the sturdy yeomanry of Norway in a desperate attempt to save for a Prince of Denmark what the Danish crown had lost, the Constitution then improvised was made as attractive to the rural population as possible. But the attempt of the Danish Crown Prince failed. He was elected King of Norway, but was unable to defend his throne against Bernadotte, and was forced to resign and return to Denmark. The Constitution, however, survived. The King of Sweden, acknowledged by the Norwegians as King of Norway, accepted it, and since November 4, 1814, it has been the law of the land.

The most striking feature of the Constitution is clause 79, limiting the royal veto. This is declared to be only suspensive, and bills passed by three successive Storthings, or Diets, each of which is elected for three years, are to have the force of law, even if the royal sanction is still withheld from them. Thus the democratic legislature is made all but sovereign, the Crown being able to check legislation deemed obnoxious only for a limited number of years. This power of passing its resolutions over the King's veto the Storthing made use of, in 1821, for the abolition of nobility, decreeing it after vetoes in preceding years. And were there no clause conflicting with or qualifying this fulness of legislative power, the right of the people to abrogate by law—that is, through a resolution passed by simple majorities in three successive Storthings—even the connection with Sweden under a common dynasty, and royalty itself, and thus turn Norway into an independent republic, would be uncontested. And such an act would be the less improbable as the national legislature consists in reality only of one house, though the Storthing, after assembling, divides itself into two branches—the Lagthing and the Odelsthing—the former comprising an elected fourth of the members, and the latter the remaining bulk.

Clause 112, however—the last clause of the Constitution—places the legal aspect of affairs in a different or at least a dubious light. It enacts that when experience shall have demonstrated the necessity of changing a part of the Constitution itself, the amendment shall be proposed in the Storthing then assembled, and decided upon by the following Assembly. "Such a change, however, must never be contrary to the principles of this fundamental law; it can have no object but such modifications of particular regulations as do not alter the spirit of this Constitution; and two-thirds of the Storthing must be in accord on such a change." The King's veto power is not alluded to in this clause, which lacks precision in many respects. And it is the indefiniteness and obscurity of this brief and important paragraph which has given rise to the violent contest now taking place between the Storthing and the Norwegian Government of King Oscar II. This monarch is less popular in the western of the two realms united under his sceptre than any of the successors of Bernadotte, whose sword created their union in 1814, and whose dynasty succeeded to the Vasas of Sweden in 1818. The higher and wealthier classes of the Norwegian people, and especially the mercantile population of the capital, Christiania, have often sided with the Ministers—the "State Councillors"—of the Crown on questions of policy or prerogative; but the peasantry, whose representatives form a large majority in the Storthing, have always been jealously hostile to the rights and claims of the dynasty which was imposed upon them by force, and long contention has ripened a spirit of opposition avowedly republican. The poet Björnson is one of the leaders in this new movement.

In 1874 the Storthing passed a resolution compelling the State Councillors to appear at its sittings, which the Constitution neither bound nor entitled them to do. As this was done with the intention of more closely subjecting them to the sway of the Legislature, the King vetoed the resolution. In 1877 the Storthing passed it again by an increased majority, and the King again refused to sanction it. On March 17, 1880, the resolution was carried by a still larger vote, and on June 9 the Government was notified by the Storthing that its decision, though unapproved by the King, had become a law. Oscar II., however, who had come over from Stockholm to Christiania to compromise matters, but had failed to obtain for his sanction the concession of the right to dissolve the Storthing, declared, on the advice of his Cabinet, that the resolution of March 17 was a constitutional change, which could not be effected without his approval, and, being unsanctioned, his Government would not promulgate it. A few days later the session of the Storthing was closed without a speech from the throne. The excitement was so great that the Government was compelled to use military precautions, which were also needed on account of workmen's agitation. Another complication added fuel to the strife. The Storthing, before dissolving, appointed a commission on military matters, which was to remain in permanency till the next legislative session. The Government denied the right of the Storthing thus to prolong its activity, and appointed a military commission of its own to replace the other. The Storthing commission, however, went on with its work. Sverdrup, the President of the Storthing and leader of the Opposition, received popular ovations. Both sides persisted in asserting their right.

The organs of the Government maintained and still maintain that the resolution compelling the attendance of the State Councillors at the sittings of the Storthing is one falling within the category of constitutional changes; that the King (though this is not expressly stated in the fundamental law) naturally possesses a veto on all measures contemplating an amendment of the Constitution, and that this implied veto must be an absolute, and not merely a suspensive one, for otherwise the whole structure of the kingdom would be subject to a total overthrow by a resolution more easily passed than a law of the least importance. The champions of absolute popular sovereignty, on the other hand, assert that no veto can be claimed which is not expressly granted, and that the nation possesses the same right to amend and also entirely to reconstruct its fundamental charter which it exercised in originally framing it—the requisi-

tion of two Storthings and of a two-thirds majority in the second of them being a sufficient safeguard against precipitate and inconsiderate action. Between these two extreme views the Law Faculty of the University of Christiania, when applied to by the Government for an expression of opinion on the controversy, took a middle ground, guardedly declaring that the King certainly had the right of veto in the special case before it; that is to say, as to the general question, that clause 112 impliedly gave the sovereign the right to reject amendments of the Constitution deemed by him in conflict with its spirit and general principles. That the framers of the Constitution did not contemplate the right of the Storthing alone to undo their work at pleasure lies in the nature of things, and will hardly be doubted by any unbiassed student of history; but whether they meant to leave the decision as to what is contrary to the spirit of the charter to the King is a matter of fair controversy. Unfortunately, they neither clearly vested this right in him nor created a tribunal —like our Supreme Court—to decide, in cases of conflict, between him and the legislative power.

The great constitutional conflict has constantly grown more and more violent. That partisan fury has not yet led to an appeal to force is mainly attributable to the expectation on each side that the results of the general elections for a new Storthing would compel the opposite side to yield. The elections took place at the close of 1882, and the result was a triumph of the popular party, in spite of strenuous efforts made by the friends of the Government to win over the wealthier portions of the peasantry. And scarcely was the new Storthing assembled, in February last, when the leaders of the Opposition hastened to force an issue by initiating measures for the impeachment of the State Council, or Ministry, mainly on the ground of its having violated the Constitution by not promulgating a law passed by three successive Storthings, and by its action in the affair of the military commission. That such an impeachment was not decided upon at an earlier stage of the conflict was owing to the uncertainty which prevailed concerning the political complexion of the mixed court before which the accused functionaries would have to appear. This court is to be composed of the members of the Supreme Tribunal of the realm, a conservative body, and of those of the Lagthing, or smaller branch of the Storthing; and the accused have the right to object to the presence of one-third of the judges thus constitutionally designated for their trial. But the present complexion of the Storthing renders it certain that even if only members of the Lagthing should be excluded, and all the members of the Supreme Tribunal should vote for the Government, there would still be a majority for condemnation. The leaders of the democratic party have grasped this favorable opportunity with passionate eagerness, and the country—and no doubt all Scandinavia—looks with intense anxiety for the development of the momentous political drama now opening.

CAN A GIRL BE A DUDE?

We have received from several correspondents and subscribers inquiries suggested by our recent article on the Dude, and among others one which, in the present condition of society and the two sexes, seems of more than common interest—viz., whether there is any reason to expect the development among girls of a type analogous to the Dude among men. The possibility of the development of girl Dudes, either by natural selection, or by artificial means, is a serious matter, whether we look at it from the point of view of the Dude, or from that of the girl; and in the interest of both we shall endeavor to give the question an impartial examination.

Male Dudes are, by temperament and disposition, conservative, and on this account might be inclined to look with disfavor upon any attempt on the part of girls at such an encroachment on their sphere; but their feeling about the matter is by no means conclusive, for conservatives oppose every new opening which women endeavor to make for themselves. It is against the opposition of conservatives that they have forced their way into the universities, the bar, the press, the lyceum, and the pulpit, and there is not an argument which can be advanced against preparation for the career of girl Dudes that cannot be urged against these other occupations. Dr. Dix, to be sure, insists that the true sphere of the girl is home, and her sole proper career that of wife and mother, and it must be admitted that a mother of a family could hardly be a Dude; but then everybody is not so consistent and logical as Dr. Dix, and besides, the Doctor in his Lenten lectures did not consider the Dude question at all. The propensity of the "society girl" for pure "cussedness" was what the Doctor undertook to expose, and he handled the subject in such a way as to make it clear to any girl not absolutely steeped in crime that there is really no place like home; but the girl as a criminal we must leave to clergymen and the State Charities Aid Association. What we are interested in is a purely social problem.

Admitting, then, that if a girl wants to be a Dude, the dislike of the Dudes to the experiment would constitute with fair-minded people no valid reason for preventing her, it remains to be considered whether there is anything in the nature of the occupation itself which specially fits or unfits girls for the task.

In one sense there is something girlish about every true Dude, and at the same time something of the Dude about every true girl. They are both primarily interested in dress, as developed and regulated by fashion and as displayed in public places, and this too in much the same way; and it is a curious and interesting proof of this that the tall hat in the hands, or rather on the head, of the Dude is becoming a feature in male costume quite as important as the bonnet ever was with women. Another point which should not be overlooked is, that for many years girls have been consciously imitating male fashions in dress, and, while conservatives have been showing the folly of their trying to vie with men, have actually adopted men's clothes, and now wear, and for a long time have worn, the male ulster, the male cut-throat collar, the heavy male boot, and at least one variety of male hat. To a certain degree clothes have ceased to be a discriminating mark of sex, and caricaturists in the comic papers frequently raise a laugh by representing the likeness as likely to cause a confusion in the mind of the beholder. A travelling girl, provided with what is called a "pot hat," and carrying what is known to the journalist as a "grip-sack" and a silver-handled umbrella, is, in the distance, of doubtful sex. This development of the dress of girls, going on under our very eyes, has been, curiously enough, overlooked by those who have given the closest attention to the woman question.

Externally considered, therefore, there are a good many reasons for regarding girl Dudes as a possible future social type; but it will not do to limit our inquiry in this way. The capacity for the career of a Dude is not altogether a question of costume; it is dependent to a certain extent upon moral and intellectual considerations, and, inquiring into the aptitude of girls for a new sphere, the moral and intellectual tendencies of the occupation must not be neglected.

Now, the American girl has secured her present social position as the manager of society by the display of brilliant qualities of head and heart. In other countries society has been managed by married people much in their own interest. If the American girl has prevented this class from having much to do with it, it has been by her superior energy, resource, endurance, and audacity. These are the qualities which in all countries and in all ages have produced success in every field of activity; and if society has, with us, passed into the control of girls—if they have to a great extent emancipated themselves from their primitive subjection to parents and chaperons, and now manage society according to their own notions of what is their due—we may be sure that this is owing to their fitness for the task. But the rise in importance and interest of the girl in the modern world has, it must be confessed, been attended by corresponding changes in the other sex. As the girl has become more and more energetic, more and more self-reliant, as she has taken the initiative more and more, and driven her father and mother more and more into the social background, the opportunity for the development of shy, shrinking traits of character, of quiet, modest reserve, has necessarily fallen more and more to men. This has greatly helped the Dude, for it enables him to make himself attractive to daring and high-spirited girls by those very qualities which used to be regarded as contributing so much to produce feminine charm. The girl, as she has become more and more conscious of her own power, has felt the need in the opposite sex of something different from herself — something milder, softer, more gentle, quiet, and dependent. She has often to seem hard and worldly, for otherwise society could not be carried on by her, but she is really fond of other and better things. For these she looks to man. Intellect, vigor, enterprise, she finds in her own sex. The ineffable charm of quiet refinement and repose society must get elsewhere. The demand has created the supply, and produced already great modifica-

cations in the male social type. The Dude caricatures this tendency, but in the existing condition of society the part taken by him would seem to be one which girls could hardly assume without abandoning many of the advantages which make their position so proud, independent, and commanding.

MORE IRISH TROUBLES.

LONDON, March 22, 1883.

THE first section of the present Parliamentary session, that which has just closed at the beginning of the Easter vacation, has been singularly barren. Such appetite for useful work as the legislators brought with them to the House of Commons on February 15 was dulled by the tedious debate on the Address to the Crown, which lasted for a fortnight, and the few Government nights since then have been almost wholly occupied by a discussion of the supplementary estimates for the financial year that is now ending. With the exception of a spirited debate on South African affairs (which I will not describe in this letter because it has been adjourned till after Easter), the discussions raised by private members have lacked interest.

Two events have, however, taken place of more than passing importance, both of them bringing to the front that irrepressible Irish difficulty which is still the foremost subject in men's minds. The first of these was the complaint made by the Parnellite members that no means were being taken by the Government to deal with the distress, amounting almost to famine, which is alleged to exist in parts of the West of Ireland. The Lord-Lieutenant, it was urged, ought to relax the rules which prohibit Poor-Law guardians from granting out-door relief; and public works ought to be started on a scale large enough to give employment to the starving people. To these demands the Irish Government has replied by denying that the distress is exceptionally serious, and by declaring that the best way to aggravate it and prevent the poor from recovering from their depressed state would be to extend state help, in the form either of work provided for the purpose or of laxly distributed poor-law relief. As to the bad effects of out-door relief, the opinion of our trained economists is unanimous. They would gladly abolish it altogether, both in England and Scotland, compelling every one who asks for public relief to take it in the workhouse; and they hold that the one thing which has saved Ireland from falling into the abyss of perennial pauperism is the strict application of the workhouse test. Hence English opinion, even among those who go furthest in their sympathy with Ireland, has supported Lord Spencer in this matter; and the unmeasured denunciations of him which the Nationalists indulge in have made English readers think less than ever of their judgment or their fairness.

These denunciations had hardly died away when Mr. Parnell introduced his bill for the amendment of the Land Act of 1881. That measure, as your readers will remember, was strenuously opposed by the Tory party in the House of Commons, and was largely modified in the House of Lords. It passed in a shape so unwelcome to the Parnellite members that they declared it must prove a failure, and tried to make it so, while the tenant-right Protestants of Ulster were far from being satisfied with it. It has now been in operation for a year and a half, and among the flaws discovered in it four are particularly complained of. The first is that it does not include all kinds of landed property and all species of tenants, and in particular that it excludes leaseholders, who were as much entitled to protection as yearly tenants. The second is that its operation is so slow, arising from the enormous number of applications made to it, that half the tenants who have sought to have their rents reduced are still paying the old rent because the Land Courts have not yet been able to attend to them. The next is that sufficient allowance has not been made for the tenants' improvements in fixing the rent. The intention of the Government and of the Parliamentary majority was, it is said, that a tenant should not pay rent upon his improvements; in other words, that their value should be previously deducted before the fair rental for the farm was estimated. This intention has been defeated by a decision given by the Irish courts on the construction of the Act, and accordingly the tenants are being required to pay a higher rent than either they or Parliament expected. Lastly, the scheme for enabling the tenants to purchase, by the aid of state loans, the land which they cultivate, has produced little result. A very small number of applications have been made under the clause containing this provision; in point of fact, the number of peasant proprietors is not increasing. A bill to remedy these four defects in the Land Act, together with others of less interest, was brought in by Mr. Parnell, and much curiosity was felt to see how Mr. Gladstone would receive this attempt to improve the largest measure he had ever carried, the child of his old age, the piece of work in whose success as a means of conciliating Ireland he is so intensely interested.

Though he returned from Cannes at the beginning of March, he had delivered no considerable speech, and rumors were spread that he was feeble in health and likely soon to retire from power. His speech on Mr. Parnell's bill gave no countenance to such rumors. Though he has become thinner within the last few months, and has now the sunken face and weaker presence of an old man, he looks healthy, his voice is full and firm, and his mental powers certainly show no sign of decline. In manner and delivery, in clearness, precision, and measured skill of statement and argument, the speech was one of his best. But it gave more satisfaction to the Tories than to his own followers, for it was a steady refusal to open up the land question afresh, even so far as to remedy such defects in the Act of 1881 as had been shown to exist. He based this refusal on the difficulty of finding time for handling the question—partly because legislation for England and Scotland was so much in arrear, owing to the demands made from Ireland during the two preceding sessions; partly because any bill dealing with Irish land would be sure to be used as a battle-ground both by the Tories, who would like to reverse the action of 1881, and by the Parnellites, who would try to force Parliament much further. It was thus, he said, impossible for the Government to undertake itself to settle the question, while Mr. Parnell's bill was much too sweeping in its changes to obtain his support. This firmness pleased the moderate Liberals, who are always grumbling at the Government for its readiness to make "concessions to agitation," and elicited unusual cheers from the Conservative benches. The Irish Nationalists were neither surprised nor annoyed. They knew that nothing the Government would give would satisfy their own constituents, and therefore preferred it should, by giving nothing, make their vantage ground of grievance a stronger one. The Ulster Liberals, however, a section small in number—they count but nine members in the House of Commons—but important as representing the only part of Ireland where the population is heartily and actively loyal to the connection with Great Britain, were mortified. The Ulster tenant farmers have insisted on an amendment of the Act of 1881 just as strongly as Mr. Parnell does, and may, it is feared, fall away from the Government if their wishes are not gratified, and it would appear that a considerable section of the English and Scotch Liberals feels with them.

For some time past there have been signs of a division of opinion on Irish topics in the Liberal party, which may, when Mr. Gladstone no longer holds it together, lead to a serious schism. One view is that enough, if not too much, has been done for Ireland in the meantime; that what she needs is a firm and strict administration of the law; that concessions on the land question would only encourage agitation, while to concede a more popular system of local government, or a more extended franchise, would only give the party of rebellion and anarchy wider opportunities of troubling the country. Lord Hartington, who would succeed Mr. Gladstone if the latter were to retire, is supposed to hold this view; it would probably be that of Lord Derby, Sir William Harcourt, and some other members of the Cabinet; it is the general view of the London press, and of Liberals as well as Tories among the upper and professional classes. In an extreme form it finds frequent expression in the *Times*. On the other hand, there are Liberals who argue that, so long as Ireland needs reforms, Parliament must go on legislating for her, and that however loud the calls of England and Scotland, England and Scotland must be content to forego much of the time they would be entitled to in order to let Irish questions be settled. It was not much use, they say, to make the great concessions of the Land Act unless you are prepared to complete the work by other measures. Even if the Irish abuse the larger amount of local self-government it is proposed to give them, it is better they should govern themselves worse than that others should govern them better.

The very day after the debate in Parliament on Mr. Parnell's bill had brought these old questions back to the minds of politicians, the explosion at the office of the Local Government Board, startling the country like nothing else since the Phœnix Park murders, summoned every one once more to consider what is to be done with Ireland. It was all but universally assumed that the deed was perpetrated by Fenians, for, though Socialists and Freethinkers have been suggested, neither of these insignificant sections has ever given any overt sign of a tendency to crimes of violence. There was less excitement, less passion, than might have been expected, partly perhaps because no one was killed or even seriously hurt—a remarkable thing in a crowded city. But the effect has been to strengthen in a marked manner the first of the two types of view which I have been describing, and to dishearten the friends of Ireland. Several organs seized on the fact that Mr. Gladstone's refusal to amend the Land Act had been declared the day before, and represented the explosion as the answer of Ireland to his words. Far-fetched as this was, since it is plain that the plan for injuring the public offices must have been conceived long before, and was probably executed by people who knew or cared very little what took place in Parliament, the coincidence made some impression on men's minds. It was in vain to answer that the dynamite men had nothing to do with Mr. Parnell and his friends, were not only unconnected with them, but probably hostile to them, glad to discredit them and to interrupt anything in the nature of constitutional agitation. People came back to the idea that Irish violence was not being appeased by conciliatory measures, and that nothing but severity would crush it down. When it was urged that Mr.

Parnell could no more be made responsible for the acts of desperate ruffians than the Progressist party in Germany for the attempt of Nodel to murder the Emperor, they answered that he had never denounced crime with sufficient energy, nor separated himself conspicuously enough from O'Donovan Rossa and the American-Irish press, which has preached the gospel of explosion all through.

However, there has been at bottom a feeling that till something more is known about the planners of this outrage, it is unfair to visit it on the people or any popular leader. If nothing else of the same kind happens soon, it will hardly affect the policy of the Government. But if other acts of violence take place in England, and especially if lives are lost, there may come an outburst of anger such as has not been yet witnessed, and which will destroy for the present all prospects of conciliation. The reported attack on Lady Florence Dixie was at first regarded as another instance of Irish outrage. But now most people think that whatever foundation there may be for the published story, it has nothing at all to do either with Ireland or the Land League, and those who assumed such an origin for the attempt are a little ashamed of their precipitancy. Still, the position is strained and painful; and we watch every morning's news with as much anxiety as curiosity. Y.

THE LATE MASTER OF THE ROLLS.

LONDON, March 26, 1883.

THE legal profession in America takes so much interest in the bench and bar of England that there are probably many among your readers who will wish to hear something about a legal luminary of such exceptional brilliance as the one whom we have just lost, Sir George Jessel, for ten years Master of the Rolls. Here in England even the general public, which seldom realizes or cares about the personality of a judge, had got to know and value him, so that his death, long before the usual term of judicial activity, is felt as a national misfortune.

He is only one among many instances we have lately had of men of Jewish origin climbing to the highest distinction, but is the first instance of a person who, adhering to the creed of his forefathers, received a very high office; for Mr. Disraeli, as every one knows, had been baptized as a boy, and always professed to be a Christian. Jessel's career was not marked by any remarkable incidents. He rose pretty quickly to eminence at the bar, being in this aided by his birth; for the Jews in London as elsewhere hold together, and take a natural pleasure in pushing forward any specially able co-religionist. His powers were more fully seen and appreciated when he became a Queen's Counsel, and brought him with unusual speed to the front rank. He entered Parliament at the general election of 1868 as a Liberal, and three years later was made Solicitor-General in Mr. Gladstone's first Government, retaining, of course, his private practice, which had become so large that there was scarcely any case of first-rate importance brought into the Chancery Courts in which he did not appear. Although a pretty decided Liberal, as the Jews mostly were until Lord Beaconsfield's foreign policy began to lead them into other paths, he had never taken any active part in politics till he took his seat in the House of Commons; and when he spoke there, he obtained no great success. Lawyers in the English Parliament are under the double disadvantage of having had less leisure than most other members to study and follow political questions, and of having contracted a manner and style of speaking not suited to an assembly which, though deliberative, is impatient.

Jessel's ability would probably have overcome the former difficulty, but less easily the latter. Though he was easy and powerful in his treatment of legal topics, he was never popular with the House of Commons, for he presented his views in a hard, dry, dogmatic form, with no graces of style or delivery. However, he did not long remain in that arena, but on the retirement of Lord Romilly from the office of Master of the Rolls, was appointed to succeed him in 1873. Here his extraordinary gifts found at last their proper sphere. The Equity Judges in England sit without a jury to hear cases, with or without witnesses, and deal with a great deal of the heaviest business that is brought into the courts. Commercial causes of the first importance come before them, no less than those which relate to trusts or to real property; and the granting of injunctions, a specially serious matter, rests in their hands. Each Equity Judge sits alone, and the suitor may choose before which of them he will bring his case. Among the four—since raised to five—Equity Judges of first instance, Jessel immediately rose to the highest reputation, so that most of the heavy and difficult cases were brought into his court. He possessed a wonderfully quick, as well as powerful, mind, which got to the kernel of a matter while other people were still hammering at the shell, and which applied legal principles just as swiftly and surely as it mastered a group of complicated facts.

The Rolls Court used to present, while he presided over it, a curious and interesting sight, which led young counsel to frequent it, who had no business to do there, for the mere sake of watching the Judge. When the leading counsel for the plaintiff was opening his case, Jessel listened quietly for the first two minutes only, and then began to address questions to the counsel, at first so as to guide his remarks in a particular direction, then so as to stop his course altogether and turn his address into a series of answers to the Judge's interrogatories. When, by a short dialogue of this kind, Jessel had possessed himself of the vital facts, he turned to the leading counsel for the defendant, and asked him whether he admitted such and such facts alleged by the plaintiff to be true. If they were admitted, he indicated his view of the law, and, by a few more questions to the counsel on the one side or the other, as the case might be, elicited their respective legal grounds of contention. If the facts were not admitted, it of course became necessary to call the witnesses or read the affidavits—processes which the vigorous impatience of the Judge considerably shortened. But more generally his searching questions and the sort of pressure he applied so cut down the issues of fact, that there was little or nothing to adduce evidence about, and then he proceeded to deliver his opinion and dispose of the case. It was, all through, far less an argument and counter-argument by counsel than an investigation by the Judge, in which the only function of the counsel was to answer the Judge's questions concisely and exactly, so that he might as soon as possible reach the bottom of the matter. The bar in a little while got to learn and adapt themselves to his ways, and few complained of being stopped or interrupted by him, because his interruptions, unlike those of most judges, were never inopportune or confusing. The best counsel felt themselves his inferiors, and recognized not only that he was better able to handle the case than they were, but that the way they presented their facts or arguments would make very little difference to the result, because his penetration was sure to discover the merits of each contention, and no pertinacity or eloquence would have the slightest influence on his resolute and self-confident mind. It is not wonderful that in this way business was despatched before him with unexampled speed, and that it became a maxim among barristers that, however low down in the cause-list at the Rolls your case might stand, it was never safe to be away from the court, so rapidly were cases "broken down" or "crumpled up" under the strokes of this vigorous intellect. What was more surprising was, that the suitors and the public generally acquiesced, after the first few months, in this way of doing business. Nothing breeds more discontent than haste and recklessness in a judge; but Jessel's speed was not haste. He did as much justice in a day as others in a week; and those who, dissatisfied with these rapid methods, tried to reverse his decision before the Court of Appeal, were very seldom successful, although that court then contained in Lord Justice James and Lord Justice Mellish two very strong men, who would not have feared to differ even from the redoubtable Master of the Rolls.

In dealing with facts Jessel has never had a superior, and in our days, perhaps, no rival. In his treatment of the law, every one admitted and admired both very wide and accurate learning and an extremely acute and exact appreciation of principles, a complete power of extracting them from past cases and fitting them to the case in hand. His strength made him bold; he went further than most judges in readiness to carry a principle somewhat beyond any decided case, and to overrule an authority which he did not respect. The fault charged on him was his tendency, characteristic of the Hebrew mind, to take a somewhat hard and dry view of a legal principle, overlooking its more delicate shades, and, in the interpretation of statutes or documents, to adhere too strictly to the letter, to the neglect of the spirit. As an eminent lawyer said: "If all judges had been like Jessel, there would have been no equity." In this respect he may be deemed inferior to a great living ex-Judge, Lord Cairns—Lord Chancellor in the Beaconsfield Government — who unites to a very wide and accurate knowledge of the law a grasp of principles even more broad and philosophical than Jessel's was. In spite, however, of this defect, the judgments of the Master of the Rolls, which fill so many pages of the English Law Reports during the last ten years, are among the best that have ever gone to build up the fabric of the English law. They were usually delivered on the spur of the moment, after the conclusion of the arguments, or of so much of the arguments as he allowed counsel to deliver; but they have all the merits of carefully-considered utterances, so clear and direct is their style, so concisely as well as cogently are the authorities discussed and the grounds of decision stated. The bold and sweeping character which often belongs to them makes them more instructive as well as more agreeable reading than the judgments of most modern judges, whose common fault is a timidity which tries to escape, by dwelling on details, from the enunciation of a definite general principle.

At the bar, Jessel had been far from popular; for his manners were unpolished, and his conduct toward other counsel overbearing. On the bench he improved greatly, and became liked as well as respected. There was a sort of rough bonhomie about him, and in particular a good-humored wish to deal gently with juniors; there was also an obvious anxiety to do justice, and a readiness, remarkable in so strong-willed a man, to hear what could be said against his own opinion, and to reconsider it. Besides, a profession is always proud of any one whose talents adorn it, and whose eminence seems to be communicated to the whole body.

Two years ago the office of Master of the Rolls,

which had been, since ever the Chancery became a law court, under the earlier Plantagenet kings, that of a judge of first instance, was changed in its character, and attached to the Court of Appeal. Thus it was as an appellate judge that Jessel latterly sat, giving no less satisfaction in that capacity than in his former one, and being indeed confessedly the strongest judicial intellect on the bench. Outside the profession, his chief interest was in the University of London, at which he had himself graduated. It is not, strictly speaking, a university, but merely a corporation empowered to grant degrees. He was a member of its senate, and took much interest in its examinations, as well as in the affairs of the four inns of court, of one of which, Lincoln's Inn, he served as treasurer, being up till the last excessively fond of work, and finding that of a judge who sits for five or six hours daily insufficient to satisfy his appetite. He was not what would be called a cultivated man, although he knew a great deal beyond the field of law—mathematics, for instance, and botany—for he had been brought up in an unrefined circle, and had been absorbed in legal work during the best years of his life. But his was an intelligence of extraordinary power and flexibility, eminently practical, as the Jews generally are, and yet so powerful as to be also truly scientific. And he was also one of those strong natures who make themselves disliked while they are fighting their way to the top, but grow more genial and more tolerant when they have won what they sought, and see that others admit their preëminence. The immense services which he rendered as a judge illustrate not only the advantage of throwing open all places to all comers—the bigotry of the last century excluded the Jews from judicial office altogether—but also the benefit of having a judge at least equal in ability to the best of those who practise before him. It was because he was so easily master in his court that the chief judicial business of the country was despatched with a swiftness and a success which we are not likely to see again. Y.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF GEORGE SAND.—I.

PARIS, March 15, 1883.

THE fourth volume of the 'Correspondence of George Sand,' which has just appeared,* begins in 1854. She is at Nohant, with her two children, Solange and Maurice, gardening, as she says, with fury, five hours a day, writing novels and dramas the rest of the time, sending a letter one day to Barbès, who was a prisoner at Belle-Isle-en-Mer, and the next day to Prince Napoleon—the same who made such a stir two months ago by a placard at Paris. "My dear Prince," writes this ardent friend of the Republican and Socialist Barbès, "you ask me to write to you. I hardly dare, you must have so little time for reading. Here are two lines to tell you that I always love you, and that I think of you more than you think of me." This letter, sent to the Prince in Paris, was received by him at the camp of Jafeli, near Varna; the Crimean War had begun, and the Prince had the command of a division. "As for the issue which you desire," writes Madame Sand, "the resurrection of Poland, it will come perhaps fatally. . . . Adieu, dear Imperial Highness, always a citizen, and now more than ever, since you are now a soldier of France."

The Emperor Napoleon, who felt himself very strong, having become the ally of England, offered to pardon Barbès; but Barbès would not accept a pardon, and Madame Sand had on this subject a curious discussion with him. "Accept," she said, "whatever people may say. You will be forced to do so. Prisons do not take back voluntary victims." She goes so far as to advise him not to leave France. "No, don't do it. You are free, without any conditions. . . . Remain in France. . . . Stay with us; people become smaller in foreign lands. They do not see right; they become bitter; they become ungrateful toward their native country." She begs him to come and see her. She begins to theorize:

"Some actions are fine, and some are good. Charity can even shut the mouth of honor. I do not speak of true honor, of the honor which is kept in the closet of conscience, but of visible and brilliant honor, of honor which has become a work of art and an historic glory. This kind of honor, like the honor of the heart, has got possession of your existence. You have already become an historical figure, and you represent, in our days, the type of the hero, lost in our sad society. Let me, however," she adds, "defend charity—that wholly religious virtue, wholly interior, wholly secret, of which history will not speak. . . . In my opinion, charity screamed to you: 'Remain, and don't speak; accept this pardon; your chivalrous pride rivets chains and tightens dungeon bolts: it condemns to perpetual exile the proscribed of December; it condemns to misery, to a fearful misery, many whole families. Ah! you have lived in your strength and in your sanctity, and you have not seen the women and the children weep. In the cruel party to which we belong, one blames the fathers of families who ask to come back and to gain bread for their children; it is odious."

Here Madame Sand becomes herself; she is a woman. But why did she not preach charity before as well as after? Why did she flatter the passions of the multitude? Why did she rouse the anger of the workingmen? Who sent those unfortunate and ignorant fathers of families to the barricades of February, 1848, and of June, 1848? Who said to the populace: "You are great; you are sublime; you are the true, the only master"? The mischief was done, even before the *Coup d'État* of December. Hundreds of Republicans had been sent into exile, not by Napoleon III., but by the Republic of 1848. Still, we cannot wonder if Madame Sand, seeing the Second Empire established, tried as much as she could to help the proscribed and the prisoners. Her pride had fallen. She did not speak any more as she did in the "Bulletin of the Republic"; she abused the "ferocious" politicians: "They demand that all their brethren should be saints! Have they the right to do so? You, perhaps, had such a right? but can anybody have it? I never felt that I had myself; I have helped as many as possible to come in or to come out. To come in—those whom exile would have killed; to go out—those who by staying would have gone to their ruin. . . . I do not despise the men who are neither heroes nor saints. It would be necessary to despise too many, and myself among the rest, as I could never harden myself before the sight of suffering." She speaks to this vain Barbès almost in the tone of the 'Imitation of Christ': "I am not sure that those who have sacrificed their activity, their career, their political future, even their reputation, have not been, in some circumstances, the true saints and the true martyrs."

In 1855, Madame Sand lost her granddaughter, the child of Solange, who was married to the sculptor Clésinger. This marriage was not a fortunate one. Madame Sand did not like her son-in-law, but had a very great affection for Solange and her child. She always felt the necessity of theorizing, even over her own sufferings, and she plunged into a work of the Saint-Simonian, Jean Reynaud, in order to find arguments in favor of the immortality of the soul.

She left some time afterward for Rome. Curiously enough, she does not seem to have much liked the city of ruins—the city of the soul, as Byron called it. "It is fine, it is interesting, it is astonishing; but it is too dead, and one ought to know by heart not only the famous book, 'Rome au siècle d'Auguste,' but also the history of Rome at every epoch of her existence. . . . There was a time, under the Empire, when people sat on a broken column and meditated on the ruins of Palmyra [an allusion to the 'Ruins' of Volney]. It was the fashion—everybody meditated. Now people prefer to live." She complains of the dirt and filth of Rome; she does not even like the Campagna: "The Campagna of Rome, which has been so praised, is truly of a singular immensity, but so flat, so naked, so deserted, so monotonous, so sad!" She enjoys the mountains, the hills of Frascati. She remained some time at Frascati with Maurice, who was convalescent, enjoying the flowers, the rivulets, the cascades, the old and monstrous trees, the ruins, the broken statues, the mosaics, the galleries, the endless staircases—all those vestiges of the wealth of the ancient Romans, placed before a great panorama of mountains and of plains. This great Campagna of Rome appears from the hills of Frascati like a sea surrounded by mountains. She spent Easter at Rome, and received the famous benediction, "urbi et orbi," but she did not admire the *mise-en-scène*. "The French taste," she says, "is wanting in everything—in this as in all other things." She did not feel the seductive power of Italy. "Too many things here are not in harmony with our ways of seeing and of feeling; it is well to have seen them, however, if only to make us love all the more our France with her gray sky, where the men, even though not what they ought to be, are more manly than anywhere else." Maurice, who was an entomologist and a botanist, was perfectly happy; he was also an artist, and made many sketches. Madame Sand writes on the 9th of May from Spezzia; in July she was back again at Nohant.

"The Mariage de Victorine" is the only play of Madame Sand's which has been adopted in what is called the *répertoire* of the French Theatre. It is truly charming, played, as it is now, by Mlle. Barretta. It was intended to be a sequel to Sedaine's "Le Philosophe sans le savoir," one of the good plays of the end of the last century. Madame Sand writes on the subject to Jules Janin:

"I hate the bourgeois so little that I have adopted in the 'Mariage de Victorine' the *donnée* of Sedaine concerning M. Vanderke, who, being a nobleman, made himself a merchant, and who found in his work, in his liberality, in his probity, in his wisdom, in his modesty, the humble and true glory of a character which Sedaine summed up in one word, 'philosophe sans le savoir.' In the same piece, the wife, the daughter, the son of Vanderke are loving, sincere, and good creatures. I have changed nothing in the types of the master, and I have developed the type of *Antoine*, the business man, the friend of the house, the *petit bourgeois*, who is a model of disinterestedness and of fidelity. Then I have created the type of *Fulgence*, another *petit bourgeois*, a mere clerk. . . . The 'Mariage de Victorine' is, therefore, a piece set in the midst of the bourgeoisie, and a modest but sincere apotheosis of the virtues of this class, when it understands and practises its true duties."

In this letter to Jules Janin she compares the old bourgeoisie, counting every night the modest profits of work and of trade, with the great bourgeoisie of our day, which lives on the profits of speculation, on chance. "There is no longer any question, in order to build a fortune, of working patiently and daily, of having the virtues of trade or the inspirations of art; you must understand the mechanism of banks, the calculations of chance; you must play boldly; you must know that gambling has become the soul of our modern society." We find her in

* *George Sand.* Correspondance, 1812-1876. Paris: Calmann Lévy New York: F. W. Christern.

correspondence with Alexander Dumas, *fils*, who compliments her on one of her plays, "Favilla" (in "Favilla" Madame Sand brings together an artist and a bourgeois who dislikes art and artists). She compliments him on his "Demi-Monde." She regrets that the virtuous girl of the "Demi-Monde" should be so little before the public, after having been so well presented to it, and that the bad woman, the *Baronne d'Ange*, true as she is to life, should be the absorbing character of the play. "I know well," she says, "that having made the 'Dame aux Camélias' so interesting, you wanted to show the reverse of the medal. Art needs those impartial studies and those contrasts which exist in life; so I make no criticism. I esteem you the first of our dramatists in the new manner, the new style, as your father was the first in the style of yesterday. I belong to the style of the day before yesterday, or of the day after to-morrow. I don't know, and don't care: I amuse myself." She became more and more enamored of the theatre, but she was not practical; as she says, she wrote her plays too much to amuse herself, for herself, without taking into account the necessities of the stage. She arranged Shakspere's "As You Like It" for the Théâtre-Français; she wrote "Françoise" and a number of other pieces. They are now all forgotten, except the "Mariage de Victorine" and "François le Champi."

Madame Sand worked too hard; she had much to forget, and work was her only way of forgetting. She felt tired at times: "I long always for *absence;* absence, for me, is the little corner where I could repose, away from all business, all visits, all domestic trouble, all responsibility for my own existence. It is what I found for three weeks, last year, at Frascati—for a week at Spezzia. Would to Heaven I might find it again for six months anywhere, under a soft sky and amid picturesque scenery—a modest dream, but which floats before me for ten years before I can realize it."

Madame Sand was not such a bitter enemy of the Second Empire that she could not write to the Empress Eugénie in a style which would have the approval of the *Court Circular*. Asking for a *bourse* for the grandson of an actress, Madame Dorval, she said: "It will be one benefit more in the precious life of your Majesty. . . . This sacred title of mother, which heaven has sanctified in your Majesty. . . . The gracious protection which your Majesty extends over all artists. . . ." It is all in this style. The Empress immediately did what Madame Sand asked her to do, and Madame Sand thanked her in the same courtly manner. This would not be worth noting if it was not an indication of a kind of political abdication on the part of Madame Sand. She had given up the game; the passions of 1848 had become quite extinct. She even enjoyed to a certain extent a state of things which humbled the upper classes, and which had flatteries for the peasant and for the workingman. She did not say so openly—there was still in her something of the old spirit; but she was not what was then called "irreconcilable." She sympathized fully with Prince Napoleon, who was, like herself, an uneasy spirit, half Prince and half democrat—a "César déclassé," as About called him in a curious article on the Salon at which Flandrin exhibited his admirable portrait of the nephew of Napoleon. When she heard of the attempt of Orsini, she writes: "I make no wishes for the shade of Orsini & Co." She writes to Prince Napoleon, March 12, 1858, thanking him for some act of kindness toward one of her friends: "You are an angel; that is certain." She always calls him "Dear Imperial Highness." She tells him: "If anything ought to console you, it is the thought that you will be beloved and appreciated by all who are still worth something." She tried to save some of the men who were exiled after Orsini's attempt, and interested Prince Napoleon in their cause. She played the part of a protector of the oppressed under the Empire, but this part imposed on her a certain sort of familiarity, and even of sympathy, with the Empire itself. She blamed many things; she did not call for a revolution.

Correspondence.

THE ACQUISITION OF OREGON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I do not know that the following will throw any light on the origin of our title to Oregon, discussed in the *Nation* of last week, but it may be worth recording as a personal reminiscence.

Some time, I think, in the year 1845, I dined with Mr. John Quincy Adams, at his house in Quincy, and the conversation after dinner fell upon the circumstances of the treaty with Spain in 1819. I suppose it was the annexation of Texas, just then effected—or in discussion—that led the talk that way. In deciding the case of Florida, it was agreed that the boundary of the Louisiana purchase toward Mexico should be finally settled. The French and Spanish ministers were consulted, but neither of them had any definite notion on the subject. Spain claimed, by right of conquest, indefinitely north from Mexico, up to the North Pole. France claimed, by right of discovery, indefinitely west from the Mississippi, as far as the Pacific Ocean. Neither seemed to know anything about the region in question, or to care much about it. Both were evidently rather tired of the business, and inclined to take up with any reasonable proposal. A map of the country was lying on the table, and Mr. Adams, taking a ruler, *drew a pencil-line from the Pacific coast* on the parallel of 42° —the latitude of the southern boundary of Massachusetts and New York—as far as the Red River, proposing then to follow down that stream to a certain point, from which a line should be run due south to the Sabine. This was at once accepted by all parties, with evident relief, and remained our boundary till 1845.

In making this proposal, I understood that Mr. Adams had two points in view: the first, and most important, was to give this country *an undisputed claim upon the Pacific*, where peaceable enlargement of our boundaries was sure to follow in due time. He expressed, in fact, entire confidence that the United States would come eventually to occupy the whole continent, from the arctic zone to the Isthmus of Darien. The other object was to hold the line of occupation for an indefinite time *well to the north*, to prevent Southern and slaveholding occupancy, and especially (as I infer), by excluding Texas, to keep at a good distance from Mexico, and discourage such raids in future as those of Aaron Burr. Whether, by shifting his ruler a few degrees, he could have given us California, New Mexico, and Texas then and there, without the war of 1847, but with a longer lease to slavery, is not quite clear; but apparently it might have been so. J. H. Allen.

Ithaca, N. Y., April 5, 1883.

BLIND GUIDES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your columns attention has been called to the custom of retitling, ante-dating, and post-dating books, uncut leaves, and other matters of interest to book-buyers. I should like to speak a word for the unlearned on a similar topic. They are frequently, to their sorrow and loss, led astray in buying books by the thoughtless commendations of men whose reputations invite confidence. Undoubtedly a few sentences of praise, non commital, perhaps, are useful in putting an end to the ceaseless pertinacity of agents. But distinguished scholars at such times should think not only of their own comfort, but of that large circle of readers who place reliance on their opinions.

Let me give a case in point. Last summer, a book on antiquities by unknown writers received a large sale throughout the country. The agents continually and effectively referred to the favorable words of well-known scholars. For instance, Prof. W. S. Tyler, of Amherst, says it is "edited with a great degree of learning and judgment." Dr. Howard Crosby pronounces it "full of useful information derived from the best sources." Dr. Andrews, Professor of Greek in Madison University, is still more misleading: "It has evidently been prepared by the intelligent use of high authorities, and is marked, therefore, by an *accuracy* not often found in such compilations. In reading those parts of the book which treat of subjects pertaining to my own department, I have been gratified by the correctness of the work."

I came across the following instances of a "great degree of learning," pieces of useful information and examples of "accuracy," which, no doubt, would be not merely "useful," but most astounding "information" to the writers of these phrases. Among other things, we are told that the Laocoon group was "sculptured 3,000 years ago"; that the best authorities agree that Homer was born in the city of Melesigenes (!); that Socrates wrote the Memorabilia, or at least that part of it which details the dialogue between himself and Aristodemus; and that King Perseus fought Rome about 580 B.C. We are given a picture of an "altar 3,000 years old," yet it has a dedicatory inscription. If the inscription was later than the altar, it should have been noted by the learned and accurate editors. We are shown a "painting 2,600 years old" of an interior, but on the walls are inscriptions in Greek letters of the Roman period. On another page is the picture of a Hebrew MS. "Pentateuch, written 3,200 years ago." "It was the work of the great grandson of Aaron, as indicated." Does Dr. Crosby know of an older autograph than this? Again, the authors tell the reader that, to give him a correct idea of ancient style, they have translated from the old Greek some stories which are given just as they were written. Every one of these stories is taken from Rev. G. W. Cox's book, 'Tales of Ancient Greece.' Apart from the theft and lie, they do not give a correct idea of ancient style.

These are but specimens. But that book was praised by college presidents, professors of ancient literature, and clergymen of all denominations as an accurate and valuable work. Many who could ill spare the money were enticed by such apparently trustworthy criticisms to pay $5 for a book whose comparative worthlessness cannot long remain concealed. Have not learned men a duty in such cases—a duty which, in this instance, certainly was not done?

B.

New Haven, Conn., April 4.

WOMEN'S INTEREST IN POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: One of your correspondents lately has stated that women do not take an interest in politics. But there is another side. Not knowing any one else quite so well, I will cite my

humble self as an instance, and there are probably plenty of others like me.

My education has been desultory. My entire life has been spent on a plantation, with the exception of perhaps three years spent at odd times in the North. I take a keen interest in everything, politics among others. I assure you, in all frankness, that I very rarely meet a man, either at home or in the North, who is as well "up" in general politics as myself. Although they will know perhaps one subject much more thoroughly, they will be totally ignorant of another. So much have I found this the case that I am ashamed of what I do know, and seek to conceal it, for men do not like to be found wanting; and only when excited in discussion do I sometimes betray myself. Then people stare at me as though I were a maniac, and say, "I did not know you took *such* an interest in politics," which instantly crushes me.

I form my opinions after reading our own paper, then the other side in the New York *Times*, then the *Nation's* views, almost always adopting the latter. My political opinions are certainly not formed by my relatives of the sterner sex, for I never agree with my father, and rarely with my brother, and we are constantly having the liveliest discussions. Neither do I always agree with you, dear *Nation*, though I have been a devoted reader of yours since quite a child—for instance, your views expressed in a late review of 'Emerson at Home and Abroad.'

I am equally fond of dancing (let me whisper it—of flirting), music, art, and a little philosophy, and would take a much deeper interest in all subjects if I knew what to do with my knowledge. So we girls will welcome the Annex to Harvard, or Columbia—in fact, an annex to *everything* that will give us a chance to improve ourselves; and you must help us all you can.

D.

LOUISIANA, March 28, 1883.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & Co. have in press 'Calumet of the Coteau, and Other Legends of the Western Border,' by P. W. Norris.

A. D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately a new edition, carefully revised, of 'The Ancient Church: Its History, Doctrine, Worship, and Constitution,' traced from the first three hundred years, by W. D. Killen, D.D., Professor of Ecclesiastical History and Pastoral Theology in the Irish Assembly College. It will contain a preface by the Rev. Dr. John Hall.

Lockwood, Brooks & Co., Boston, have ready, as the American publishers, Vol. ii. of Halkett and Laing's 'Dictionary of the Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature of Great Britain.' Vol. iii., completing the work, will be ready in the autumn. It is both singular and sad that both the partners in this laborious enterprise should have died before their work could see the light in print.

The fifth volume in the elegant Parchment Edition of Shakspere (D. Appleton & Co.) contains "Richard II." and the first two parts of "King Henry IV."

A. C. Armstrong & Son have brought out a new and handsome reprint of the late Dean Stanley's 'Sinai and Palestine, in connection with their History,' carefully conformed to the last English edition, and including its fine colored maps of Egypt, the Sinai Peninsula, the Sinai range, and the Holy Land (in two divisions). This book, which, when first published in 1855, established its author's position in the foremost rank of scholarly and yet popular writers on sacred subjects, and which has since gone through more than a score of editions, is not likely soon to lose its hold upon the public, in spite of the changes constantly wrought by geographical exploration and Biblical criticism in our conceptions of localities and events recorded in the Scripture narratives. The charm of the Dean's warm and vivid diction will long outweigh considerations of accuracy or completeness, in which the work may here and there be found wanting.

Mr. C. G. Bush's 'Our Choir: a Symphonie . . . Opus 1881' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) consists of a number of plates, combining text and illustration, reproduced in facsimile from the author's pen-drawings. The text, under such conditions, is apt to be hard to read; and here, such is the crudity of the versification, it becomes doubly trying. Mr. Bush's humor is undeniable, but his designs and lettering are sadly undecorative, and the result is an unlovely thing.

We have received Part 1 of 'The Humphreys Family in America,' by Frederick Humphreys, M.D., of this city, and several assistants. Although this pamphlet is of a size of page (7⅞ x 5¾ inches) unusual in such works, it seems to be a mere prelude to the history of the family. The part before us treats of various families in England named Humphrey or some similar name; even embracing those entitled Umfraville, although no blood relationship between them is conceivable. Some pages are given to the subject of heraldry, and at the close we light upon John Humfrey, one of the early magnates of Massachusetts. Thus far the prelude is monotonous and suggests nothing of the second part. When it arrives we may perhaps learn something about the Americans for whom this genealogy has been prepared, and pending that information we will not suggest that the present instalment is useless.

To their Bohn series the London publishers, George Bell & Sons, have just added a new edition of Lockhart's 'Life of Burns,' with annotations, an appendix, and a sketch of Lockhart himself by William Scott Douglas (New York: Scribner & Welford). The work thus revised is very considerably improved, and the new matter is as interesting as it is valuable. Part of it discusses the paternal ancestry of the poet, and another straightens out the bibliography of the Life, which, it appears, had a fifth but never a second edition. Mr. Douglas's style is not always as correct as Lockhart's, but he was otherwise well fitted to perfect this standard memorial of Burns.

B. Westermann & Co. send us the first half (A–K) of the third edition of 'Meyer's Hand-Lexikon,' a model of condensation and of typographical neatness. A special feature of this work is the insets, printed on a straw-colored paper, which supplement certain articles, as the chronological table of geographical discovery, the table of financial comparison between the German States and other European Powers, the table of German and Austro Hungarian railroads; or explain a plate, as when annexed to the chart showing the earth's population, or to the representation of poisonous plants or noxious insects, or to the diagrams for mechanism like the steam-engine, the electric light, the telephone; or, finally, index a map with names of places alphabetized and located by latitude and longitude. Another excellent feature, if not novel, is the bibliography of the several subjects, which is fresh and intelligent. Thus Von Holst's 'Calhoun' is referred to under that statesman (whose name, by the way, we are told to pronounce *Källuhn*). Goethe has two columns on one page allowed him; Bismarck gets but one and a third columns, and even so surpasses Frederick the Great. France gets eight and a half pages, Great Britain (with England and Ireland) considerably more. Under the various countries are useful reviews of the national literature. American topics are fairly well looked after. Mr. Conkling, by the only slip we have observed, is made a judge of the Supreme Court in spite of his refusal. The little space on the shelf occupied by all this information is not its least merit.

A "Commercial Calendar," showing the lowest and highest quotations per month, during 1882, for various railroad shares and bonds, staple products, exchange, silver, etc., in a brief compass, by means of a revolving disk, has been published by John C. Welch, No. 72 Beaver Street.

We have before us Bulletin No. 1 of the United States Geological Survey: 'On Hypersthene-andesite, and on Triclinic Pyroxene in Augitic Rocks,' by Whitman Cross. Mr. S. F. Emmons, geologist in charge of the division of the Rocky Mountains, in a preface vouching for the importance of this purely technical paper, sketches the geology of Buffalo Peaks, of which a striking view serves as a frontispiece.

Bulletin No. 3 of the American Geographical Society, bearing date of 1882, though just issued, surpasses the average of this series in interest. The important exploration of the River Beni, a tributary of the Madeira, and a great rubber district, by Dr. E. R. Heath, is the subject of the first paper, the explorer giving a plain abstract of his journals. General E. L. Viele paints in dark colors Mexican life and character on the Rio Grande frontier. Two maps accompany the Bulletin. As usual, there is not the slightest indication of the connection between its contents and the proceedings of the Geographical Society.

An unusual literary partnership is that between Dr. Asa Gray and Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull in the April number of the *American Journal of Science*. They jointly review De Candolle's 'Origin of Cultivated Plants,' with the result of claiming more indigenous plants for America than the Swiss botanist allows. A second article is promised in the next number.

The meritorious *Newport Historical Magazine* closes its third volume with the number for April. Improvements are promised, and a larger support is earnestly desired. To show how wide a circle this periodical interests, we quote from a paper in the current issue on early Rhode Island settlers in New Jersey. The following pedigree has only lately been worked out, though long suspected: "Samuel Lincoln came from Norwich, England, to Massachusetts. He had a son, Mordecai 1st, of Hingham, who in turn had children—Mordecai 2d, born April 24, 1686. . . . Mordecai 2d came [as early as 1714] to Monmouth, N. J., where he married, and his oldest son was named John. They moved [about 1720] to Easton, Pennsylvania, where the father died. John went to Rockingham County, Va., and had sons—Abraham. . . . The first named of these sons, Abraham, had a son Thomas, who was the father of the martyr President."

In the March *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton) the editor's hand is conspicuous, first in an illustrated article on "The Destruction of Cairo," next in his third paper on Paris, and last in an obituary tribute to Gustave Doré, for whose private character Mr. Hamerton expresses unfeigned respect, and whose art he judges with sympathetic discrimination. The subject of the Paris paper is the Island of St. Louis, circumnavigated. Mr. Hamerton remarks that the new Hôtel Dieu covers a site once occupied by "three churches and part of a fourth, and no less than eleven streets." A strong etching by Jacomb Hood shows the watering of horses in the Seine, which

is one of the animated and picturesque sights along that river. Those who are curious in regard to new modes of engraving should examine the illustration on page 53—a "white-line" etching, to borrow a term from the kindred art of wood-engraving.

To those who wish to combine the study of the French language with serious thinking we can recommend *La Réforme Sociale*, a fortnightly magazine published at No. 174 Boulevard St. Germain, Paris. Its name truly indicates its character, but does not imply the readability which this periodical possesses. Its articles are always intelligent and often stimulating, even when the subjects are rather exclusively French, as is by no means the case with all. The issue for March 15 contains a capital picture of the character, home, business, and belongings of a merchant of Troyes, in the time of Henry IV., based on his will and the accompanying inventory.

Fifteen thousand francs were raised towards the gold medal got up for the 60th birthday of the chevalier G. B. de Rossi, and presented to him by his admirers on Dec. 11, 1882. America, we are glad to see, was not wanting from the list, and outdid Greece, Portugal, and Spain in the number of subscribers. The promised commemorative album has been distributed.

The new 'Life of De Morgan' furnishes this interesting addition to the list of fictitious authors: "Seven-Figure Logarithms of Numbers. . . . Trans. of Ludwig Schroen Siebenstellige. Gemeine Logarithmen der Zanten (*sic*)."

Sundby and Baruël's "Dansk-Norsk-Fransk Ordbog," of which seven or eight parts have appeared, goes as far in the use of signs as Q. P. Index. If a word is ornithological, a little figure of a bird, resembling an Egyptian hieroglyphic, and about as large as a capital letter, takes the place of the usual abbreviation "ornith." A fish stands for ichthyol.; and a flower, a music note, an anchor, two swords crossed, are equally easily interpreted; a crown in a circle (a piece of money) is for numism., a caduceus for commercial, a toothed wheel for technical, and a book for didactic. A †, the usual sign for death, means obsolete; and, most ingenious of all, a comet signifies unusual. The signs are so easily understood that they are easily remembered. It is curious that orthography, which began with sign-writing, should have come round to it again in a sort of second childhood.

Among the editions of Molière which continue to pour from Parisian presses in ceaseless profusion, and to a few of which we have been able to refer, none begins to equal in lavish artistic adornment that to be edited by M. Anatole de Montaiglon (Paris: Lemonnyer; New York: F. W. Christern). It is to contain brief commentaries, and its text is to be an exact reproduction of the original editions, adorned with more than 700 new and original illustrations by M. Jacques Leman, among them 32 full-page plates, 150 head-pieces, as many tail-pieces, and more than 160 entirely different initial letters. This sumptuous edition of the greatest of French dramatists will appear play by play, to be bound finally in eight or ten volumes. The illustrations are all on copper, and the price of the whole work varies from 500 to 1,500 francs.

—In former days, it is said, young women in New England spoke of the limbs of a piano, the word legs being too great a trial of their modesty. The *Saturday Review* and some other English writers have laughed at this enough to give an American a certain satisfaction in the Bowdlerist character of Bishop Wordsworth's new edition of Shakspere. He cannot stomach "thigh"; "the breasts of Hecuba when she did suckle Hector" offend his sight; "harlot" is an abomination to him. These scruples are a little like the dash which printers still think it necessary to put after the "big, big D"; but, after all, what can be done? The custom of reading Shakspere aloud in the family circle has fortunately not entirely vanished from the land; Shakspere Clubs, though not so flourishing, for some occult reason, as ten years ago, are still numerous. It is very inconvenient in reading aloud in mixed companies to come upon phrases which society at present has agreed to taboo. Call it foolish, squeamish; say that there ought not to be any feeling in the matter; the fact remains that there is, and therefore, for some purposes, the Wordsworthian expurgations may have their use.

—A little over a year ago the French Minister of Public Instruction, at the suggestion of M. de Ronchaud, Director of the Louvre, reëstablished the courses of instruction in the National Museums which had been for many years intermitted. At the foundation of the Egyptian Museum in 1826, there was attached to it a course in Egyptian, which for six years was conducted by Champollion. The idea of a system of special studies, carried on in the presence of the monuments, has now been revived and the plan enlarged, and a pamphlet just issued by Ernest Leroux ('Discours d'ouverture de MM. les Professeurs de l'École du Louvre') contains the opening lectures of the first semester of 1882-83. These are as follows: "On the Demotic Language," by Eugène Revillout, Adjunct Conservator of the Egyptian Museum; "On Egyptian Archæology," by P. Pierret, Conservator of the Egyptian Museum; "On Egyptian Law," by Revillout; "On Semitic Epigraphy," by Ledrain, who is connected with the Oriental antiquities of the Louvre; "On National Archæology (two lectures)," by Alexandre Bertrand, Member of the Institute, and Conservator of the Museum of St. Germain. These lectures, valuable and interesting in themselves, are still more interesting as introducing the system of study which they represent. It is an admirable idea to convert the Louvre into a University. Might not the British Museum be utilized in the same way? In this country, unfortunately, we have not the material for such a method of work, except, perhaps, in the departments of palæontology and American antiquities.

—We have space for a brief notice only of the lectures. Revillout, in his first lecture, defines the Demotic language, points out its linguistic value as intermediary between the Old Egyptian and the Coptic, and gives specimens of its literature, especially from the remarkable work which he calls 'Philosophical Conversations between the Kufite Jackal and the Ethiopian Cat,' in which the latter represents orthodoxy, and the former philosophical scepticism, with an admixture of Darwinism. In his second lecture he gives a sketch of the development of Egyptian law. Pierret's lecture is devoted to the Egyptian religion, on its philosophical and its mythological sides—its monotheism, its developed solarism, its animal-worship, its idea of a future life. Ledrain, in his short discourse, announces the somewhat startling proposition, that the principle of the North-Semitic religion (borrowed from the non-Semitic Sumerians) was dualism; proof of which he finds in the engravings on various seals and coins, where are figured lions or bulls, and gazelles or goats, the former solar symbols, and representatives of good, the latter, as animals which feed on and destroy the sacred trees, symbols of evil (by others these figures, including the lion and the unicorn in the English Royal Coat of Arms, are regarded as representing the contest between the sun and the moon). But it seems to be going too far to find in representations of good and evil powers, which exist in all religions, proofs of a probably dualistic system. Bertrand, after stating the general problems of French archæology, discusses the tertiary and the quaternary man, deciding against the former, and for the latter. The lectures, written with French clearness and freshness, give promise of excellent results for the work of the semester.

—The *Deutsche Rundschau* for March prints an address by Professor Du Bois-Reymond on "Friedrich II. in englischen Urtheilen" (English Opinions of Frederick II.), delivered before the Berlin Academy of Sciences on the anniversary of the birth of its royal founder. The day coincided with the celebration of the silver wedding of the Crown Prince, and the subject was undoubtedly chosen with special reference to the Crown Princess's nationality. Viewed as an historical composition, the lecture is a rather superfluous glorification of Frederick the Great, and, if intended as a tribute to an English Princess, singularly ill-timed; for while at the outset Prof. Du Bois-Reymond dwells on the blessings which have resulted to Prussia from her connection with the Guelphs of England, and even for a moment indulges in speculation as to what would have been the consequence if Frederick II., too, had allied himself with an English Princess, he soon proceeds to sound the key-note of his address—the characteristic inability of the English to appreciate Frederick's greatness. It is a defect not observable among the French, "even when their national sentiment was most overwrought." Among the literary manifestations of this British prejudice, Macaulay's 'Essay on Frederick the Great' naturally excites Du Bois-Reymond's greatest ire. In itself, as occupying "probably the lowest rank among Macaulay's writings," it is not of great importance, but it is typical of the insular prejudice of the British, "who value other nations only in so far as they are, or may be, useful to them." The principal English reproach against Frederick II.—his conquest of Silesia—Prof. Du Bois-Reymond answers with the *tu-quoque* argument: that the doings of the East India Company at the same time were even worse. Lecky is also taken to task for presuming, in his 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century,' to find fault with Frederick's alleged lack of German patriotism. "What right has Mr. Lecky to be more sensitive in this respect than Goethe and Schiller, Herr Emanuel Geibel or Herr Wilhelm Scherer?" In contrast with Macaulay's "utilitarianism," Carlyle's "idealism" was much better fitted to appreciate Frederick's greatness, although "even he was a stranger to the King's real intellectual nature." Carlyle also incurs Du Bois-Reymond's displeasure for calling Frederick, at the close of his book, "the last of Kings." "Carlyle wrote this before 1866; after 1870 . . . he would not have written it. What Frederick prepared, the third great Hohenzollern, Emperor William, finished. And to-day one may well feel assured that the series of great monarchs of that dynasty is not yet at an end." But it is easier to point out Du Bois-Reymond's perfervid patriotism and overflowing loyalty than to do justice to the charms of his diction and the evidences of his familiarity with English history and literature, which render this address as attractive as is everything emanating from his pen. Most of the other articles in this number of the *Rundschau*—"Schiller," by Prof. Wilhelm Scherer, "The German Dynasty in Rumania," the instalment of "Stories from Two Annexed Countries by a German Officer," and the novel, by Wilhelm Berger, the scene of which is laid in France

at the time of the late war—are on subjects of chiefly German interest.

—A Transcaucasian correspondent of the München (lately Augsburg) *Allgemeine Zeitung* communicates some interesting ethnographical details concerning the Turkomans of Merv and their oasis, based on fresh information obtained by the Geographical Society of Tiflis. They will be found confirming in the main, as to the character of the Tekke Turkomans, the statements made by O'Donovan in his book on 'Merv,' recently reviewed in this journal. According to that information, which, in view of the unchecked access to the territory lately gained by Russians, may be deemed specially trustworthy, the oasis of Merv embraces a little upward of two thousand square miles, fully four-fifths of which is cultivable. It is watered by the river Murkhad, about two hundred and eighty miles long, and an entire system of large and small canals branching off from it. Artificial irrigation is the more needed as not a drop of rain falls from May to September, a season of terrific heat. In early winter, however, snow covers the ground for about twenty days; in February the temperature rises rapidly. Water is wealth in the oasis; it serves as a standard of riches, and is bestowed on chiefs as a reward for services. The population is comparatively dense, numbering nearly two hundred and fifty thousand, and rather poor. No permanent taxes are paid; the *mejlis* determine the amount from time to time; the executive is in the hands of three khans. Many trades are cultivated; the silversmiths and workers of arms are very skilful; beautifully ornamented carpets are woven by women, and exported into Turkey, where they are valued more highly than the Persian manufactures. The women dress almost like the men. Instead of arms they wear silver trinkets in the belts over their gowns. The Merv ladies are not remarkable for beauty, but wives are bought at a high price in money, lambs, and camels. The coarse gluttony of the Mervians, of which O'Donovan has so much to tell, and their thievish and robbing propensities, are also dwelt upon in the Russian reports; but the latter vice is said to characterize only their dealings with strangers, while theft practised on men of their own tribe is regarded with abhorrence. Striking instances of Turkoman honesty are related.

—Dr. Robert Koch, the present head of the Imperial German Health Bureau at Berlin, was a very few years ago an obscure physician in a Prussian country town. Within the past year, owing to his discovery of the now generally accepted *bacillus tuberculosis*, his name has undoubtedly been spoken and written more often by his professional brethren in civilized countries than that of any other member of the medical profession; and justly so, for Koch's discovery of a bacillus of tubercle, whether leading to fruitful or barren conclusions, was but the legitimate offspring of much previous admirable and faithful work, in the course of which he developed the best method of cultivating microorganisms so as to be able to attain unmixed cultures of the different varieties—the method of embedding them in gelatine. Pasteur's method—that of cultivating these organisms in sterilized liquids—is by no means so reliable. The superior accuracy of Koch's methods has led to a perhaps inevitable controversy in print between these two men, who may fairly be regarded as the two most distinguished mycologists of the day—the one representing a German, the other a French school of experiment. Such a controversy has been pending since Pasteur's appearance before the International Congress of Hygiene at Geneva last September, somewhat in the character of the modern Jenner. Dr. Koch, in fulfilment of a promise there made to reply in print to the remarks of M. Pasteur at that meeting, has put forth a brochure entitled 'Ueber die Milzbrandimpfung' (Kassel: Theodor Fischer). It is a fine example of strong, scientific polemical writing, and the glimpses it gives of Koch's methods of research afford a striking view of the thorough and painstaking character of the best laboratory work in Germany at the present day.

—The poet Zhukovski, the hundredth anniversary of whose birth was lately celebrated in Russia, was the leading writer of his nation during the period of transition from classicism to romanticism. For a time he acted as a champion of romanticism, and was as such warmly combated and admired; but though his poetry was not of the tame, orthodox pattern of the period of Derzhavin, it never took a high flight, and he was too much of an imitator and translator to become a pathfinder in a new domain of the intellect. He was the warm friend both of the classical prose-writer Karamzin and of Pushkin, the real inaugurator of the new literary era; but survived the former thirty years, and the latter sixteen. Zhukovski excelled in almost every kind of poetry, but chiefly as a writer of ballads and lyrics. When a youth he acquired fame by the translation of Gray's 'Elegy,' and shortly before his death, in 1852, he translated Homer's 'Odyssey.' In 1812, when he fought against the French invader, he wrote famous martial songs, and in 1849, when broken down with age and a morbid pietism, he sang his revered patron's, Czar Nicholas's, victory over the Hungarians. His verse was exquisitely finished and purely Russian. He generally chose soft, and often elegiac, topics. His character was feminine, and his sentiments were noble, but he remained to the end an admirer of Czardom, and was tormented in his last years by the advance of revolutionary ideas. He had become estranged from the younger generation of his people, and is now esteemed chiefly as the preceptor of the Emperor Alexander II., upon whose mind he exercised a very beneficial, humanizing influence. Zhukovski was the illegitimate son of a country nobleman by a Turkish captive, studied at the German University of Dorpat, in Livonia, became reader to Nicholas's consort, and in 1818, when the future Alexander II. was born, educator of the Grand Duke, which he remained till 1840. He subsequently travelled in Germany, where he also spent the evening of his life, in the company of a young wife, a religious enthusiast and self-tormentor like himself.

—Mme. Patti does not like to be classified with those vocalists whose proper and exclusive sphere is the playful, vivacious, debonair. To a friend who thus classified her, twenty years ago, she replied, with a toss of her head, "I am not a buffa." Even after a performance of "Don Giovanni" she exclaimed, passing over his praise of her *Zerlina*, "I should prefer to sing *Donna Anna*, and I shall yet sing the part." To the best of our knowledge she has never kept this promise. *Rosina* in "Il Barbiere" and *Zerlina* in "Don Giovanni" are still, in their totality, her best characters. In these her acting is no less spontaneous and graceful than her singing. In some of the semi-tragic operas of Verdi and Donizetti her art is much better shown on the vocal than on the histrionic side, while in an opera like "Faust" she fails to give satisfaction either as vocalist or actress. She has, therefore, followed a wise instinct in avoiding the part of *Donna Anna*, and if she should ever carry out her intention of appearing as *Elsa* in "Lohengrin," she will commit the greatest error of her artistic life. On Friday her *Zerlina* was seen for the first time in New York, and was immediately recognized as the best *Zerlina* that has ever appeared here. She sang Mozart's music with charming simplicity and purity of style, and precisely as it was written—a point that calls for special mention, as most of our Italian singers, especially the tenors, have a vicious habit of transposing every final note an octave for "effect"—*i. e.*, for the applause of the *vulgus*. In her acting she introduced such a large number of delicious touches, entirely her own, that the most blasé opera-goer must have felt rejuvenated for the moment. She presents a perfect picture of the artless maiden who unites with an honest anxiety to avoid offence to her bridegroom a coquettish desire to please the gay young man of the world, which the simplest country girl shares with the accomplished city flirt. Frau Lucca is an admirable *Zerlina*, but in this instance she must yield the palm to Mme. Patti, although it should be added that Mme. Lucca is equally great in the part of *Donna Anna*. This rôle was on Friday taken by Mme. Fursch-Madi, who sang it with excellent dramatic spirit. Everything else was, unfortunately, so far below mediocrity that it would be absurd to criticise it in detail. The scenery looked as if it had been that used at the first performance of this opera a century ago The house was full, and in spite of the wretched ensemble the audience took some interest in the performance. With a good cast and fine scenery "Don Giovanni" would doubtless become as popular in this city as any opera; and it would afford a most grateful change from the dreary old repertory, with its faded hothouse melodies. "Don Giovanni" was, of course, given without Mozart's original and undramatic second finale; but some attempt might have been made in its place to suggest the hero's infernal destination, instead of tamely allowing him to disappear down a trap-door, without so much as the flame of a torch to indicate his fate.

—On Saturday the last Philharmonic concert of the season was given at the Academy of Music, before the usual overflowing and discriminating audience. The programme contained no absolute novelty, but two of the numbers must have been new to a large portion of the audience, as they have not been played in New York for some years. One of these was Fuchs's Serenade in D, op. 9, for string orchestra. The first two movements of this composition are rather poor, the last is fairly interesting, while the third and fourth are very fascinating. The applause bestowed on these movements was in exact proportion to their beauty and originality—a phenomenon rarely to be observed in a concert hall. Bargiel's "Medea" overture was also welcomed by those who would like to hear more of this gifted composer, whose chamber music, especially, ranks with the best in existence, although it is strangely neglected by our local clubs. The "Medea" overture is beautifully scored, and the details are often very "suggestive," reminding one in this respect of Schumann, Bargiel's prototype. Schumann was represented on the programme by his magnificent A minor concerto, which was interpreted by Mr. Joseffy. At the rehearsal Mr. Joseffy did not appear to be in the proper mood for doing full justice to this great work; but at the concert he seemed to be, like Rubinstein, inspired by a demon that revealed to him all the subtle *nuances* of rhythmical and dynamic shading, and gave him the physical power to reproduce the full grandeur of the opening and closing movements. Such playing as this makes one forget that a piano is not suited for a large hall, and can only with difficulty be made to blend harmoniously with the

orchestra. It did on this occasion blend as easily as a harp, and the result was a rare musical treat. Mr. Joseffy was, of course, recalled, and obliged to add a short solo piece. This was followed by the "Ocean" symphony, the performance of which was no less marvellous than that of the concerto. Only five of the seven movements of this gigantic work were played, and among those omitted was unfortunately the lovely Scherzo. In its place was put the new Lento assai preceding the Adagio. As the new movement is exceedingly long, and the Adagio not short, a feeling of monotony was produced, which could be easily obviated at future performances by restoring the Scherzo and dropping the Adagio, which is in every way inferior to the Scherzo. The two Allegros—maestoso and con fuoco, with the chorale—are among the most superb of all symphonic movements, and with the Scherzo and Lento they would constitute a symphony that cannot be heard too often. The new movement is of a more realistic and descriptive character than any of its predecessors. It depicts the turbulent movement of the waves, the shrill whistling of the storm wind, and the clap of thunder. The musical means employed are curiously similar to those of the "Flying Dutchman," which will probably forever remain the most truthful orchestral translation of a storm. Wagner's influence is also to be distinctly traced in the Adagio non tanto, in which the wavy accompaniment of the 'cellos is copied from the *Waldweben* in "Siegfried." One disadvantage of having descriptive music on the concert stage was brought into prominence on Saturday. It produces almost a comic effect to *see* the cause of thunder in the shape of an athlete beating a huge drum with all his might and main. The correct thing to do, in our opinion, would be either to use actual stage thunder, or to have three or four big drums at some distance and out of sight. In such a case the imagination is the only true source of emotion.

MISS EDGEWORTH.

A Study of Maria Edgeworth. With Notices of her Father and Friends. By Grace A. Oliver. Boston: A. Williams & Co. 1882.

To the earnest novel-reader few things are more offensive than the combination of Miss Edgeworth's name with that of Jane Austen. They were the two best female novel-writers of their day. But Jane Austen is a real, though perhaps the humblest, member of a highly select circle. In common with Homer, Shakspere, Cervantes, Scott, and perhaps two or three more, she has the power, almost inconceivable to those who do not possess it, of creating characters and endowing them with a life of their own from which all their actions and sayings naturally flow. Miss Edgeworth has not this power: she paints character as it presented itself to her view, sometimes well and sometimes ill, but her men and women have not a life in themselves. Her short tales are excellent, and superior to her novels, for the reason that the things required in a short tale are incident and moral point, not character. In the invention or adaptation of incident she is very clever; she also has a large share of the faculty, most conspicuous in Defoe, of giving fiction the air of reality by minute elaboration of detail. She writes decidedly well, and often says witty or sparkling things, of which but few are to be found in Jane Austen. Like the rest of her privileged class, Jane Austen very seldom speaks in her own person: we can hardly gather more of her opinions from her writings than we can gather of those of Homer from the passage in the 'Iliad' where he shows his feeling against the demagogism of Thersites, or of those of Shakspere from the criticism on the playwrights and actors of his time in "Hamlet." Near as Jane Austen is to us chronologically, the history of her life not having been recorded nor her letters preserved, we know almost as little of her personally as of Homer or Shakspere. Miss Edgeworth, on the other hand, is constantly before her readers; she is always dissertating and moralizing, if not in her own name, most palpably by the mouth of one of the personages in the novel—always showing her puppets, while Jane Austen's characters display themselves. A small example is as illustrative as a great one. Let the passages of 'Emma' in which the garrulous Miss Bates becomes confused in her talk and mixes incongruous subjects together, be compared with the passage of 'Helen' in which Granville Beauclerk's flightiness of mind produces a somewhat similar jumble in his diary, and the truth of the distinction between creating and painting will probably be felt. In two things Miss Edgeworth and Jane Austen are alike: both of them take their subjects from the society around them, and neither of them can be said to portray passion—Miss Edgeworth, of the two, attempts the higher flight in that direction. She, once at least in her life, knew love; whether Jane Austen ever knew it, we cannot tell.

About Jane Austen, as we have said, hardly anything is known. The Life of her by her nephew, Mr. Austen-Leigh, is, for want of materials, a *caput mortuum*, and only proves the rapidity with which recollections fade even in the very circle of the family. Of Maria Edgeworth, we have in the work before us an account which gives us a clear idea of her character, and tells us as much as we need to know about the people among whom she lived, and the circumstances under which she wrote. A literary life can hardly ever be eventful—the writings in such cases are the history; it is the function of the biographer to collect whatever may help us to appreciate the writings; and if he is wise, he will keep his work within a moderate compass. Mrs. Oliver has kept her work within the moderate compass of a single crown-octavo volume, and she seems to us in all respects to have done it well. It is perhaps by the pictures of Irish life and character that Miss Edgeworth is specially known. In 'Castle Rackrent,' 'The Absentee,' and her other Irish tales, as well as in the 'Essay on Irish Bulls,' she did for Ireland almost what Scott did for the Highlands. But she was almost as little of an Irishwoman as Scott, or as the English monarch whom he induced to masquerade at Edinburgh in kilt and philibeg, was a Highlander. It adds to the confusion of the Irish imbroglio, that the very nomenclature is equivocal and misleading. A name borne in common by acid and alkali would hardly perplex the chemist more than the historian and politician are perplexed by the name which is borne in common by the Teutonic invaders of Ireland and the conquered Celts. Between the Scottish Presbyterian of the North of Ireland especially, and the Catholic Celt of Munster and Connaught, both the contrast and the antagonism are as strong as between any two sets of people in the world; and of the various conjectures which fancy has bred respecting the probable course of Irish history in the absence of imperial rule, not the least likely is that the victors of Londonderry would, in spite of their inferiority in numbers, have driven the vanquished into the sea.

The Edgeworths of Edgeworthtown, in County Longford, were a family descended from the English immigrants of the Tudor period. In Maria's time they were, unlike many Irish proprietors, resident on their estate, and doing their very best for the people. But, as usual, antipathy of race and religion was too strong to be much softened by kindness, however generous and persistent. Mrs. Farrar, being on a visit to Miss Edgeworth in 1836, went with her friend to the village to see the schools and improvements in the buildings made by the family. "As we passed," she says, "through the crowd to the school-house, the enmity of the Papists to Protestant landholders was but too evident. Though Mrs. Edgeworth had been the Lady Bountiful of the village for many years, there were no bows or smirks for her and her friends, no making way before her, no touching of hats or pleasant looks. A sullen expression and a dogged immovability were on every side of us." Miss Edgeworth shared the perils of the hideous rising in '98, of a local episode in which there is a vivid picture in this volume. Yet her heart was very warm toward the Irish people. She intensely sympathized with them in their sufferings under the accursed system of absenteeism; and if her delineation of their character is highly comic, and therefore disrespectful in the eyes of those to whom comic treatment seems insulting, it is free from the slightest tinge of malice. Its truthfulness has been universally admitted by those best qualified to judge, Sir Jonah Barrington among the rest. As to "Hairtrigger Dick" or the absentee landlords, nobody cares how much they are caricatured. According to one of Miss Edgeworth's social critics, who is quoted in this volume, she had even herself imbibed the peculiarities of the Irish mind to such an extent as not only to please by the raciness of her Irish wit, but to repel by the excess of her Irish "blarney." Her letters, however, do not, so far as we can see, bear out this charge, or go beyond the fair limits of mutual admiration. Of her thorough familiarity with country-life in Ireland, proofs everywhere abound. When she wants to describe the *jigging* motion of a steamboat, she compares it to the shake felt in a carriage when a pig is scratching himself against the hind-wheel while waiting at an Irish inn-door. To those who have often waited at an Irish inn-door, what a picture of that Arcady do these words conjure up! Maria is an Irishwoman, too, when she describes herself, without any comic intent, as "doing nothing but idling, and reading, and paving a gutter and yard to Honora's pig-sty *and* school-house." Not seldom she is helpful to history. We get from her 'Absentee,' for example, what, no doubt, is a true account of the effect of the Union on the society of Dublin—the break-up by the removal to England or to the country of the exclusive circle of old aristocracy, the arrival of new families of a high social position, and, in the end, a mixture of the two elements, which, to Miss Edgeworth, seemed an improvement.

Next to her residence in Ireland, the thing which had most influence on Maria's mind as a writer was her intellectual relation to her father, to whom she was tenderly attached, and who was not only her guide and friend so long as he lived (and he lived to old age), but her philosopher, her critic, the part author of her essays, and the inspirer to no small extent of the rest of her early works. Mr. Edgeworth was a very worthy man; he was an Abdiel of conscientious residence amid a host of absentees. He was also a man of most active mind, a social and educational reformer, an agricultural improver, a mechanical inventor. His intimacies were with men of science and with such social philosophers as Day, the author of 'Sandford and Merton,' and Mrs. Barbauld, who became his daughter's bosom friend. An angry reviewer in the *Quarterly*, admitting his virtues as a landlord and the father of a family, has spoken very disparagingly of his intellect and his social qualities, saying that he was superficial, a

dabbler in every kind of knowledge without being well-founded in any, devoid of originality as a mechanician, and in society "as disagreeable as loquacity, egotism, and a little tinge now and then of indelicacy could make him." But his conduct as a public man had also displeased the *Quarterly;* and if in the eyes of those critics you were heterodox in politics, the bees of Plato would have settled on your lips in vain. No doubt the philosophic and reforming squire of Edgeworthstown appeared to the greatest disadvantage before that apparently easy, yet intensely fastidious and critical, society in which it is perdition to make yourself a bore. By her father and his 'Sandford-and-Merton' associates, however, Maria was thoroughly impressed with the notion that usefulness must be constantly kept in view, and that all her writings must have a good moral. An author possessed with this idea may produce good tales. 'Murad the Unlucky; or, The Lottery-Ticket' loses none of its sprightliness or interest by being a moral lesson as well as a story. Tales are very like fables on a large scale. But all admit that utilitarianism is ruin to fiction of the higher kind. Jane Austen is entirely free from it; she has been censured by foolish critics on that account. Like life itself, her stories and those of all great novelists have their moral, which must be read as we read the moral of life. In reply to some remarks of Mrs. Inchbald on 'Patronage,' Miss Edgeworth says: "We are in the main of your opinion, that Erasmus and his letters are tiresome; but then please to recollect that we had our moral to work out, and to show, to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the reader, how in various professions young men may get on without patronage. To the good of our moral we were obliged to sacrifice: perhaps we have sacrificed in vain." "We" includes her father, who is at her elbow, and the unfortunate conviction which they held in common could hardly have been expressed in plainer terms.

> "In short, she was a walking calculation,
> Miss Edgeworth's novels stepping from their covers,
> Or Mrs. Trimmer's books on education," etc.

So writes Byron of Don Juan's too-learned mother. Madame de Staël is reputed to have said "que Miss Edgeworth était digne de l'enthousiasme, mais qu'elle s'est perdue dans la triste utilité." On hearing this, Mrs. Oliver tells us, Madame de Staël's daughter, Madame de Broglie, exclaimed: "Ma mère n'a jamais dit ça; elle était incapable." We agree with Mrs. Oliver that the disclaimer, though polite and dutiful, is not conclusive. It is difficult to see why Madame de Staël should be thought incapable of saying in a rhetorical and exaggerated way that which had in it a good deal of truth.

In the letter to which we have just referred, relating to 'Patronage,' Miss Edgeworth speaks with rapture of Mrs. Inchbald's appreciation of the character of Oldborough, saying that her father had placed his dependence on it, and that if it had failed to please Mrs. Inchbald they would all have despaired. In that case the old gentleman's powers as a critic must have been limited, for the character of Lord Oldborough is one which, if it amuses, amuses only by its extravagance. The Grand Mogul on a pack of cards is about as true a portrait of a British statesman. His lordship is described as wielding despotic power over a prostrate world of dependents, and demeaning himself on all occasions like a highly irascible caliph. Displease him, and at once off goes your head. The messenger whom he sends with a note dares not stay to answer a single question, because, when Lord Oldborough's command has gone forth, delay is death. His lordship discovers, through some correspondence in cipher which has fallen into his hands, and has been deciphered for him, that seven of his colleagues in the Cabinet, the initial letters of whose names make up "Cassock," have been conspiring against him with some German power; an incident unique in British, and perhaps in any, politics. He forthwith writes a peremptory letter to the King demanding the instant dismissal of six of the offenders, the seventh, who is Prime Minister, being generously spared in consideration of a recent improvement in his conduct. The answer to such a missive would have been a commission *de lunatico.* The typical man of the world, as Lord Oldborough is intended to be, always eschews pomposity. But this is the style in which his Lordship holds forth to a person whom he is installing as his land-agent:

"Since you are going to take charge of my business, sir, it is fit you should know my views relative to my affairs. In my present situation, with the favor I enjoy and the opportunities I command, it would be easy to make my fortune whatever I pleased. Avarice is not my passion. It is my pride not to increase the burdens of my country. Mine is a generous country, ever ready to reward her public servants, living or dying. But whilst I live, never will I speculate upon her generosity; and when I die, never shall my heirs appeal to her compassion. My power being at its zenith, and my character being known, I can afford to lay aside much of that adventitious splendor which adds nothing to true dignity. Economy and dignity are compatible—essential to each other. To preserve independence, and consequently integrity, economy is necessary in all stations. Therefore, sir, I determine—for I am not stringing sentences together which are to end in nothing—I determine at this moment to begin to make retrenchments in my expenditure. The establishment at Clermont Park, whither I have no thoughts of returning, may be reduced. I commit that, sir, to your discretion."

It is curious that the Edgeworths could see so much as they saw of society, and approach as near as they did to the verge of political life, without becoming sensible of the absurdity of such a picture. Not the least grotesque touch is that which implies a belief, several years after the impeachment of Lord Melville, that a British Minister was at liberty to increase his private fortune to any extent he pleased by dipping his hands into the public Treasury. The characters of the Falconer family, with their sycophancy and their unscrupulous pushing and intriguing, are better painted than this, which the artists took for their masterpiece. But here, as elsewhere, the writer is so vehemently on the side of virtue, and so determined to drive the moral home, that she rains fire and brimstone upon the wicked till she puts our sympathies on their side. Perhaps it is rather a dangerous part of novel-reading generally, but it is apt to render us too charitable toward the children of perdition, who make all the fun. The characters of the Falconers are also overdrawn. People of the world sin, but they sin within the limits of discretion and taste which their experience of the world prescribes: they do not commit forgery, or, as diplomatists, sell their Government, any more than they assassinate or steal. The character of Caroline Percy has its admirers; but she seems to us little better than an insipid seraph. Mr. Percy is Mr. Edgeworth himself, idealized, but not made amusing. It is in incident and in lively writing that 'Patronage' is strong.

Of 'Helen,' Mrs. Oliver remarks that, "being written long after Mr. Edgeworth's death, it serves to reveal something of the effect which the father had on his daughter's writing." It shows, in Mrs. Oliver's opinion, "a lighter hand, a greater ease in handling dialogue, and a more natural inconsistency in its characters than she was allowed by her father." That the old gentleman's philosophy was in part to blame for the fatal consistency of the characters in previous novels, and for their being, as they are—except where the rich vein of Irish life comes in—rather abstract virtues and vices than men and women, is very likely. But the increase of lightness and ease in handling dialogue is more probably traceable to the fact that Miss Edgeworth's success as a writer had thrown open to her the best society of London and other centres. She had heard great men of the world talk, and learned that they did not talk like Jupiter or Lord Oldborough. Still, we cannot help differing from Mrs. Oliver, who pronounces Lady Davenant a very real character. She is a perfect dragoness—a Lord Oldborough in petticoats; her virtue and wisdom are so overpowering, her tirades are so awful, that in her presence every one would sit upon the edge of his chair and feel as if he were before the Great White Throne. The only occasion on which she descends to the level of human nature, and ceases to be odious, is at the end of the tale, when she drops upon her knees to implore her son-in-law's forgiveness for his erring wife. Beauclerc, also, to whose character Mrs. Oliver extends the same praise, seems to us to be made up of inconsistent oddities almost mechanically pieced together, and to be without real life as a whole. Besides, did any young English gentleman ever hold forth to a party in a country house in such a style as this?—

"Yes, sooner would I believe in all the fables of the Talmud than be without the ecstasy of veneration. It is the curse of age to be thus miserably disenchanted—to outlive all our illusions, all our hopes. That may be my doom in age; but in youth, the high spring-time of existence, I will not be cursed with such a premature ossification of the heart. Oh! rather, ten times rather, would I die this instant!"

Helen herself is a good, lovable English girl, and, if she had only some of the little weaknesses of Emma, and, like her, got into some scrapes, she would perhaps be not less charming; but she is little more than a virtue. The best character in the piece is that of Lady Cecilia, who has weaknesses and does get into scrapes, while her affectionate nature preserves our sympathy. Whether it be that the pressure of the paternal imprimatur is withdrawn, or that years and social experience have given acuteness and confidence, there are perhaps more smart things in 'Helen' than in the earlier works: "After this curse of forgiveness, my dear, I will wish you a good night." "Lady Cecilia was charming, and everything was delightful, especially the cold chicken." "How much we owe to such men as Mr. Churchill [a cynical wit], who make us feel detraction virtue." "The not contradicting a person who is abusing himself, is one of the most heinous offences against self-love that can be committed." "Helen never indulged in the self-triumph of 'You see how right I was,' which implies, 'You see how wrong you were.'" On the other hand, the Moral Essayist has not ceased to intrude. The incidents are, as usual, well contrived, and carry the reader on. Pictures of character in the manner of George Eliot, pictures of scenery in the manner of Mr. Black, are very admirable; but, after all, the common reader likes a story to be a story.

We have spoken of the excellence of Miss Edgeworth's style: it is as good in her letters as it is in her books. Her descriptions of the things and people she sees in her times are capital. The account of her visit to Madame de Genlis at the Arsenal is a gem in its way. One only wishes that she could have drawn from Madame more of those personal recollections of the Revolution of which history has too few. As a writer of Memoirs she would evidently have been first-rate; and we cannot help half wishing that destiny had assigned to her that part, instead of one in

which she is not first-rate, though she deservedly ranks high.

THE CARLYLE-EMERSON CORRESPONDENCE.

The Correspondence of Thomas Carlyle and Ralph Waldo Emerson. 1834-1872. 2 vols. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

THE correspondence between Emerson and Carlyle, extending over a period of some forty years, is remarkable for what it does not, as well as for what it does, contain. As a correspondence between two of the foremost writers of their time, it might be expected to be of considerable literary and speculative interest, to present a picture of their theories as to literature, its canons, its relation to life, its past and future. But as a matter of fact, the correspondence is nearly devoid of interest of this sort. This is the more singular as a great part of it relates to Carlyle's books—not only to negotiations with publishers for their sale, but to curious confidential descriptions of the toil and agony which he suffered in bringing them forth, given, however, in terms which suggest to the reader not so much intellectual or literary difficulties, as acute physical suffering of some kind. Emerson had from the first a deep and unaffected admiration for Carlyle, and spared no pains to introduce him to the notice of readers on this side of the Atlantic. So far as one man could do such a thing, he created a market for him in this country when he had almost none in his own. We find him in the correspondence urging Carlyle to put him to use; making bargains, which must have involved much thought and trouble, with the publishers; taking such measures as could be taken to protect him from piracy; getting the publishers' accounts carefully examined and verified; and in a thousand ways doing for Carlyle the inestimable services of an unusually warm and unselfish literary friend. On his side, Carlyle professes the warmest admiration for Emerson; declares that from him almost alone among human beings does he get real sympathy. And yet, for literary or speculative interest, the correspondence is almost a blank. So far as Emerson is concerned, this is due in part to the indifference shown by Carlyle as to the topics of most interest to him. Emerson would apparently have been glad to pour out to his friend his views of one kind and another; but for his speculations Carlyle cared nothing. Such indifference, of course, would have a chilling effect on any correspondent—most of all, on one so sensitive as Emerson. But the curious part of the matter is, that Carlyle's side of the correspondence is as devoid of this kind of interest. He frequently alludes to the necessity of giving his message to the world, but never tells his friend what it is; and as we close the book we cannot help feeling the impression produced by the 'Reminiscences' confirmed—that Carlyle stood, so far as the literature of his time is concerned, entirely alone, in a position of moral and mental isolation very different from that usually sought or coveted by men of letters. He had a very poor opinion of the literature, philosophy, and science of his own day, and expressed for nearly all his contemporaries and rivals profound contempt. England, and in fact the world at large, he regarded as given over to the "mud-gods" and as inhabited by "Dead-Sea apes."

This makes it all the more interesting to know what hope there was to be extracted from the past, what promise held out by the future. But on such points, even in his confidential correspondence, Carlyle is dumb. We must remember that Carlyle's life covers what we are fond of regarding as a splendid literary period. The reign of Victoria has been marked by great achievements in all fields, especially that of literature, science, and speculation. If we took Carlyle's word for it, however, we should suppose it to be a period of besotted ignorance and blind formalism. And yet, as to what might be done for salvation, he has nothing distinct to say.

As a memorial of a literary friendship, the letters are very pleasant reading. Carlyle helped Emerson in England as Emerson helped him in America—though not with such devotion—and the correspondence bears witness to the perfect confidence reposed in each other by the two friends—which is all the more interesting because of the dissimilarity between them that is betrayed at every point. They had really very little in common. Emerson, in the course of his long life, seldom spoke a harsh word of anybody. Carlyle spared no one. Emerson's idealism was of the optimistic kind, and led him to cherish a curious delusion on the subject of a regeneration of the world at the hands of some modern seer or sage, that suggests a habit of mind rather Oriental than Western. Carlyle did not in the least share in this hope, at least in his mature period, for he was so deeply impressed with the depravity of the human race that regeneration through an agency like that of the mild-eyed village Buddhas whom from time to time Emerson sent out with letters of introduction, was to him an idle dream. If Carlyle's "strong man" could have got his hands upon Emerson's "coming man," a sound flogging and a pretty long period of incarceration in the county jail would have been the least punishment allowed him; and Carlyle shows at his best in his effort to pretend to be glad to meet the queer people who were sent over to him from time to time, and he displays, indeed, remarkable reserve in reporting the impression they produced on him.

These volumes, therefore, while they give a more amiable picture of him than the 'Reminiscences,' do not contribute much to the solution of the problem presented by his literary career. Since his death the public has been so much occupied with the details of his private life, his relations with his wife, and the light thrown by them on his character, that his position as a literary man has been neglected. Sooner or later, however, the world will have to decide what sort of a place in literature it is willing to accord to Carlyle as a historian and as an essayist. In this decision his private character will count for as little as that of Gibbon does in our estimate of him. These volumes are quite enough to show that his relation to literature is very peculiar; that he was a literary man who cared little or nothing for literature as such, and a historian who found history mainly what he calls a "dust-hole." With the great literary movement of the nineteenth century he seems to have as little connection as if he had not lived in it. His style was almost a protest against the English language itself. He was regarded during his lifetime as a great teacher, and he gained a great literary reputation from a generation which he despised. Yet it is hard to say what lesson his histories or essays taught that was not known to the world before.

VINCENT'S HAYDN.

Haydn's Dictionary of Dates and Universal Information, relating to All Ages and Nations. Seventeenth Edition, containing the History of the World to the Autumn of 1881. By Benjamin Vincent, Librarian of the Royal Institution of Great Britain; Cor. Mem. Hist. Soc. New York. Revised for American readers. Harper & Bros. 1883.

IN No. 240 of the *Nation* we reviewed the American edition of Haydn's Dictionary published in 1869. That was based on the twelfth English edition, the sixth revised and improved by Mr. Vincent. The compass of the work has since been repeatedly enlarged, and its revision continued. The American editor of the seventeenth edition, now before us, Mr. G. C. Eggleston, while omitting no title, and making "as slight alterations in the text . . . as might be, . . . has corrected errors in the English work with respect to American matters; has added American dates to all important titles from which they were omitted in the English work; and has inserted such additional titles, relating to American subjects, as were necessary to fit the work for the use of American readers." He has thus limited his editorial labor entirely to the American portions, and leaves the responsibility for all the rest to the English editor, whose successive revisions and enlargements have already extended over a quarter of a century.

"Unfortunately, however"—we must here, to our regret, repeat what we said in our review of the issue of 1869—"the defects of the original publication, to be radically removed, required much more than the amount of labor and care which even conscientious revisers are inclined to bestow upon the work of others. And so the Dictionary remains highly imperfect, in spite of continued completing and correcting." And we must still add: "Mr. Vincent's own additions are not always made and revised with the necessary care." That this is a mild expression, rendered with charitable regard for the difficulties of an encyclopædic editor, the following will show: The "Table of Contemporary European Sovereigns," an addition of Mr. Vincent's, fills the first four pages of this again "thoroughly revised" work; with a single exception—an error referring to a King of England—it still contains all the blunders pointed out in our first review: "The accession of Christina of Sweden is dated '1633,' instead of 1632; . . . that of Czar Nicholas '1828,' instead of 1825; that of King William of Prussia '1860,' instead of 1861. Napoleon's second reign, in 1815, is forgotten. Ferdinand I. of Hungary (1526) and Ferdinand I. of Austria (1835) are both entered as Ferdinand II. The Empress Maria Theresa is to be found neither under 'Germany,' nor under 'Hungary,' nor under 'Austria.'" The next page presents the "Population and Governments of the World (according to the Almanach de Gotha)." The first line states the population of Anhalt as it was in December, 1875, and the same is the case with Baden and Bavaria (lines 4 and 5), and all the German States—excepting Oldenburg, which is left as it was in 1871—though the German census of December, 1880, had long been known in "the autumn of 1881." The reason is, the Gotha Almanac for 1882 had not yet made its appearance then, and Mr. Vincent was too negligent to avail himself of other sources of information. The second line introduces as President of the Argentine Confederation Sr. N. Avellaneda, whose going out of office in October, 1880—nearly a year before the date to which the Dictionary is brought down—was recorded in the last Gotha Almanac, but naturally only among the "Additions," which Mr. Vincent overlooked. The third line contains the unofficial statement of the population of the Austrian Empire in 1875, ignoring the official census of 1880. The sixth leaves the population of Belgium also as it was in 1875, although Mr. Vincent could have found the official yearly enumerations of 1876-9 in earlier almanacs.

The process of accretion which has taken place in numerous titles is well exemplified by the first notice in the Dictionary. When Haydn first published it, he concluded his few lines on "Aargau" with the statement that the canton "was much disturbed by religious dissensions in

1841," which was then the latest. Three years later he added: "And the expulsion of the Jesuits was demanded in 1844." Here the notice ends to-day; what became of the demand, or how the expulsion, etc., led to the civil war of the Sunderbund, Mr. Vincent forgot to add. What his "thorough revisions" have amounted to is, however, much better illustrated by such articles as "Assyria" or "Egypt." In the former we easily perceive that he knows of discoveries of Assyrian antiquities by such men as Layard, Rawlinson, George Smith, and Rassam, and even of "classes for the study of the Assyrian language" and of the "Rev. A. H. Sayce's" Assyrian grammar; but that in the light of those discoveries and studies the history and chronology of the article, as it was written and still stands—with its Belus, Ninus, Ninyas, Semiramis, Arius, Aralius, Belochus, and Sarac, and its dates after "the chronologers Blair, Usher, Hales, and Clinton"—are worse than worthless, and that different, monumentally authenticated, names and dates have now to be substituted for the fabulous and fictitious ones, does not seem to have entered his mind. Under "Egypt" we read: "1st epoch, the dynasty of its Pharaohs or 'great Kings,' commenced with Mizraim, the son of Ham, second son of Noah, 2188 B. C.," and then, "Dynasty of Menes (conjectural), B. C. 2717," which carries us back 500 years beyond the "1st epoch." Next follow such fabulous names as Athotes, Busiris, Osymandyas, and Syphoas, with precise dates after the Abbé Lenglet, Blair, and Usher—the Pharaohs of the monuments being omitted, and such Egyptian chronologists as Lepsius, Mariette, or Brugsch ignored. Then we have this ingenious combination: "Rameses III., or Sesostris, reigns . . . 1618," in which the great conqueror of whom the Greeks fabled is identified with an historical King who is generally reckoned to have reigned about 1250 B. C., and the date of the latter arbitrarily altered by several hundred years, in order to suit the chronology of the myths! And not only myths of history are duly dated in this Dictionary, but also events of mythology proper. Thus we learn, under "Greece," that Uranus arrived in that country in 2042 B. C., and, under "Caucasus," that Prometheus was "tied on the top" of that mountain by Jupiter in 1548.

The American editor has done his share of the work better than Mr. Vincent did his. This is, however, not saying much, especially if we consider the disparity of their tasks. Several of the errors and contradictions which we pointed out in the review alluded to above, in regard to the Civil War, have disappeared, without Mr. Eggleston having seen our article—as we can judge from other mistakes left standing. "Antietam Creek," "Battles," "South Mountain," and "United States" still contradict each other as to the events of September 14-18, 1862, in the way we called attention to there. The concurrent dates as to the fighting at Corinth in October, 1862, given under "Battles" and "United States," are still contradicted under the special head. The same is the case in regard to the battle of Perryville in the same month. Similar discrepancies occur as to the surrender of Port Hudson in July, 1863, and the battles at Spottsylvania Court House in May, 1864. The article "United States," if not complete, is very comprehensive, and rather fresh in its latter parts. We wonder, however, why of all the "illustrious" or notorious Americans who have died since 1876, besides President Garfield and his assassin, Mr. Eggleston has selected for mention only General Bragg and Caleb Cushing.

History of the Negro Race in America, from 1619 to 1880. By George W. Williams. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 2 vols. 8vo.

To disparage the product of great literary industry is always repugnant to the fair-minded critic. In the present case, his desire to bestow praise is heightened by the fact that the author is one of the race whose history he has undertaken to relate. Mr. Williams is justly entitled to the credit of having produced the most ambitious and elaborate work that has yet emanated from his colored countrymen, as is obvious from his list of such works. Moreover, his two volumes are, externally and typographically, very inviting, not to say imposing.

Nevertheless, the critic has a duty to perform, to the author and to the public, and cannot avoid assigning this history a rank far below its pretensions. He would be glad to say it was readable, but he has not found it so; or a valuable book of reference, but it is not that; or intellectually remarkable, but, by the only standard of comparison which Mr. Williams would exact, it must be judged the crude performance of a mind in no way exceptionally endowed. Its total effect is that of cramming, without the power to digest or arrange. Such a statement will surprise the author, as it probably will some of his reviewers, who have commended the orderliness of his narrative, whereas the fact is that his division and distribution of topics is unmethodical to the last degree. It is easy, in this matter, to be deceived by appearances, especially if one only looks at the table of contents. The moment one goes below the chapter headings, the defects of time, perspective, and generalization become painfully manifest. Wherever the divisions are not marked out by nature, as when dealing with slavery in the colonies, they are for the most part inapt, illogical, often grotesque. For an example of classification run mad, the chapter in the second volume on "Anti-slavery Methods" may be consulted.

Mr. Williams has chosen to begin with the Flood; but a Biblical argument (vol. i., pp. 1–11) to prove the negro a man, seems, in these Darwinian days, more than antediluvian. In the theological seminary from which the author was graduated this may be thought a necessary clearing of the ground; and there, too—but where else, unless perhaps in Mr. Hubert Bancroft's literary laboratory?—the following sentence, introducing a chapter on "Primitive Negro Civilization," may be read without a smile: "It is fair to presume that God gave all the races of mankind civilization to start with. We infer this from the known character of the Creator" (vol. i., p. 22). The next step is to paint the character of the Africans of the West coast, the principal ancestors of the colored Americans. This might have been made attractive reading, but in truth it is an indiscriminate hodgepodge, and is oddly succeeded by accounts of the colonies of Sierra Leone and Liberia—in the case of the latter, both inadequate and misleading. But now the wild Africans are to be got to America, and a chapter on the slave-trade, one would think, would be in order. It will hardly be believed that there is no such chapter, nor anywhere a description of the horrors of that traffic. The allusions to it are purely incidental under the colonies, and ignore it on the high seas, in the "middle passage."

The author owes his higher education to a Massachusetts institution, and that State notoriously had a preëminent share in emancipating his race, both in her own borders and in the nation at large. It is therefore somewhat shocking to find him arraigning her as conspicuously sinful in her colonial slaveholding, and heaping upon her epithets which no one of her sister colonies provokes. The reason of this extraordinary assault is the author's subjection to the influence of Mr. George H. Moore, whose well-known 'Notes on the History of Slavery in Massachusetts' furnished a handy source of information for this colony. Mr. Moore's work, though historically valuable, is devoid of the historic spirit, and is an unfair and thinly-veiled political pamphlet. That Mr. Williams should have borrowed not only its facts but its animus, is much to be regretted.

The rise and development of the anti-slavery movement in this country is miserably presented in these pages; indeed, it is not too harsh to say that the author has made a perfect mess of it. The true character of the Colonization Society is slurred over, and its stormy and malignant contention with the abolitionists is summed up in these gentle lines: "The Colonization Society was never able to secure the sympathy of the various anti-slavery societies of the country, and was unable to gain the confidence of the colored people to any great extent" (vol. ii., p. 53). In the chapter on the "Anti-Slavery Efforts of Free Negroes," the early protests of James Forten and other Philadelphians against the Colonization Society should have found a place; and here should have been introduced the least-known and most interesting figure in the annals of colored Americans, David Walker. The author of the 'Appeal, in four articles, together with a Preamble, to the Colored Citizens of the World, but in particular, and very expressly, to those of the United States of America, written in Boston, in the State of Massachusetts, Sept. 28, 1829,' will one day be rated at his true worth. His thrilling tract, which Southern legislatures tremblingly considered with closed doors, though issued from a second-hand clothing shop in the Puritan capital, is now one of the rarest of anti-slavery documents. Mr. Williams, who gives in full Chief-Justice Sewall's 'The Selling of Joseph,' might well have reprinted the third edition of the 'Appeal' verbatim, gaining space, if necessary, by sacrificing the first 114 pages of his first volume. But Walker is not introduced chronologically, and just escapes virtual non-recognition by being remembered in the appendix to the second volume. His name is even omitted from the index.

The political opposition to slavery is not correctly set forth in its origin and development. James G. Birney is recorded, in one of the author's absurd subdivisions, as a member of the "heterodox anti-slavery party"—a nonentity; but not a word is said of his connection with the Liberty party, nor is the existence of such a party remotely hinted at. There is no chapter or section on the Fugitive-Slave Law, which is dismissed in the four lines: "Another fugitive-slave law was demanded by the South, and the Northern members voted them the right to hunt slaves on free soil. The law passed, and was approved on the 18th of September, 1850" (vol. ii., p. 107). One looks in vain in the text or in the index for any account of the cases, arising under this law, which stirred the moral sentiment of the North to its depths. The poor victims whose names became famous in both hemispheres, and will yet be commemorated in a proper history of their color, are passed over in favor of successful tradesmen and mechanics. The representative men of color, by the way, do not form a chapter by themselves, but are distributed in at least three places, with flagrant disproportion and omissions. The Kansas struggle is chronicled very indifferently under the fanciful title, "Northern Sympathy and Southern Subterfuge"!—subterfuge not being precisely what John Brown had to fight. Chapters xviii. and xix., vol. ii., on the "Negroes as Soldiers," are among the best and most useful in the book. The summary of reconstruction is worthless, and

is not excused by Mr. Williams's announcement that he is preparing a two-volume history of this dismal period. Still, his conclusion is just: "Neither the South nor the Government could say: 'Thou canst not say I did it: shake not thy gory locks at me.' Both were culpable, and both have suffered the pangs of remorse."

We miss a chapter on color prejudice, graphically describing the condition and estimation of the free blacks at the North at the opening of the anti-slavery agitation. It would have pointed a good many morals, one being that Mr. Williams's book and military and political career disprove the then all but universal belief that the free negro could never be anything but a despised and degraded object so long as he remained in this country; the other being that the range of employment and social recognition of the race have been very little extended since emancipation. We ought also to have expected that the supreme faculty of the negro for music would have engaged Mr. Williams's attention, and insured a chapter on the negro melodies originating on the plantation and of late years carried by "Jubilee Singers" all over the world. "Uncle Remus" and his folk-lore should have furnished another. We might, further, have been shown the probable derivation of music and fable from the West African tribes. But Mr. Williams preferred rather to dwell on their utterly degraded natures.

To conclude, we cannot commend this work for originality, ability, or entire accuracy. As a book of reference, it will infallibly disappoint. After the parade of the number of books consulted in the preparation of it, the authorities cited are singularly few, and are indicated as a rule in the vaguest manner. A certain amount of historical, biographical, and statistical information is conveniently brought together, but it will have to be used with caution.

Les Chemins de Fer en Amérique. Par E. Lavoinne, Ingénieur-en-Chef des Ponts et Chaussées, et E. Pontzen, Ingénieur, Ancien Élève de l'École des Ponts et Chaussées. Tome Second. Exploitation, et Chemins de fer à voie étroite et Tramways. Paris: Dunod.

THIS is the second volume of an important work, of which the first was published two years ago. It is the outgrowth of investigations begun by Messrs. Lavoinne and Pontzen in 1876, when they both held important positions in connection with the Centennial Exhibition. The first volume related to construction, and was illustrated by an atlas containing thirty-nine large plates, constituting the most complete collection of information as to the details of American railway construction that has ever been brought together, and, incidentally, calling attention to peculiarities of American work which, while so familiar to our own engineers as to escape attention, strike foreigners as noteworthy.

The volume now before us (659 large octavo pages, including a complete index and an atlas of thirty-eight plates) is devoted to the *maintenance* and *administration* of American railways, including a description of our system of tramways and narrow-gauge railways. It would be as just as it would be commonplace to say that this book should be found in the library of every engineer, and should especially become the vade-mecum of the engineering student. It is really something more than this expression would imply. Its authors have apparently exhausted every means of information, and, so far as we can judge from a casual examination, they have left no detail unnoticed, from the first locating of the line to the final construction of the most complete Pullman car. From the information herein contained, an engineer who had never seen a railway could construct and equip it completely in the best manner, his decision between alternative methods being aided by sound advice. Having built his road, he would find in the volume before us a careful consideration of methods of administration; surveillance and maintenance of the roadway; motive power; management of trains; character of freight traffic; tariffs for freight and passengers; relations with connecting roads, etc., etc. Eighty-five pages are given to the legal status and financial management of railway companies, etc. No such complete popular publication has ever been made concerning the railway system of any country before, and it may well be doubted whether there will be again. We are glad to know that there is a prospect of the publication of this work in English; but, with its ample illustrations, it cannot fail to be of value in its present form, even to engineers who have no knowledge of the French language.

Selections from Lucian, with Introductions and Notes, by Charles Richard Williams, Professor of Greek in Lake Forest University, Ill. Boston: John Allyn.

THIS book is evidently the result of much patient and long-continued labor. Of its typography and general make-up, it is only necessary to say that it is from the "University Press" of John Wilson & Son, Cambridge. The "General Introduction" of forty-one pages treats of the life, times, and works of Lucian. Many parts of this introduction are extremely well done, but sometimes the style is inflated to a degree bordering on the sophomoric. The Greek text of twenty-two pieces of Lucian occupies 152 pages, the "Special Introductions and Notes" 145 more. While these introductions are, on the whole, very useful, they are too diffuse and rhetorical, and by their frequent repetition of the same ideas in slightly varied forms, they become monotonous. Take the following examples: In the introduction to the second piece, "Charon," Prof. Williams says:

> "In no one of Lucian's writings are the charms of his style, his keen satire, his biting sarcasm . . . seen to better advantage."

Turning to the introduction to the next piece, "Timon," we read:

> "This dialogue is usually considered Lucian's masterpiece. . . . In spirited character-sketching, in keenness of satire, . . . Lucian is throughout at his best."

In the introduction to the next piece, "The Cock," we are told:

> "The perfect ease and gracefulness of this dialogue mark it as the probable work of Lucian's best period, when his style had reached its highest maturity."

And so on. This continuous laudation becomes somewhat tedious. Indeed, the book would be improved by considerable "cutting" and condensation. Such a process would have furnished space for another improvement. Taking the first paragraph of the text of Lucian as given by Prof. Williams, comprising thirty-three lines, or one page and three lines, we have three and a half pages of "Notes." In the course of these notes we have, in addition to a few passages quoted, references to the following authors and works, unaccompanied by the text of the passages; and in order to comply with the direction to compare them, it would be necessary to have the books at hand: Xenophon ('Anabasis,' 'Memorabilia,' 'Symposium,' 'Œconomics'), Demosthenes ('De Corona,' 'Philippics,' 'Olynthiacs'), Plato ('Apology'), Aristotle ('Politics'), Alciphron, and four dialogues of Lucian not contained in the 'Selections.' To some of these works there is more than reference. Had Prof. Williams cut out some of his "eloquence," and quoted more of his illustrative passages, he would have made his book more convenient and useful. Notwithstanding these and some other defects, this is the best edition of a selection from Lucian for school purposes with which we are acquainted. Were we going to read Lucian with a class, we should adopt it without hesitation.

On the Wing. By Mary E. Blake. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1883. 16mo, pp. 231.

THE author of this book was one of an "excursion party" to California, and the volume is made up of a series of bright and chatty letters to a Boston paper. That there is absolutely nothing new in this correspondence is not, perhaps, important from the standpoint of journalism, so long as it is readable; but this consideration makes its permanent setting in book form of more than doubtful necessity. The descriptions are accurate, and the facts authentic, but the suspicion is excited that the writer has not before been west of Watertown. There is a smack of the Bostonian who believed there were not more than twenty men in that city who could have written the plays of Shakspere. The author has a little start of surprise when she finds that there are pretty girls in Chicago like those on Washington Street, and that they talk about "blocks," in describing distances, "just as they do in New York." She is overcome by her own daring when she discovers that she has "really seen day dawn over the plains of Kansas." She is astonished to find "young people refined and well-bred" in San Francisco, but recovers her equipoise on the tender of a locomotive, where "my companion was a slim, young Bostonian who could lead a german or give you the Otello fantaisie of Ernst one night, and climb Mont Blanc next morning; so I felt perfectly at home." It is to be hoped that excursion parties will continue to travel over well-worn routes, but the suggestion may be pardoned that the literature of such trips is already measurably complete.

Study and Stimulants. By A. A. Reade. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

ALTHOUGH in full sympathy with the opinions which 'Study and Stimulants' is published to confirm, we think the book itself more curious than valuable. It consists of more than a hundred "testimonies," as they are called, some very curt and some prolix, upon the mental influence of stimulants, given by brain-workers in reply to specific inquiries, and nearly a score more extracted from publications, with twenty pages of comment. The editor concludes that alcohol and tobacco are of no value to a healthy brain, that the most severe mental work can be satisfactorily done without artificial stimulus, and that the influence of alcohol in health is bad. All this is probably true, and the drift of the evidence given here is certainly in that direction. But the book lacks completeness. It leaves the questions asked to be inferred from the answers, and one cannot tell whether all the respondents were addressed identically, and, particularly, what others failed to reply. Without knowing how the nays stand, it is not well to say the ayes have it. And if it is a matter of votes or of influence, a hundred and twenty is a small number of the students of the world to decide such a question. One can readily understand that those who do use alcohol freely in connection with literary labor, if there are such, might resent being catechized as an impertinence, or at least decline to lay open to public gaze their mental machinery if it is driven by a spirit-lamp rather than water-power. We must have

a count of the absentees before siding with this majority because it is a majority.

Some of the contributors make such very odd statements that they excite wonder, if not a smile. For instance, Mr. Matthew Arnold says: "Real brain-work by itself, I think, upsets the worker and makes him bilious." Mr. Francillon "always insists very strongly upon brain-work—beyond an uncertain point—being non-natural." Mr. Robert Buchanan announces: "The cases of dire disease generated by total abstinence from liquor are much more terrible than those caused by excess." A collection of the opinions of larger consumers might be a curious commentary on the views of the more abstemious.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. The Admiral's Ward: a Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Baldwin, Prof. J. Introduction to the Study of English Literature and Literary Criticism. Part 2. Prose. Philadelphia: John E. Potter & Co.
Berg, A. E. The Universal Self-Instructor and Manual of General Reference. Thomas Kelly.
Bierbaum, Prof. F. J. History of the English Language and Literature. B. Westermann & Co.
Blind, Mathilde. George Eliot. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Bonner, S. Dialect Tales. Harper & Bros.
Bridgman, R. L. Concord Lectures on Philosophy. Summer School of 1882. With an Historical Sketch. Cambridge: Moses King.
Brown, J. C. The Forests of England, and the Management of Them in Bye-Gone Times. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd.
Caird, Prof. Edward. Hegel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 25.
Davis, W. T. Ancient Landmarks of Plymouth. Boston: A. Williams & Co. $4.
Daughter of the Philistines. No-Name Series. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Dowling, M. E. Ingersollism and Reason. Detroit: Wm. Graham. $1.
Duffy, C. G. Four Years of Irish History—1845-49. Cassell & Co. $3.
Fall, C. G. Employers' Liability for Personal Injuries to their Employees. Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Farrer, T. H. The State in Relation to Trade. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Foster, D. The Scientific Angler. Illustrated. Orange Judd & Co. $1 50.
Freeman, J. E. Gatherings from an Artist's Portfolio in Rome. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1 50.
Godet, F., D.D. Commentary on St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans. Revised and edited by T. W. Chambers, D.D. Funk & Wagnalls. $2 50.
Godwin, P. Poetical Works of Wm. Cullen Bryant. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. $6.
Godwin, P. Life of Wm. Cullen Bryant. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. $6.
Haweis, H. R. American Humorists. Funk & Wagnalls.
James, H., jr. Daisy Miller, and Other Stories. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Lucy, H. W. Gideon Fleyce: a Novel. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Meriwether, E. A. Black and White: a Novel. E. J. Hale & Son.
Meyers Hand-Lexikon des allgemeinen Wissens. 3d ed. Vol. i. A-K. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Morse, J. T., Jr. Thomas Jefferson. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
My Trivial Life and Misfortune. Part 1. Spinsterhood. By A Plain Woman. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Nohl, L. Musiker-Biographien: Wagner. Leipzig: Ph. Reclam, jr.; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 10 cts.
Ohnet, G. La Comtesse Sarah. Paris: Ollendorf; New York: F. W. Christern.
Parker, G. W. Concise Grammar of the Malagasy Language. Trübner & Co.
Pomeroy, J. N. Remedies and Remedial Rights by the Civil Nation, according to the Reformed American Procedure. 2d ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Reade, A. A. Study and Stimulants; or, The Use of Intoxicants and Narcotics in Relation to Intellectual Life. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. $1 50.
Russell, W. C. The Wreck of the *Grosvenor*. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Schaff, Prof. Philip. A Religious Encyclopædia; or, Dictionary of Biblical, Historical, Doctrinal, and Practical Theology. Vol. ii. Funk & Wagnalls. $6.
Schenkl, C. Xenophontis Libri Socratici. Harper & Bros.
Smiles, S. James Nasmyth: an Autobiography. Harper & Bros.
Smyth, Newman. The Orthodox Theology of To-day. New ed. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Soley, J. R. The Blockade and the Cruisers. [The Navy in the Civil War.—I.] Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Studies in Logic. By Members of the Johns Hopkins University. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Thayer, A. W. The Hebrews and the Red Sea. Andover: Warren F. Draper. 80 cents.
The Alternative: a Study in Psychology. Macmillan & Co. $2 75.
The Battle of the Moy; or, How Ireland Gained her Independence. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Trollope, A. The Commentaries of Cæsar. John B. Alden. 15 cents.
Van Eys, W. J. Outlines of Basque Grammar. Trübner & Co.
Warren, W. W. Life on the Nile and Excursions on Shore; also, A Tour in Syria and Palestine. 3d ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Warren, G. W. Gov. Winthrop's Return to Boston. An Interview with a Great Character. A Poem.
Waters, P. The Prayers of the Bible: Showing How to Pray, What to Pray For, and How God Answers Prayer. Phillips & Hunt. $2.
Williams, W. M. Science in Short Chapters. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.
Winks, W. E. Lives of Illustrious Shoemakers. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Young, J. H. The Yearly Moons. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 75 cents.
Zola, E. Au Bonheur des Dames. 17th thousand. Paris: G. Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern.
Zola, E. Au Bonheur des Dames. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 75 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE SIXTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF THE SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.

THESE periodical exhibitions now bear a very close resemblance one to another. But this fact in itself should not be regarded as unfavorable if the signs were in other respects hopeful, for progress in art is rarely marked by striking changes or novel departures from the general course of feeling and the customary lines of effort at any given time, unless it be a time when feeble and false principles and practice prevail. In growing schools, progress is marked rather by steady adherence to the prevailing aims, and by tranquil endeavor to excel in the directions in which all are striving. This unity of purpose, which is wholly compatible with full expression of individual genius, is what largely constitutes the life of a school; and, through the support which mutual sympathy and friendly criticism give, individuals attain degrees of excellence which would otherwise be impossible to them.

So far as unity of purpose and mutual sympathy go, the conditions under which the Society of American Artists is now working are favorable to progress. There evidently exists, in this Society, an *esprit de corps* which is very powerful. If there is anything unfavorable in the conditions, it is that the fundamental principles which actuate the artists are inadequate—that the models which they have taken for inspiration and guidance are not of sufficiently excellent character. The quality of the work displayed indicates that this is largely the case, and it is on this account that the unity of purpose, so admirably maintained, fails to accomplish what it ought. The similarity which we notice between one of these exhibitions and another is, therefore, to a great extent one of mannerism rather than of quiet and steady progress in which the successive steps are hardly noticed. The new departure of adopting modern Continental aims and methods, which was taken, almost unanimously, a few years ago, by our younger artists, was interesting and attractive at first; and from it, as we have before said, some important gain was made over the more feeble traditional characteristics of the older American art. But it is now very noticeable that the inspiration is waning. The novelty of French principles is wearing off; and it must be apparent to the discerning that progress on these lines is no longer marked. The range of qualities exemplified by Continental art has been practically exhausted; our American students have very fairly mastered them, and their limited and misleading character is shown by the comparatively stationary, if not in some respects retrograde, condition which these exhibitions more and more clearly manifest.

We would again, as we have done before, express the hope that the day is not far distant when our young artists will devote themselves to the study of the entirely sound and all-embracing principles of the central Italian schools of art, and will, under the instruction therefrom received, apply themselves with renewed energy to the interpretation of nature from the diverse and enlarged modern points of view. But there are always some signs of progress which keep up our faith in the ultimate triumph of American art, and to these we shall endeavor to do justice. Among the pictures in the present display which seem to us most worthy of notice, is "A Prelude," No. 36, by T. W. Dewing. This picture is conspicuous by real merits no less than by position and singularity. It belongs to that class of fanciful æsthetic designs which are growing daily more common, but it is far above the average of such works. It represents two maidens, clad in loose and simple gowns—of delicate cinnamon and rosy-lilac colors respectively—seated upon low chairs of antique pattern, with harps by their sides. They are relieved against a background of pale growing roses, which are reflected upon the polished surface of the marble floor, so that the entire background, from top to bottom of the canvas, is one delicately varied field of rose color. As a work of color the picture possesses a great deal of beauty. But it is not so beautiful in its lines and masses. The figure to the left is too square-shouldered for good form, and the hand of the falling arm is ill-shaped, while both figures and drapery suggest ordinary studies from models rather than fine designing faculty. A comparison of Stothard's vignettes to Rogers's "Poems," which are the best instances of graceful design in a similar vein that we know of, will illustrate our meaning. But notwithstanding all defects, there remains much to be praised in this work. There is some exquisite painting in it, especially so in the head of the figure to the right, where the flesh tones are delightfully pure and varied, and the hair and its pearl ornaments are touched in with very subtle feeling. This is a direction, however, in which we think that modern art cannot safely go very far. It strikes a vein of rather unwholesome sentimentality. Modern life and modes of thought are so far opposed to the ideal feeling toward which this design leans, that a man can hardly possess it in a thoroughly healthy condition. As a rule, the safer course, even for artists like Mr. Dewing, will be, in our judgment, to deal with the beauty of the actual. Mr. Dewing's powers are such that if he would apply his whole strength to subjects of real life, he might, we think, easily lead among our figure painters.

Very different is "The Short-Cut, Watchung Station, N. J.," No. 69, by George Inness. It is a simple passage of familiar landscape. Broad extent of level meadow, narrow deep-cut brooklet in retiring perspective, rustic bridge, distant belt of woodland, with scant foliage of spring or autumn, middle-ground and distance in light, foreground in unbroken cloud-shadow, figure of an old man in shade on the bridge, other figures in light beyond, in graduated magnitudes as they retire, distant train of cars carrying off the colors of the figures, and connecting them with those of buildings still further removed, arid gray sky with upper blue openings—such are the elements of the design. The chiaroscuro is broad and true, the relation of light to shadow being especially fine. One feels that the local colors of the shaded parts are really the same as those of the parts in light, and that, as soon as the cloud passes, they will appear the same. This absolute justness of color relation in lights and shades is rarely so admirably reached. There is no instance in this picture of that forcing of shades which we sometimes find in works by Mr. Inness. The whole subject is here rendered in pure and delicate middle-tint, which is set off by just enough emphatic light and dark. The only thing that we notice to criticise is the too strong local color in the distant figures, which slightly disturbs the general harmony and quiet. More complete characterization of details would increase the beauty and value of the picture; but this is something that Mr. Inness seems resolved never to give. On this account we never feel wholly satisfied with his painting, though it often possesses qualities, such as those just noticed, which we highly appreciate.

No. 56, "Nydia," is another of Mr. George Fuller's vagaries. This, like all the rest of this artist's work, shows enough latent capacity to justify us in blaming him severely for never painting truthfully or beautifully. The effect here presented is not that of either night or day—

it is an impossible one under any imaginable conditions. The handling is without meaning, and the form appears to be dissolving away. In color it is foul and false throughout. "The Fisherman's Daughter," No. 73, by Frank C. Jones, is a piece of good, though commonplace, painting, free alike from marked faults and important qualities. In comparison with so much that is bizarre and ungrammatical in the gallery it is grateful and instructive. Mr. R. Swain Gifford's "Evening in Autumn," No. 58, is effective but artificial. It lacks the variety and freshness of nature. Hot browns and yellowish greens prevail too far. More influence of gray from the sky would render it at once more truthful and more agreeable. Little can be said in praise of No. 7, "Summer," by J. Carroll Beckwith. It is not fine in total scheme of color, nor is it good in execution. The gray of the ladies' dress is unfeelingly and unnaturally uniform and inharmonious with its surroundings. The lips are far too untempered in crimson color, and the scarlet flowers of the background are obtrusive in violent local hue. The greens of the background, too, are crude and unvaried, and the handling is throughout monotonous and heavy. Mr. R. B. Brandegee's "Portrait," No. 11, is clever and frank work, though it is both conventional and forced in the shadows. Mr. J. Foxcroft Cole's "Cloudy Day, New England," No. 27, is good painting of the obvious qualities of a pleasant passage of landscape under gray sky. "Afternoon," by Kenyon Cox, No. 28, is an unaffected bit of quiet (apparently French) landscape in the sketchy French style. No. 23, "Studio Interior," by William M. Chase, is a piece of showy, rather than good, painting. The subject has no unity, being the scattered paraphernalia of a modern studio—mere *roba;* and Mr. Chase has failed to bring out the interest which might be found in even so bad a subject were its chiaroscuro faithfully studied. Instead of doing this he has obtruded, with glaring emphasis, the sheen of the lady's satin gown and the silk hangings, and the glints of light on objects of ordinary bric-à-brac. "Hackensack Landscape," No. 24, by the same artist, has some conspicuously bad drawing, especially in the perspective curve of the river-bank to the left. Mr. Chase seems to cultivate a bad method of handling—a method that does not vary expressively in the rendering of objects of different kinds. His trees, grass, sky, and water are all done in the same way. Mr. Walter L. Palmer's "Noon," No. 89, has good color and light, and shows a fine sense of space. The subject is very simple, but it is graceful, and without any discord of ugly object.

There are strong qualities along with much bad taste in Mr. Sargent's "Portrait of a Lady," No. 103. The strong qualities are those of drawing and color values. The bad taste is displayed in the ungraceful pose and the ugly costume, which sadly deforms the figure. We have no doubt the picture is truthful in these points; but it is a pity that an artist should devote so much skill to giving enduring form to the monstrosities of a fashionable Parisian costume. The fashion in which the lady's hair is arranged is also very ungraceful and unfit for a painter. An orderly and becoming mode of wearing the hair is especially desirable for a lady when she is going to sit for her portrait. If Mr. J. H. Twachtman's "Silver Poplars," No. 128, possesses any good qualities they entirely pass our understanding. The picture, if it can be called one, consists of a mostly flat space of dull green paint, with some dirty gray ramified brush lines drawn through it, and a space of ungraduated leaden gray above for a sky. It is a mistake to suppose that there are any true artistic qualities in work of this kind. It is no more artistic than it is like nature. We hope our artists will soon cease to throw away their time and materials on such vagaries. Mr. H. P. Smith's "Twilight—Mid-Ocean," No. 113, though showing strongly the mannerism that we spoke of in regard to this artist's work in the last Water-Color Exhibition, is very expressive of the beauty and power of the limitless sea. No. 46, "A Dead Quince Tree," by Joe Evans, looks like a conscientious study. It is inexperienced work, however, and shows the want of due appreciation of those elements which make a subject of this kind worth painting. The tree lacks expression of that united impulse in its leading lines which is expressive of life and beauty, and which remains a prominent characteristic after the tree is dead. Some trees show it more plainly than others; but in choosing one to paint, those which fail to show it in a marked manner should be rejected. Even in a good model an artist will usually find it necessary to emphasize somewhat the expression of this trait. The rigid fence, too, which runs across the canvas, is uninteresting, and harmful to the design. An example of good, quiet, grammatical painting is Mr. Thomas Allen's "Woodland Pasture in Early Autumn," No. 3.

"Le Philtre," No. 133, by H. O. Walker, is a nude female figure, ugly in form, ungraceful in pose, and certainly not fine in color. We see no good reason why it should have been painted. Mr. C. Y. Turner's "Portrait," No. 127, is a very good free piece of work, though it is somewhat too violent in contrasts of light and shade. By these strong contrasts, as we have before shown, color is in great measure lost in the shadows. Fine colorists, like the Venetian masters, therefore avoid them, keeping their shadows always sufficiently luminous to insure the fullest preservation of local hues that is compatible with the legitimate modifications of shade. This most important principle of good coloring has been strangely lost sight of in the modern schools, but it is invariably enforced by the teaching of the central Italian schools, to which we have referred as illustrating all that is exemplary in regard to fundamental principles. This principle is enforced, too, by the example of those modern painters who have founded their practice upon these Italian schools—painters like Reynolds, Gainsborough, and Turner. Another very good portrait sketch is that of Mr. Montague Flagg, No. 50. These works contain so much that is good that we cannot help wishing that their authors would, for a while, at least, follow the example of Bellini and Titian, rather than that of the present schools of Munich and Paris, and give us beautifully colored and quietly finished, no less than expressive and spirited work. But we can pardon the want of finish and accept mere sketches in place of finished pictures, if only the sketches be executed on thoroughly true principles, and be right and beautiful as far as they go. It is the want of right cultivation in fundamental principles—whether for rapid sketching or finished painting—that we have so constantly to complain of; not the mere fact that our artists just now prefer to work sketchily.

There are good qualities in the large canvas No. 38, "La Marcelline," by Mr. Donoho, but it is painfully monotonous in color and scattered in effect. To represent adequately and agreeably the infinity of dead leaves which cover the ground in autumn of such a wood interior, is a very difficult task. The difficulty would have been lessened, however, and the result have been much better, in this case, if the artist had looked faithfully enough at nature. He would then have seen that the fallen leaves in a wood rarely, if ever, present such an appearance of absolutely speckled equality to the ground-surface as is here represented. The natural unevenness of the ground, the accidents of winds, and the unequal spacing and magnitudes of the trees, tend to gather the leaves in greater heaps in some places than in others, and thus is produced a variety and a gathering of details into masses which make the scene more grateful to the eye, and consequently more suitable for a picture, than when no such variety or gathering into masses exists. No. 32, "Après la Messe," by William F. Dannat, is a piece of utterly vulgar realism. The subject is a debasing one to contemplate, and the execution exhibits nothing more than the commonest artistic powers. Mr. E. H. Blashfield's "The Minute Men," No. 8, is below the mark of other works which we have noticed by him. The conception, composition, and treatment of the subject are thoroughly commonplace.

The few examples of sculpture which accompany this exhibition are of little importance. The art of sculpture is in a far from prosperous condition at the present time. However the prevailing methods of conception and treatment may do in painting, they certainly are not favorable to sculpture. All merely picturesque and realistic motives are outside the range of the proper ends of sculpture, which requires for its life the refined study of beautiful form. In addition to the unfavorable influence of the modern picturesque methods upon sculpture, another great cause for its present low condition is, we suspect, the modern practice of modelling in clay—a material which very naturally lends itself to picturesque treatment, such as the French modellers exemplify. Indeed, we have, as a rule, only modellers in clay at the present time. There are, probably, few original sculptors living who could successfully carve a statue in marble; but it is through the actual use of the chisel, among other things, that we must hope to regain something of the true sculptor's sense of what form in marble should properly be.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 19, 1883.

The Week.

THE removal of Mr. Trowbridge, the Michigan Collector, in the middle of his term, without any charge against him, in spite of long and confessedly faithful service, on the demand of Senator Conger, in order that a newspaper henchman of his might get the vacant place, has excited a great deal of comment all over the country as well as in Michigan. It has attracted all the more attention because it has occurred in the State which sent forth Jay Hubbell last fall to collect "voluntary assessments of two per cent. on your annual compensation," but subsequently expressed its opinion of that sort of thing by ousting six of its nine Republican Congressmen. In fact, there is no doubt that the Michigan Republicans are deeply imbued with the civil-service reform doctrines of President Arthur's first Message, and that therefore it is one of the worst States at the North to select for the exhibition of fresh examples of the working of the spoils system. There has, however, in most of the criticisms of this last performance, been too much disposition to lay the blame of it on Senator Conger. It is talked of as if it were all, or even mainly, his doing. But the truth is that he has done nothing at all but ask a favor. He has no power either of appointment or dismissal. He is not responsible under the Constitution for the retention or dismissal of any officer of the Government. He had no power over Collector Trowbridge. He probably bore him no grudge. He simply wanted a place with a salary for one of his followers, and asked for it. He of course ought not to have done this, but there really would have been no great harm in it if the President had met it in the proper manner, just as there would have been no great harm in asking the President to give the henchman $2,500 or so out of his own pocket. Such a request would have injured no one. The President would simply have said that he had better uses for his money than giving it to strolling henchmen, and Mr. Conger would have said: "All right; no harm done," and there the affair would have ended.

It is all the more necessary to keep this in mind because the President, as well as others, is probably deceived as to the real nature of such transactions by the part the Senator plays in them. He thinks, apparently, that the intervention of a Senator relieves him of some of his responsibility. Under the old spoils system it did. Under the new system, initiated by his own message and the passage of the Civil-Service Reform Bill, all this rubbish has been cleared away. The President's responsibility is fully restored, in the eyes of the public at least. The voters now expect him not only to execute the new law as regards the offices which it covers, but also to apply its principles to the offices which it does not cover. He has said in his message, in the most solemn manner, that the tenure of all subordinate offices should be stable, and that no officer should be removed without cause during his term. When he said this he knew, and everybody knew, that he had the power to carry it out, and that what Senator Conger or any other Senator said about it made no difference whatever. Moreover, there is no use any longer in trying to persuade the people that performances of this sort "strengthen" the President. This old cant phrase has likewise been exploded. There is in the United States only one source of strength for an elected officer, and that is the polls. There has, in truth, never been any other; but part of the humbug of the spoils system consisted in persuading party newspaper editors that, by plenty of "rotation in office," a President was made powerful and sure of reëlection; and they accordingly used to preach this diligently, though every election falsified it. The strong man in our politics is the man who can get most votes, and no administrative officer nowadays can get most votes of whose manner of administering his office the majority does not approve.

The Michigan newspapers state that at a recent Detroit reception to Governor Begole, he was conducted to a "chair that rested upon a dais six or eight inches above the floor. The chair was shielded by a canopy of state, and was an exact reproduction of the chair of state used by Louis XIII." And this is the same Governor who, only a few short weeks ago, objected to being called "Governor," and insisted that he was really only "principal servant" of the people.

Bradstreet's Journal anticipates extensive "reprisals" against Germany, in the shape of retaliatory legislation when Congress reassembles, the occasion for such legislation being the German decree prohibiting the importation of American pork upon grounds of unhealthfulness. The articles most likely to be prohibited in the way of retaliation are said to be German wines, hosiery, and woollen goods, there being considerable evidence obtainable showing that these things are extensively adulterated with poisonous coloring matter. We ought to be very slow in contributing ourselves to the laughing-stock of nations merely because Germany has done a foolish thing. She has limited, in some small degree, her own market for the purchase of food. She has raised the price upon herself, but she has not sensibly curtailed our market for the sale of pork. The same number of mouths remain to be filled, and filled they will be to the extent of Germany's purchasing power, whether they obtain a part of their supply from us directly or through English, French, or Dutch channels. Germany has never been a large customer for our pork products, except for the article of lard, which does not seem to be embraced in the decree of prohibition. So it appears we do not suffer very seriously from the measures of the German Government. But a policy of retaliation might indeed have the good effect of exposing the absurdity of the whole system.

The effects of the new pension law, which grants an increase in the rate of pensions from $24 to $30 per month to those Union soldiers who lost a leg above the knee or an arm above the elbow, begin already to be felt in the Pension Office, more than 32,000 papers in the nature of evidence, 52,000 reports, and 46,000 letters having been received last month. One would think that nothing could be easier than to prevent fraud when the application of the law seems to be naturally guided by ocular observation. But the ingenuity of the pension swindler has thus far baffled all calculation as to the depth of its resources, and unless the agents of the Pension Office are uncommonly vigilant, the pension rolls will soon contain thousands of names whose owners had never suspected themselves before of having lost an arm just above the elbow, or a leg just above the knee. Fraud on a large scale can be prevented only by having pension claims adjudicated as much as possible on personal inspection of the claimants, and as little as possible on the strength of mere affidavits. This may cost some money, but it will prevent the expenditure of much more money in the end.

Except the pending change in iron-workers' wages, which causes some apprehension of strikes, there is scarcely a feature of the general industrial and mercantile situation that is unfavorable. The prospect for crops of every kind throughout the West, notwithstanding the reports of some damage to the winter wheat, is as good as it ever was at this season of the year, while it is certain that the crops of all Western Europe will be from fifteen to twenty-five per cent. short of the average, thus insuring a good foreign market for our surplus. The money market is more easy. On Saturday the bank statement showed an increase of more than $4,200,000 and a decrease of loans, which enabled the banks to offer at least $4,000,000 to $5,000,000 more money on loan. In Europe there is an unusually large amount of speculative capital disposed to seek investment in American securities, particularly railroad bonds. Two or three large new loans for American railroads have been brought out in London in the past fortnight. Increased interest in the stock market has also been manifest in the last week. For several weeks up to last Saturday there had been a pretty continuous buying of the best dividend-paying stocks, which had advanced in that time from 8 to 15 per cent., the most rapid advance, however, being last week, when the profit became so large that a great many holders proceeded to realize them. This caused a sudden break of from 1 to 4 per cent. on Monday, but there was an almost complete recovery on Tuesday.

Mr. Joseph Cook, of Boston, who also calls himself "The Boston Monday Lectureship," has been discoursing on the shortcom-

ings of the American press in one of those performances, which he calls his "preludes," which consist in some random observations made prior to the regular lecture. He describes himself as much troubled not only by the deficiencies of the press, but by the low opinion entertained of it by foreign critics. One of his favorite modes of paying off his enemies is to bring home from his travels unpleasant accounts of what he heard foreigners say about them. Mr. Cook's reports of what he has seen and heard, either abroad or anywhere, are always to be received with caution; but even if he has heard all he says he has heard in the way of "merciless sneers," he ought to be the last person to reproduce it. There is probably no person professing to be educated who has brought so much discredit on the American mind within the last seven years as Mr. Joseph Cook himself, in the eyes of those foreigners whose opinions about newspapers or any kind of literature are worth reporting. His gross ignorance and inaccuracy on those matters of science with which he has undertaken to deal, have again and again been exposed by scientific men. So have his reports of the opinions of foreign philosophers and thinkers. There is, however, nothing discreditable to the country in the existence of a conspicuous blunderer of this kind. What does damage it is the triumph of Mr. Cook's remarkable talents as a sensational preacher over all attempts to make his real character known to his audiences. His hall is just as full, we believe, as it was before he was found out, and there is no apparent diminution in the number of those who think he has reconciled religion and science. The better educated and more rational clergymen are as much ashamed of his performances as anybody, but a lamentably large number of them are glad to accept his assistance in keeping alive a spirit of credulous wonder which they, mistakenly we are sure, consider in some manner favorable to the growth and maintenance of genuine religious feeling.

One of the most remarkable suits ever tried has just come to an end in Boston. It was brought by Lizzie Gannon, a child of tender years, against Father Fleming, who was called in as her spiritual adviser. The child had two paper dolls, or "angels," to which she attributed a certain supernatural virtue or potency. He took the angels away from her, and she immediately began to suffer in health to such a degree that she brought a suit against Father Fleming for $5,000, a sum which any fair-minded person will admit is a low estimate of the damage caused by the loss of the society of angels, even in a community where the average social standard is as high as in Boston. The Judge, however, we are sorry to say, charged heavily against the plaintiff, reminding the jury that "the universe is governed by law," and that "the smallest speck which floats in the sunbeam and the largest planet which lies upon the bounds of telescopic vision are subject alike to the same universal law of gravitation, and we are not to place any faith in the mysterious delusions of spiritualism." Under these instructions the jury returned a verdict of one cent damages, which only carries half the costs, so that Lizzie has not only lost her angels, but has a heavy bill to pay. At the same time, the verdict seems to establish her right to the possession of her angels, and exemption from all interference with them by Father Fleming or anybody else. The mental training of Lizzie is evidently going to be surrounded with many difficulties.

Mr. Curtis, who made the only strictly literary speech at the Holmes dinner on the 12th instant, hinted at a parallel between Irving and the guest of the evening which was, perhaps, rather calculated to suggest differences than a resemblance. The likeness really ends with the fact that one in New England and the other in New York first revealed the hitherto unsuspected opportunities for the development of a humorous literature. But their humor was very different. Irving found his materials ready in the provincial traditions of phlegmatic Dutch colonists; but the colonial traditions of New England, when Dr. Holmes began to write, were altogether too sacred to be trifled with. To laugh at the historical figure of old Peter Stuyvesant was one thing; but to the descendants of Cotton Mather and Winthrop nothing of the kind was allowable. New England was a serious place when Dr. Holmes came into the world, just as New York was a dull place when Irving made his acquaintance with it. It was a community in which the clergyman was not only an important social figure, but in which he still retained a large share of the old Puritan legal authority. He prescribed people's beliefs, reprimanded their sins, not privately and apologetically, but sternly and openly in the pulpit. He exercised a theocratic sway over everybody, and inspired an awe in all classes of the community, which it is now difficult to picture to the mind. The very fact that there was little or no literature in the country, made his weekly discourse the intellectual event of the week. Politics was the relaxation of a community of which dogmatic theology was the serious mental occupation.

That there was behind all this gravity a native Yankee humor, which was sure to find its way into literature sooner or later, we know now, but it was hardly suspected then, at least outside of New England, and Dr. Holmes was the first to show what might be done with it. He was admirably qualified by nature for the task of introducing to the notice of the sombre New England audience the value of the humorous aspect of human life, by the very fact that he was not a satirist, and that his laughter hurt no one's feelings and shocked no one's prejudices. His verses suggested a conception of life which could hardly be called new, but which was novel in New England—as novel in another way as Emerson's pleasant eclectic philosophy, which was beginning to sap the foundations of dogma. New England was quite ready for Doctor Holmes's treatment. The community was really just awakening to the reality of modern life, to the new literature, the new learning, the wonders and magic of modern science and invention. Life was to be not only real and earnest, but it was to be amusing. Its contrasts, its folly, its queer surprises, the eternal conflict between its dreams and its reality, could be made use of to enliven its path just as well as to deepen its gloom. Mirth, and gayety, and humor, and cheerfulness were to be had for the asking, and a very competent practitioner was ready to furnish them. Of course, it is useless to inquire what would have happened to New England if the old ways had not been abandoned; but to dissipate the gloom which hung over life and society in Massachusetts fifty years ago, it was just such wit, vivacity, and cheerfulness, and natural disposition for the comic side of things as his, that was essential.

Brady, the murderer of Mr. Burke and Lord Frederick Cavendish, will be hanged on the 14th of May, within five weeks of his arraignment, after a trial lasting three days. When the villain heard the verdict in court he turned "ashy pale," showing that he knew there was no hope for him, and that there would be no delay beyond the appointed day in hanging him: no appeals on little technical points, no new trial, no chance to get more alibis or murder any of the witnesses for the prosecution, or the jurymen. We may be sure, too, that many another murdering ruffian, either in the court-room or outside in the street, when he heard of the verdict, knowing that "Joe" Brady would surely die in one month, began to turn his thoughts into innocent channels and doubt whether Ireland could really be helped by assassination and arson. When we reflect that if the bill for the establishment of a Court of Criminal Appeals passes, all this wholesome swiftness of justice will become a thing of the past, that the chance of escape for every assassin will be nearly doubled, and that the effect of a conviction upon the imagination of the criminal population will be greatly diminished by the indefinite postponement of the final judgment, we cannot help believing that decent people, in Ireland at least, must look forward to its passage with great apprehension.

Brady's solemn denial of his guilt in court is not surprising. He, of course, wishes to give himself whatever scrap of hope such a denial may contain. It will be interesting, however, to see whether he denies it on the scaffold. If he does, it will heighten the public curiosity as to the nature of the arrangement with his spiritual advisers which enables him to do this. No satisfactory explanation of these solemn asseverations of innocence at the last moment by Catholic criminals who have just received the rites which the Church only gives to the penitent, has ever been made. Of course, the Fenian explanation that a man must be innocent who says he is, when at the point of death, does not clear the matter up. If we are not mistaken, there is no recorded case of a public confession of guilt by an Irish agrarian or political murderer when on the scaffold. He usually devotes his dying speech either to denouncing the witnesses or to denying all knowledge of the crime, which seems to show that there must be some secret method of satisfying his conscience as to this mode of saving his memory. There is some light thrown on the whole state of popular feeling by the ad-

mission of Carey, the informer, that while planning his murders he was a member of a Catholic "Sodality," or religious society, whose members were bound to take the sacraments at certain stated intervals. He was probably not as great a hypocrite as this would indicate. There is doubtless some condition of the conscience, of which we know nothing, which enables these men to be "good Catholics," in their own eyes, while engaged in a certain class of crime, and to deny it to the last gasp without imperilling their salvation.

When Patrick Egan was asked by the reporter of the *Sun* the other day his opinion of Brady's conviction, he gave some curious confirmation of what we have been saying of the necessity under which every Irish politician labors of alleging the unfairness of all convictions for agrarian murders and outrages. We presume no intelligent person who knows the history of the case, really doubts that Brady murdered Mr. Burke and Lord Frederick Cavendish, but no Irish politician of the Nationalist school would dare to say so. We question, in fact, if any of them has ever admitted that a conviction of an agrarian or political criminal was ever fairly obtained. Egan, for instance, gets out of the difficulty by asserting that "the witnesses were bribed by sums varying from $2,500 to $50,000; that the jury was purchased, and that the judge who tried the case was a notorious partisan." He gives no reason, however, and apparently thinks none necessary, for believing Brady unlikely to have committed the murders, but probably, if pressed hard on this point, would insinuate, if not assert, that they were committed by the police to bring discredit on the national cause. This obligation to disbelieve all charges of agrarian or political crime is probably the hardest of all those resting on an Irish politician; to men of education like Parnell and Justin McCarthy it must be very trying.

The editor of the Associated Press despatches has fallen into the curious though small error of making Dr. Webb, the counsel for Brady at the late trial in Dublin, address the Court as "Your Honor." This is a purely American form, unknown in England altogether, and only in Ireland as an expression of real or sham respect from the peasantry to social superiors, though it is even there rapidly dying out. An English or Irish or Scotch judge of the Superior Courts is always "My Lord," or usually "Milud," and "Your Ludship." County judges and Chairmen of Quarter Sessions are "Your Worship," or popularly "Your Waship." If Dr. Webb had called Mr. Justice O'Brien "Your Honor," it would have caused great laughter. The history of the title in this country, or at least in this State, would be interesting, though doubtless hard to write. The judges here are all "Your Honor," and so is the Mayor, and everybody who has held an office, however humble; and, very often, persons considered worthy of office, even if they never held it, are "Honorable." The continuance of these titles in popular use, in spite of the stern attitude of the press and of the lawmakers toward all such marks of distinction, is doubtless a curious case of survival.

However little of genuine constitutional government there may be in Germany, there is evidently enough of it to develop the "electioneering dodge." That art is cultivated not only by the candidate for a seat in the Reichstag or in the Legislature of any of the states composing the Empire, but it seems to have been studied with the greatest assiduity and success in the "highest circles," and one of its most remarkable achievements was the extraordinary message of the Emperor sent to the Reichstag on Friday. For years it has been one of Bismarck's pet schemes to induce the Reichstag to vote the appropriations necessary for the conduct of the Government in its various branches for a period of two years at a time, instead of one. The object, of course, was to make the Imperial Government more independent of parliamentary control. But the Reichstag has so far steadily refused to curtail by its own action the few constitutional prerogatives it enjoys, of which the right to "vote the budget" is the principal one; and the proposition of biennial appropriations, therefore, failed, as often as it was brought forward, by overwhelming majorities. But Prince Bismarck is not the man to give up a project when once, or even twice or three times, foiled in it. He proposed the same thing again and again, and now at last he seems resolved to appeal from the Reichstag to the people. To do this with effect he resorted to a remarkably ingenious expedient, which shows that in the electioneering art he might "give points" to any party manager in our Presidential campaigns. The Emperor professes the same solicitude for the condition of the working classes which has always been characteristic of the Prussian kings. It had always been his desire, he says, to accompany the repressive laws against the Socialists with other laws beneficial to the laboring men. He was anxious that the Insurance Bill for disabled workingmen should pass at this session, and he would then submit the budget for 1884 and 1885, so that the next session of the Reichstag might be devoted entirely to the Sick-Poor Bill and other measures for the improvement of the social condition of the people.

That this message is Prince Bismarck's, and not the Emperor's work, is of course generally understood. That it is a consummate politician's movement for position in a campaign, is equally evident. He simply tries to array the vote of the working people against the parliamentarians. He says to the masses: "Here is the good old Emperor wanting to improve your condition. We have submitted bill after bill for that purpose. But the Reichstag prefers to spend its time in higgling over items of appropriations. Now, we propose to reduce these discussions about one-half by having them every two years instead of each year, and we want the time so saved to be devoted by the Reichstag entirely to your interests. If the Reichstag insists upon having the discussions about the budget every year, thus frittering away the time that should be devoted to you, it simply shows that it cares more for its own power than for your interests." This appeal is, of course, intended to put the Liberals and the friends of constitutional government generally in a false position. That at the present session of the Reichstag they will vote down the proposition for a biennial budget once more is a foregone conclusion. It is expected that Prince Bismarck will thereupon induce the Emperor to dissolve the Reichstag, and then in the general election try to win a working majority by uniting the working classes with the "conservative" followers of the Government against the Liberals and the Constitutionalists generally.

The declaration of Signor Mancini, the Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs, at last puts the existence of a defensive alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy beyond all doubt. While he declines to give any specific information about the form of the agreement, he states emphatically that the object is the preservation of peace in Europe. It could scarcely be otherwise, for any attempt on the part of any one of the three allied Powers to set on foot an offensive war for its own aggrandizement would unquestionably be followed by the dissolution of the alliance. It is not unnatural that, as Signor Mancini remarked, Italy should have desired to get out of her "former position of isolation," although her new position as a sort of orphan adopted by the two most formidable Continental Powers will not be an especially proud one. But it is likely to be useful to her in an emergency. Italy has had remarkably good luck in drawing profit from the exertions and victories of other Powers, and she prudently takes care to associate herself with those which bid fair to offer the best chances.

Admiral Lord Alcester, of the English Navy, has apparently settled the disputed question whether Admiral Nicholson's crew cheered the British fleet when sailing round it after the bombardment of Alexandria. When the news of this display of sympathy for the British first reached this country, it was taken up very warmly in Congress, if we remember rightly, by Mr. Robinson, and, if some sort of denial had not been put in, might have resulted in Admiral Nicholson's being brought home in chains and prosecuted either by impeachment or some other equally dreadful process. But it must seriously be said that Admiral Nicholson's permitting the performance can hardly be called very discreet. We had nothing to do with the Egyptian quarrel, and any boisterous display of sympathy with one of the belligerents on the part of our land or naval forces was, therefore, to say the least, out of place. Such things are always liable to be misconstrued, and Lord Alcester undoubtedly misconstrued this one. He said that Admiral Nicholson "did everything in his power to aid them (the British), for which he (Lord Alcester) was afraid he would not receive the thanks of the Irish-American party." But then there is a very large body of persons in the United States besides "the Irish-American party" who do not thank American naval officers for lending a hand in foreign bombardments. Arabi probably deserved all he got, but there was even in England much difference of opinion as to the propriety of his getting it from Lord Alcester, and there may well, therefore, be a good deal here, even among native Americans.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 11, to TUESDAY, April 17, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR has been enjoying his vacation during the week in Florida. On Thursday he arrived at Sanford, and on the following day started for Tocoi, where he arrived on Saturday morning, on the way to St. Augustine, which was reached in two hours by rail. A reception was given him at a hotel there. He remained in St. Augustine until Tuesday evening, spending part of his time in fishing. The United States steamer *Tullapoosa* was awaiting his pleasure at that place on his arrival.

Judge Gresham was sworn into office as Postmaster-General on Wednesday morning, and immediately entered upon his duties.

Postmaster-General Gresham has approved a design for the new two-cent postage-stamp. It bears the profile of Washington. The color has not yet been selected. This stamp will take the place of the three-cent stamp after October 1.

Work has already actively begun in the Department at Washington under the new law, which grants an increase in the rate of pensions from $24 to $30 per month to soldiers who lost a leg above the knee or an arm above the elbow. Already more than 11,000 petitions from one-armed soldiers have been received. More than 32,000 documents in the nature of evidence, 52,000 reports, and 46,000 letters were received last month.

Prof. J. W. Collier, the Chief Chemist of the Agricultural Department in Washington, has been summarily removed, and Professor Tyler, of Indiana, appointed in his stead. Professor Collier had no notice of this removal, although it was not altogether unexpected. He says that there have long been differences between himself and the Commissioner of Agriculture as to the importance to be attached to the making of sugar from sorghum.

The supplemental report of the *Jeannette* Court of Inquiry has been completed.

Discrepancies have been discovered in the Government salary tables, which show that in many instances the monthly payments have been excessive. The overpayments may amount to many thousand dollars.

The United States Government has consented to coin the money of the King of the Sandwich Islands.

Mr. J. R. Partridge, United States Minister to Peru, recently recalled, arrived in this city on Saturday. He said that he had returned to this country to make explanations to the Secretary of State in regard to the severely criticised "note of agreement" (dealing with the Peruvian peace negotiations).

In the Star-route trial on Wednesday the third day of Miner's examination was begun, and his testimony was concluded. On Thursday James E. Waugh was called by the defence, and he unexpectedly identified certain names on a petition as having been written by Miner. Mr. Ingersoll offered in evidence Special Agent A. M. Gibson's report on Star routes as made to Postmaster-General James. Mr. Bliss objected on the ground that the report had been rejected by the Department of Justice. The Court refused to admit it. The defence was brought to a close on Thursday afternoon, and the rebuttal was begun. Friday was devoted to hearing this evidence. The fifth month of the trial was begun on Tuesday. Ex-Postmaster-General James testified for the prosecution.

William Lilley on Wednesday entered suit in Washington against ex-Senator Dorsey for $10,000 damages, alleged to have been sustained by him as a result of an assault made upon him by Dorsey on March 6 last, at the house of the latter.

The sixty-fifth anniversary of the American flag was celebrated on Friday, in Washington, at the residence of Colonel Samuel Reed, the son of the designer.

In the Assembly, at Albany, on Wednesday, Mr. Roosevelt's resolution directing the Attorney-General to bring suit to dissolve the Manhattan Railroad Company was rejected by a vote of 55 to 49. The discussion on the adverse report of the Judiciary Committee was cut off by the previous question. A resolution for a final adjournment of the Legislature on April 21 was adopted without debate, but is held back in the Senate. Mr. M. C. Murphy's Excise Bill was returned from the Senate with a few minor amendments, and agreed to. The bill now goes to the Governor. Senator Jacobs's Emigration-Commissioner Bill was passed in the Senate on Wednesday by a vote of 17 to 13. Assemblyman Donohue, of Erie County, has introduced a new bill to accomplish for the Democratic firemen of Buffalo what they lost by Governor Cleveland's recent veto. At the evening session on Wednesday the bill appropriating $1,000,000 to continue work on the new Capitol was passed by the Senate. In the Assembly Mr. Smith's bill creating a Board of Forest Commissioners was passed. On Thursday the Senate Emigration Bill passed the Assembly by a party vote. The bill permitting the selling of pools at races, under certain restrictions, was finally killed by a refusal to reconsider the vote against it. A conference report on Penal-Code amendments was agreed to, which permits the sale of ice-cream, confectionery, fruit, and prepared tobacco during the whole of Sunday, and also permits lectures and other exercises in churches, schools, etc. A bill was introduced in the Senate on Friday setting apart 15,000 acres of timber land in St. Lawrence County for an experiment on the German plan of forestry, and appointing James R. Smith, of Russell, St. Lawrence County, a Commissioner to have charge of the land. On Monday evening the Hodges bill, making it a misdemeanor to sell or give a pistol or other firearm to a person under eighteen years of age, or for a person of that age to have such weapons in his possession, was passed in the Assembly. Gov. Cleveland on that evening nominated Deputy Insurance Commissioner John A. McCall to be Insurance Commissioner. He was immediately unanimously confirmed by the Senate. The nomination is warmly approved as being according to civil-service principles, Mr. McCall having worked his way up from an $800 clerkship in the Department, with which he has been connected for eleven years. The Broadway Arcade Railroad Bill passed the Assembly on Tuesday morning.

The Court of Appeals of New York, on Tuesday, affirmed the constitutionality of the jury law in Albany County. This has interfered with the courts in that county for some time. The Sessions bribery case can now be brought to trial.

The Commissioners of Accounts—Messrs. William Pitt Shearman and George E. Hill—are now making an investigation in the City Finance Department, to ascertain the nature and extent of a series of systematic frauds on the treasury of this city. It has been learned that a large number of interest coupons on outstanding city bonds have been paid twice over during the last few years. The clerk whose duty it was to cancel the coupons upon presentation was William B. Carroll, who died in August last. He had held his position since 1872, and nothing occurred during his life to cause any suspicion of his honesty or faithfulness. It is feared that the thefts may reach $150,000.

The will of Peter Cooper, filed in the Surrogate's office on Wednesday, leaves $100,000 to Cooper Union, and about $100,000 in special bequests; the remainder, about $1,800,000, is to be divided between his two children, Edward Cooper and Mrs. Abram S. Hewitt.

It is announced that Mr. Jay Gould is about to retire from active business operations in Wall Street, leaving his son, George J. Gould, to succeed him.

A dinner was given to Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, at Delmonico's in this city on Thursday evening, by the medical profession of New York city. About 225 persons were present, mostly physicians. Dr. Fordyce Barker presided. Doctor Holmes read a characteristic poem, composed for the occasion. There were speeches by Bishop Clark, William M. Evarts, Dr. T. G. Thomas, George William Curtis, and Whitelaw Reid.

The seven Americans who have so long been imprisoned at Panama on suspicion of having been engaged in the robbery of $50,000 from the vaults of the Panama Railroad Company, have at length been set free. One of their number arrived in this city on Saturday. He said: "We were all citizens of the United States, engaged in business, and there was no reason for our arrest and imprisonment except the whim of the railroad company. Our Consul would not, or could not, do anything for us, and we lay, sick and suffering, in the terrible hole of a prison, unable to get a hearing, but taken down every day, one by one, into a dungeon, where a Colombian official tried to extort confessions from us. Finally we were allowed to employ lawyers from the town, and at last, on the 31st of March, after three months' unjust imprisonment, we were all released, the Colombian Government and the railroad company withdrawing the complaints against us."

A bill was introduced in the Pennsylvania Senate on Wednesday to prohibit the manufacture and sale of infernal machines and devices to destroy life and injure property. A bill was also introduced preventing any attempt at Passion Plays.

Major Phipps, the defaulting Superintendent of the Philadelphia Almshouse, was taken back to that city on Friday from Canada and locked up.

Governor Butler, of Massachusetts, on Wednesday vetoed the bill to give notaries public jurisdiction and the right to act in any and all counties.

The Marquis of Lorne arrived at Boston on Friday to await the arrival of the Princess Louise from Bermuda. A sensation was caused during the day by the explosion of a railroad torpedo on the street. The police attached no importance to the event. The Princess Louise arrived at Newport on a British frigate on Saturday. She proceeded to Boston, where she met her husband and spent Sunday and Monday. They returned to Ottawa on Tuesday.

In the suit at Boston of Lizzie Gannon against Father Fleming, which was brought to recover $5,000 damages, because the latter, a Catholic priest, had taken away some paper images to which the child had become attached, causing alleged serious injury to her health and mental condition, the jury on Wednesday brought in a verdict of one cent damages.

The Iroquois Club, of Chicago, celebrated Jefferson's birthday on Friday evening by listening to speeches by Senator Bayard, E. P. Wheeler, Colonel W. C. P. Breckenridge, and others. A despatch says: "The general drift of opinion seemed to favor Samuel J. Tilden for Democratic standard-bearer in 1884." A protection speech was made by Mayor Harrison, of Chicago, which was seriously at odds with the general free-trade sentiment.

There has been a serious strike at the Springfield, Ill., Rolling Mill. Many non-union men had been found to take the places of the strikers. On Thursday they were attacked and badly beaten by the strikers, and in the evening, as a number were leaving the mill, they were fired upon. One man was killed and two wounded.

After a three days' session the Georgia Democratic State Convention, on Thursday, nominated Henry M. McDaniel for Governor.

He was a Confederate soldier, and represents the reactionary element of the party as opposed to Boynton and Colquitt.

Parts of Arkansas, Missouri, and Minnesota were visited by tornadoes on Saturday which caused some loss of life and destroyed a good deal of property.

FOREIGN.

The trial of Joe Brady on the charge of murdering Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke began on Wednesday morning in Dublin. Many of the jurors in the panel failed to appear and respond to their names, but in one hour a jury was secured. The case for the Crown was opened by Mr. Porter, who pointed out to the jury their duty to be guided by the evidence to be produced. The first witness called was Farrell, the informer, who repeated the testimony he had given at the preliminary examination. James Carey substantially repeated the testimony he had previously given. He gave a detailed account of the formation of the Invincibles. Carey, on Thursday, admitted that he was promised a pardon before he determined to give evidence against his fellow-conspirators. He also identified a photograph as that of the man known as Number One. It was a picture of Tynan. Michael Kavanagh, the car-driver, showed that he was under the direction of Brady, who designated the place where he was to wait for the murderers. Joseph Smith, another informer, corroborated Carey's testimony. Several minor witnesses were examined, and the case for the prosecution was closed at 3 o'clock on Thursday. The defence was then opened. After an hour's address by the counsel for the defence, witnesses were called to prove an alibi. The testimony was all in, the speeches of the attorneys were made, and the Judge's charge delivered by 3 o'clock on Friday afternoon. The jury were out forty minutes and returned with a verdict of guilty. Brady was immediately sentenced to be hanged on May 14. A motion for arrest of judgment was denied. Brady made a solemn protestation of his innocence.

Daniel Curley, another of the men indicted for participation in the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, in Phœnix Park, on the 6th of last May, was placed on trial in the Green Street Court, Dublin, on Monday morning, and James Carey was one of the principal witnesses. Joseph Smith and Peter Carey testified on Tuesday. The defence was opened in the afternoon. They propose to prove an alibi.

Norman, Gallagher, Dalton, Wilson, Curtin, and Ansburghe, the six men recently arrested in London, on suspicion of being connected with a dynamite conspiracy, were taken to the Bow Street Police Court on Thursday morning in a prison van, under a heavy guard, to prevent a possible rescue. Mr. Poland, opening the case for the prosecution, declared that there was no doubt, in view of the evidence obtained by the authorities, that a conspiracy was in existence in America, the purpose of which was the destruction of public buildings in Great Britain; that the factor invoked by the conspirators was dynamite; that some of the men now on trial had come from the United States for the purpose of putting their diabolical schemes into operation; that they had furnished the means and the men to establish the dynamite manufactory at Birmingman, and that Gallagher, Wilson, and Norman had visited the manufacturer, Whitehead, at his place in Birmingham, with the purpose of sending to London a supply of his explosives. Mr. Poland said he proposed to show that Norman and Wilson had repeatedly communicated with Gallagher, who was known as Fletcher. Gallagher himself communicated with all the subordinate conspirators. It would appear in the course of the evidence that Curtin also was one of the chief conspirators. Papers were found in Gallagher's luggage which referred to Ansburghe, whom Gallagher was known to have visited. O'Conner went to the United States about nine years ago, and letters showed that he had established relations with O'Donovan Rossa, McClure, and Devoy. He returned to England a short time ago under the name of Dalton. The examination was adjourned for one week at the request of the Government.

A parcel containing seven pounds of gunpowder was found recently near the office of the Secretary of State for the Home Department (Sir William Vernon Harcourt).

Three gunboats were cruising off Cork, Ireland, on Monday, waiting, it is said, to intercept a vessel from America having on board infernal machines.

Mr. Parnell says that if the Philadelphia Convention is postponed until autumn, he will attend, and he advises that step.

The Elective Councils Bill, embodying Mr. Healy's scheme for local self-government in Ireland, was rejected by the House of Commons, on Wednesday afternoon, by a vote of 58 to 231.

The trial in London of Mr. Charles Bradlaugh, who, with the proprietor and editor of the *Freethinker*, was charged with publishing a sketch of the Deity and blasphemous libels in that journal, has resulted in Mr. Bradlaugh's acquittal.

There has been a heavy decline in wheat in London, owing to large purchases from America, caused by the expectation that prices would rise on account of continuous bad weather.

Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Charles Russell, a distinguished English officer of the Crimean war, died on Saturday at the age of fifty-seven. He was a member of Parliament and a Conservative.

In the German Reichstag on Friday Herr Scholz, Minister of Finance, read an imperial message. The Emperor says he has always believed that it was his duty to manifest the same solicitude for the condition of the working classes which was shown by the Prussian kings. When the Socialist Law was promulgated, the Emperor expressed his conviction that legislation should not be restricted to police and penal measures, but should benefit the workingmen. The abolition of the class tax was the first step toward benefiting them. The Emperor is anxious in regard to the passage of the Insurance Bill, as its failure, he thinks, would hopelessly destroy any chance of passing the Sick-Poor Bill at the next session. The budget for 1884 and 1885 would therefore be now submitted in order to give the next session opportunity to consider the social condition of the people. The message was a surprise to the Reichstag, and the Liberal journals were dissatisfied with it. It is thought to be a clever expedient to effect a dissolution of the Reichstag.

The Committee of the German Bundesrath has reported favorably on the letter of Prince Bismarck, in which the Chancellor advises that the importation of hog products from America be prohibited. On Friday a regulation was gazetted against such importations.

The death is announced of Friedrich Franz II., Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. His mother was the only sister of the Emperor William of Germany. He was a prominent soldier in the Franco-Prussian war.

Threats have been made to destroy the Austrian Parliament building in Vienna, and it is now carefully guarded.

Sponga, the Italian implicated in the murder of Count Majláth von Szekhély, was arrested on Thursday at Pressburg, and made a confession. He attempted to commit suicide by shooting himself in the mouth. The wound is considered mortal.

The great Nihilist trial is now in progress at St. Petersburg. Many of the prisoners have made a confession of guilt. The press is forbidden to publish details of the trial. It is said that two thousand persons have been arrested in Moscow on suspicion of plotting against the Czar.

A ukase has been issued by the Russian Government ordering that increased vigilance be observed on the frontier to prevent suspicious persons from entering the country. It is supposed that this precaution is taken in view of the approaching coronation of the Czar.

Specie payments have been resumed by the Italian Government and are proceeding regularly.

In the Italian Senate on Wednesday Signor Mancini, Minister of Foreign Affairs, said the sole object of the accord between Italy, Austria, and Germany was the preservation of peace. He emphatically denied that the agreement between these countries was characterized by any spirit of hostility toward France. The Senate must be content to know that Italy withdrew from her former position of isolation. The agreement with the German Powers allowed perfect reciprocity of rights and left a free initiative to each. He also expressed the hope that he should be able to solve the question of the capitulations in Tunis, although it might be unpleasant.

M. Cazot, who was French Minister of Justice under M. Gambetta, has been appointed President of the Court of Cassation. The appointment is regarded as an indication of the tendencies of Prime Minister Ferry.

A despatch from Hong Kong, received in London on Friday, says the French Minister to China had arranged the Tonquin affair satisfactorily in December, but the new French Ministry rejected the arrangements. The result, it is said, will probably be a long and costly war for France.

A project for laying a submarine cable between Spain and Cuba is awaiting the approval of the Cuban Minister of Public Works. It is proposed to lay the cable over a route that will be divided into three sections, the first of which will unite Portugal with the Azore Islands, a distance of 1,000 miles; the second section, to extend to the Bermuda Islands, being 1,700 miles; while the third will terminate at Havana, a distance of 775 miles.

A Franchise Bill introduced by the Canadian Government into the House of Commons on Friday night enacts that adults, sons of qualified farmers and mechanics, shall have a vote. It also provides for female suffrage, giving to spinsters and widows a vote on a property qualification of $400.

News has recently reached this country of a revolution in Hayti on March 27th. At 3 o'clock in the morning of that day a revolutionary party, headed by Boyer Basslay and General Barlow, with 103 men well equipped with Winchester twelve-shooters, landed and took the town of Miragoane without any opposition. On landing, the General assured the people that they had nothing to fear from his party. He made no arrests. To all who joined him he gave Remington rifles. He immediately fortified the town. A telegram, dated April 9, says the uprising was confined to Miragoane, and that the remainder of the people are faithful to President Salomon. The insurgents will probably soon be overthrown.

A Commissioner has been sent from Queensland to take possession of the island of New Guinea as a dependency of Queensland.

Veintimilla, the Dictator of Ecuador, has offered to leave Guyaquil if the Revolutionary Government will appoint him Minister Plenipotentiary to England, with the salary of a field marshal, if his confiscated property be returned to him, and if he be indemnified in the sum of $80,000 for losses he has suffered.

Latest mail advices from Peru report increasing poverty in the country, and no immediate prospect of peace The great fire at Iquique on March 11 destroyed property valued at about $1,000,000.

THE PROPOSED PROTECTIONIST AWAKENING.

THE Bulletin of the American Iron and Steel Association has an article lamenting the ignorance of the voting population of the United States about "the protective policy," and ascribing it to a "variety of causes." These are, "the influence of certain leading New York and Chicago newspapers; the influence of New England colleges, and the scarcity of manufacturing enterprises in the South and West"; and, though last, more potent than all, the fact that "our present generation of voters has come on the stage since 1861, and therefore does not know what the country suffered under the exclusively revenue policy of the preceding fifteen years." The first three of these causes do not seem to us to admit of any remedy. There is but small chance of converting the leading New York and Chicago newspapers to protectionist doctrine, within any reasonable period, at all events. In fact, the tendency seems altogether the other way. We can point to several leading newspapers, in different parts of the country, which were at one time strongly protectionist, but are now either free-traders or warm advocates of a revision of the tariff in the direction of free trade. We do not know of one printed in the English language which has at any time within the last twenty-three years advocated free trade, and now confesses the error of its ways and preaches protection. Moreover, this change is not due in all cases, perhaps not in any case, to the discovery that the original apostles of protection in this country were wrong. On the contrary, it is the logical result of the protectionist doctrine as preached in the United States by a great, if not the greater, number of the early protectionists.

Early protection was protection to "infant" or struggling industries, which by means of protection were eventually to become able to hold their own against foreign competition without protection. The doctrine of absolute and permanent protection, or "the wall of fire" doctrine, was first brought into vogue by Mr. Carey, but though it enjoyed the advocacy of Horace Greeley when his influence was greatest, it never took much root outside of Pennsylvania. The bulk of the people were never anywhere brought to believe that a high tariff is a holy thing, to be cherished as sacred by any community which wishes to be free and prosperous, or that the greatness and happiness of states always depends on the duties they levy on foreign manufactures—like the Pennsylvania fanatic who is firmly persuaded that the decline of Turkey is due solely to free trade. The majority of the American people have always taken the tariff in sober, Anglo-Saxon way, as a political expedient of which, like all other expedients, there may be too little, just enough, or too much, as circumstances may determine. What they said in the beginning was that they would have as much tariff as was necessary to give native manufacturers a fair start, but no more. This is what they say still, and the reason why we see prominent newspapers, once favorable to high tariffs, now recommending the lowering of duties and the enlargement of the free list, is that they think they see that the original object of protection has been partly accomplished; that a large number of American industries are now either wholly or partially capable of meeting foreign competition, and are at present over-protected. This way of looking at the matter will undoubtedly last, and will hereafter produce periodical reductions of the tariff in the free-trade direction. Of this there is no sort of doubt, and our protectionist friends may as well make up their minds to it. The Carey view of the tariff reached its meridian soon after the war. It has every year since been losing what hold it had on the popular mind, and the present condition of public sentiment, which the Iron and Steel Association is deploring, is one of the results of this.

Very much the same thing may be said about the influence of the New England colleges. They simply keep pace with the progress of modern thought, about the tariff as about other things. Protectionists constantly talk as if their system was a product of the American mind, and furnished materials for what they call "American political economy." The fact is it is as old as modern Europe, nearly as old as the Catholic Church. The mediæval states lived on it, and by it, and believed in it more fanatically than any Pennsylvanian. One of the oddest things in its history was its introduction into the United States. It had really as little business here as orders of nobility or an established church. The wonder is not that it is now declining, but that it has held its own so long. Free trade, on the other hand, is only a century old, but it is winning its way slowly, just as the Copernican system and religious toleration won it, and Darwinism is winning it. There is about as much chance of expelling it from the colleges now as of expelling them. The influence of colleges on political thought in this country may be great or little, may grow or decline, but we may be sure the future professors of political economy will all teach freedom of exchange.

It would seem at first sight as if it would be an easy thing for protectionists to enlighten "the young and middle aged men of this generation," whose appreciation of protection is declining, by acquainting them in detail with the horrors of the fifteen years before 1861. The reason why this is not done becomes very plain, however, when one looks at the figures. Between 1850 and 1860 the population grew in the normal American ratio; the exports nearly doubled; the imports nearly doubled (which is more than they have done between 1870 and 1880), and the revenue rose from $40,000,000 in round numbers to over $53,000,000. These are the more prominent indications of national prosperity. The minor ones were equally satisfactory. In fact, the fifteen years before the war were, from the commercial point of view, among the happiest in the national history, and it is not wise for protectionists to call the attention of young or middle-aged men to them.

Nor is there the comfort that the Bulletin thinks there is in the letters which that "strong man of the Tariff Commission" is sending home from England about the condition of the English laboring class. The objection to them is that they suggest a comparison between what England was under the high tariff with what England is under free trade. The contrast which this comparison always presents is the most damaging fact in existence for the protective theory. England, since she gave up the tariff, has sprung into prosperity such as the old protectionists never dreamed of, literally by leaps and bounds. The revenue has risen enormously; wages have risen; the consumption of necessaries and comforts by the working classes has greatly increased; production in every field of industry has grown with amazing strides; pauperism has wonderfully diminished; trade has pushed into remote regions of the globe as never before. Therefore, whatever Mr. Porter does, he must not describe the effect of free trade on the English people during the last forty years.

CONGRESSIONAL FOSTERING OF ART.

THE petition of the American artists resident in Paris, against the duty of thirty per cent. on foreign pictures which has been inserted in our revised tariff, is pathetic reading. They have gone over there to enjoy the benefit of the art collections in the French capital, to which they are cordially welcomed. They receive gratuitous instruction in the French Government School of Fine Arts. They are allowed to copy the old masters in the French museums. Their pictures are freely admitted, and have been liberally honored with prizes in the French exhibitions. More than all, and in this case harder than all to have to tell, many of the leading French painters give private and gratuitous instruction to all Americans desiring to study under them. In apparent return for this we have clapped a virtually prohibitory duty on French pictures, and it is not surprising that the French, in the first moments of irritation, should talk of closing the School of Fine Arts to American students, and of withdrawing the privileges hitherto accorded in their galleries to American artists. What, of course, makes our tax seem all the more marked in its intent is the fact that no other civilized nation imposes it. We are the only civilized people whose Legislature thinks it a good thing to make it difficult for its citizens to see foreign works of art; and it would not be surprising, therefore, if the French thought that we were animated by feelings of savage hostility to their painters.

We are particularly sorry for the American artists in Paris, because on them devolves the task of explaining to foreigners the mental attitude of the American politician toward literature and art, and every one who has ever tried it knows how difficult this is. It is almost impossible to make a Frenchman or German understand how it is that to a large body of our legislators and men in public life, and even to some of our publishers, books and pictures are simply merchandise or things to sell, and not by any means instruments for the improvement of the human mind and the elevation of character; or how it is that to Congress the "manufacture" of books is a much more important interest than the composition of them—

the paper and binding far better worth taking care of than the thinking which finds expression in them—and that, therefore, one well-bound and well-printed book is as good as another, just as one piece of pig-iron is as good as another; or how it is that to the ordinary Congressman a picture is simply so much furniture, like chairs and sofas, used by well-to-do citizens to fill their rooms up, and that, therefore, the use of the native picture ought to be encouraged by the same means which are used to encourage the native carpet and wall-paper. All this can only be explained to a foreigner by persons possessing remarkable powers of exposition, and using their mother tongue. Very few Americans, however well they speak French or German, are sufficiently at home in either language to do it successfully. In some of its aspects, expounding the protectionist Congressional mind to a stranger is very like expounding Kant or Hegel—something which nobody who does not possess extraordinary mental subtlety, combined with remarkable powers of expression, will attempt.

Nor is it easy to overcome the protectionist Congressman by questioning his judgment in matters of art. He is very touchy on this point, and has always maintained that he is as good a judge of a picture or statue as any one in the world, because he maintains that all art is purely imitative, and that he can judge whether a picture resembles what it purports to represent, just as well as he can tell whether a photograph is a good likeness. He consequently does not look with a lenient eye on the practice of going abroad to study art, for he maintains that there is nothing worth imitating that cannot be found on this continent. If an American wants to paint a man, let him paint one of his countrymen from life; if a horse, an American horse; if a house, an American farm-house; and in the earlier stages he can get far more aid from photography than from the instructions of Couture or Meissonier or any monarchical painters. About the value of "the old masters" he is highly sceptical. To him they are "fossils," of no more account than very old men in politics usually are.

In this particular case, we believe, the rise in the duty on foreign pictures was due to a West Virginian farmer—Mr. Boteler of the Tariff Commission—who is deeply impressed with the necessity of building up native art by a judicious use of what has built up so much other native industry. The Commission and the Senate Finance Committee were quite taken with the idea, and adopted it. And we must remember, in extenuation of his folly, that he could now fortify himself by the demands which some of our artists at home make from time to time for protection from foreign competition, and by the extraordinary petition which was signed by some of our authors a few weeks ago asking for a duty on foreign books as a protection against foreign ideas.

All this shows that the tariff, in many minds, has become a sort of American fetish, to which some of us have got into the habit of turning for relief in times of sickness, sorrow, or adversity. When we are suffering from malaria we put up the duty on quinine. If the winter is very severe, we put it up on foreign clothing. If rents are high, we increase it on lumber and nails and paint; if we are startled by popular ignorance or illiteracy, we raise it on books, and paper, and printers' materials. If we want more railroads we raise it on iron. If we sigh for more art in our lives and homes, we increase the duty on pictures, or engravings and statuary. In fact, no African fetish or Italian saint's image has harder work to do for its worshippers than our tariff has to do for some unhappy or unsuccessful Americans.

FIRST IMPRESSIONS OF NEW ORLEANS.

New Orleans, March 21, 1883.

The cisterns in New Orleans are the first things that catch the eye of a stranger. They are well-nigh as lofty as the houses, and almost ornamental. Covered at top with a canopy rising in a pinnacle, and festooned below, as well as gayly painted, they have some resemblance to Oriental kiosks or pagodas. In fact, they are such a necessity that they might naturally be venerated with religious homage. The Mississippi, polluted by the offscourings of a hundred cities, is so unfit to drink that horror of whiskey is driven out by greater horror of water. Cisterns cannot be subterranean lest the poisonous water which saturates the soil should leak into them.

In every point of view water in New Orleans is a curiosity. Walking out on my first morning there, I asked, "Which way is the river?" The answer was, "Look at the water in the gutters; it always flows away from the river." The vast current permeates the levee and pushes countless streamlets through it. These waters course across the city to Lake Pontchartrain, and sometimes glide as swiftly as the living streams in German Freyburg and Salt Lake City, for their starting-point is ten feet above the sea-level. But on arriving at the Lake they are lower than its surface, and would generate an infinite Slough of Despond and disease were they not pumped up by steam engines and thrown over the dike into salt water. Unfortunately the contents in many gutters are stagnant, and hence become mothers of malaria fatal to everything but mules and mulattoes. It is still remembered to the credit of General Butler that to all such plague spots he sent men with wheelbarrows of lime for disinfection, a sanitary step not often taken now.

"Boston ice," a survival from old times, is not uncommon on signs, but the home-made article is now much superior. A single factory daily turns out a hundred tons in winter, and half as many in summer, which is retailed at forty cents a hundred. It is manufactured from distilled water in lumps four feet long and one broad. No glass is clearer. Frozen in one of these masses I saw a bouquet—a red rose, with four yellow ones round it forming a cross, and all in the ring of a wreath of violets. All were as plainly seen as within a case of French crystal.

The rush and span of the river when at its fullest bring conviction to every b holder who has read incredulously that its volume equals the output of all the rivers in Europe. But the levee, slight as a railroad grading, low and faced with boards thin and half of them rotten, seems to a stranger ready to yield to the wash of the waves, and begging some almighty power to say: "Hitherto shall ye come, but no further." He looks to the mammoth steamers moored along the shore as arks, in which he may be glad to seek refuge from a general deluge. Houses of the old type seem with reason raised on stilts or posts ten feet from the ground.

But if earthworks appear frail, those of stone do not. It would be hard to mention more massive structures anywhere than the Custom-house and the St. Charles Hotel. No pavements are of more ponderous blocks. In this region, where no stone bigger than an orange was native, the better building stuff was largely brought as ballast by ships from Boston coming for cotton and sugar. After all, the percentage of wooden houses with balloon frames is enormous, probably no less than in Chicago before the fire, when it was still nicknamed "shanty town," and greater than it could be here did not the houses stand too far apart for fire to spread. "Far apart" in truth are the houses of the Crescent City. No place of its population, as I think, covers so many acres. The distances would be still more magnificent in the estimation of tourists but for an excellent system of street cars, many of which run between double lines of over-arching trees.

The front yards of New Orleans are its most fascinating feature. For many a mile along Prytania, St. Charles, and other avenues every man does his best to surpass his neighbor in the outside show of flowers, shrubbery, and semi-tropical trees. The result is that the pilgrim who has left a foot of snow in Wisconsin, here rides for hours where he fancies himself in a conservatory like Alexander Mitchell's magnified a million times. The houses are painted as bright as the flowers; those without pillared porches in every story, suggestive of life in the open air, are the exceptions, and the palings, whether of wood or iron, are open lattices, which do not obstruct the view. But whenever I wished to make a call I found it impossible to open the front gate and that it was fast locked. Closer inspection showed me on the gate the bell and name plate which in other cities are attached to doors, while the door itself lacked these appendages, for the same reason that Mammoth Cave crawfish lack eyes. On asking the reason of this custom, in such sharp contrast to the recent throwing down of fences in Northern towns, I was told that fortifying outworks were necessary as a safeguard against tramps, alike thievish freedmen and poor white trash, who secrete themselves in every nook, watching for plunder without if not within.

The gardens in the city made me desirous of seeing the suburban plantations. These were laid out, like the farms of *habitans* on the St. Lawrence, with a narrow river front but very deep, perhaps to give all a chance for water transport, though this style of arranging lots may have been adopted in order that the settlers, dwelling in social compactness, might enjoy a mass every morning and then a dance every night. Crossing with a single oarsman the brimming river, a mile wide and more than 100 feet deep, at the suburb of Carrollton I visited the orangery of Major Rountree. Its frontage is about 700 feet, its depth a mile and a half. The trees are 7,200—each a rod from its neighbor. The sour orange, as more hardy, is planted, and on that stock all desired varieties are engrafted. After many experiments and observations the owner prefers to raise the Jaffa rather than any other orange. During my own travels in Spain, Sicily, Italy, and Palestine, I nowhere saw orange orchards so luxuriant as in Jaffa. Wheat there grew between the trees, but Major R.'s intermediate crops are of cabbages and cucumbers. His boss, who has served him eight years, is black, and all his hands are of the same color.

Fourteen good school-houses have been built out of the bequest of McDonogh, and great hopes are entertained from the bounty of Tulane. Yet I see conclusive proofs that people who can ill afford to pay tuition send their children to private schools and not to public. In the Straight University, delightfully situated on the shady and spacious esplanade, I see more than three

hundred colored scholars, and am told that I should see a hundred more out of Lent. Seventeen of the Freshmen have made fair progress in the 'Anabasis.' No other university, so far as I know, admits students at so early an age, for I meet some here who are just entering their fifth year of life.

Among suburban retreats, Spanish Fort and West End, on the lake, are charming, and easily reached by dummy cars. Within the heart of the city, before the Cathedral and in other quarters, parks each of one single block in extent are not wanting. In one of these, Lafayette Square, there is a noble statue of Franklin leaning on an oak riven by lightning. It looked doubly lifelike when I saw it the other evening illuminated by electric light, waking as it were to newness of life to rejoice in a new application of his discovery. It is poetical justice that electric devices do their best in homage to their father. Franklin's back is turned on the City Hall. He may be thought to have taken that attitude in scorn of the city library, which it is not pretended contains more than 15,000 volumes, has now no appropriation for its increase or support, and shows very few readers. Worse than this. Certain manuscript records, relating to early State history, obtained from France, and carried off to Wisconsin as spoils of war, but restored by the Historical Society of that State to Louisiana, have been valued so lightly that they are now lost, and the venerable historian Gayarré laments to me that the historic jewels ever returned from their Northern captivity.

Yet, taking it for all in all, I am sanguine regarding New Orleans. Its drawbacks are eddies, its progress must be like the stream of its matchless river. Before experience I could not believe it would show to me, who saw it last of our twenty-five foremost towns, so much both new and notable as I have daily here beheld. Notwithstanding, while having both hands full of discoveries, I can only open my little finger.

J. D. B.

MR. BRIGHT AT GLASGOW UNIVERSITY.

LONDON, April 2, 1883.

THE four Universities of Scotland have retained an interesting piece of mediæval usage in the election of their respective Lord Rectors by the votes of the students. The Lord Rector is a purely ornamental officer, who has neither to teach nor to rule the University; his powers are confined to the nomination of an assessor to sit in the University court, a small body which administers the financial affairs and chooses the professors. Thus the habit grew up in the end of last and beginning of this century of choosing eminent men quite unconnected with the University, and perhaps with any university, to the office of Lord Rector. It is now a purely honorary distinction, whose recipient has nothing to do except to appear once during his term of office (formerly one year, now three years) and deliver an address to the students. Many notable people, statesmen, philosophers, men of science or of letters, have filled the post, and some of their addresses, like those of Brougham and Macaulay at Glasgow, of Thomas Carlyle and Mr. Gladstone at Edinburgh, of John Stuart Mill and the late Dean of Westminster at St. Andrew's, possess a permanent literary value. At present, in the dearth of eminent philosophers and littérateurs, there is a tendency to choose persons distinguished in public life, politicians. It seldom happens that a rector, whether a politician or not, is elected without a contest. The Liberal and Tory parties are both organized, and indeed well organized, in the Scotch Universities, and the contests, which begin a week or so before the voting day, are carried on with great spirit. Meetings of the students are held, speeches are delivered, handbills are profusely distributed. On the Continent of Europe political clubs among university students are forbidden, and though they exist in Oxford and Cambridge, the undergraduates have no sort of share in university government, still less of bringing political partisanship into it. However, no substantial harm occurs in Scotland, unless it be thought an evil that youths of sixteen should pledge themselves to views which they may afterward wish to forsake. The result—that these elections often turn on political grounds, so that persons not of an academical type are raised to an academical office—is not really mischievous, because the office itself has so little to do that any deficiencies in its holder do not injure the University. In fact, as regards the students, it exists only to enable them to play at electioneering once in three years (not such a useless part of their education), while to the rest of the world it gives a morning's entertainment in the address which the Rector delivers, and which is, of course, published in all our newspapers.

Mr. Bright was more than a year ago chosen Lord Rector of Glasgow University, and a few days ago he was formally invested with the dignity, and gave his address. He is as unacademical a personage as a really eminent and cultivated man can be, for his cultivation is entirely of the modern and domestic English type. He never was at a university, and at school learned little of Latin and of Greek—mere scraps, which have long since perished. He has not given evidence of having studied the literature of any Continental country, while for physical science he seems to have no interest or knowledge beyond what every intelligent man who lives in an age of inventions must have. What he does care for and has diligently and lovingly studied is modern English literature, and especially Milton and the poets who have followed him down to our own time. They are no mean instrument of training, and their influence is often felt in the correct and finished diction of his speeches. Observations upon them, or upon that art of oratory which he has cultivated with such conspicuous success, would have had a great interest for our public as well as for his University audience, and it was hoped that his address would contain something of the kind. However, he probably thought that his way of studying poetry was not a sufficiently critical or erudite way for a set discourse on an academical occasion, and he therefore fell back on the topic with which his mind seems to be always filled, the moral responsibilities of nations, and the aims toward which their efforts ought to be directed. His speech was a recapitulation of the mischiefs done, in Great Britain especially, by a warlike and aggressive policy in times past, and an earnest appeal to forsake all such objects in the future, and concentrate the activities of statesmanship on reducing the burden of taxation and improving the condition of the poor. It is an understood thing that rectorial addresses are to have no political complexion; and Mr. Bright repeatedly protested that he was not speaking as a politician, and desired his censures to be taken as applying to both our parties alike. However, as the doctrines he enunciated were the same as his platform and House of Commons speeches have always contained, and as peace and retrenchment are the constant watchwords of the Liberal party—national honor and greatness, of the Conservatives—his effort to appear non-political had a very moderate success. The ideas of the address were not new, and could not be. There was not even much novelty in his way of stating them. Such effect and impressiveness as the address had, it derived partly from that sustained elevation of style which Mr. Bright, almost alone among our orators, possesses, partly from the obvious earnestness of the speaker, and the consistency with which, during a long and active life, he has maintained the same doctrines—maintained them just as faithfully and even more vehemently when they exposed him to obloquy and defeat, as now, when they obtain a more general adhesion. It is this fact, and the circumstance that he should make so solemn a deliverance of his mind in a capacity which no one could ever have predicted for him in his earlier days—that of nominal head of a seat of classical and scientific learning, founded by a Pope in the fifteenth century—that give their interest to the speech and the occasion.

The reception accorded to the address was significant of the position Mr. Bright has now reached. Thirty years ago he was regarded as *par excellence* the popular and Democratic leader, and, therefore, a dangerous man, a revolutionary. His opposition to the Crimean war in 1854 made him very unpopular. His opposition to Lord Palmerston's Chinese war in 1857 cost him his seat for Manchester. He was denounced as a man thoroughly unpatriotic, devoid of a sense of the honor and dignity of England; a manufacturer, who, to sell his goods, would have the country submit to any humiliation. He was also represented as the enemy of property and education; the man who sought to hand over all political power to the ignorant masses. In fact, he had become the typical demagogue, against whose designs the *Saturday Review*, then rather a Liberal than a Conservative organ, and by no means the organ of Toryism which it has now become, used every week to warn its readers. When, some fifteen years ago, Thomas Carlyle, being chosen Lord Rector of the University of Edinburgh, delivered an address, very eloquent and solemn, to the students, upon those virtues of silence which he celebrated so much more in precept than illustrated in practice, *Punch* appeared with a cartoon in which the Sage of Chelsea was represented sitting alone, with his cloak wrapped round him, in an attitude of pensive dignity, while John Bright, on the other side of the picture, and labelled "Brummagem," was declaiming to a vulgar crowd.

Since those days the fame of the Chelsea Sage, not indeed as a writer, but as a moral teacher, has declined, while that of the "Birmingham Demagogue" has steadily risen. The change took place about the year 1867, when the suffrage, for whose extension Mr. Bright had agitated, was extended by the Tory Reform Bill further than he had demanded, and was completed when he was induced, not without some pressure, to join Mr. Gladstone's Government in 1868. He had now stepped into the ranks of responsible statesmen, and become one of those who were accused by brother Radicals of not going far enough, and of being too much enslaved to the property-holding classes, too slow to gratify popular demands. People began to discover, what those who observed him closely had known long ago, that he was anything but a destructive, being indeed deeply attached to the Constitution of England, with its ancient traditions, a friend to the Crown, and jealous of the honor and privileges of the House of Commons. Moreover, the fear and dislike of the Conservative party had begun to find another object. Mr. Gladstone became, on Lord Palmerston's death in 1865, the virtual leader of the Liberal party, and his increasing Liberalism and incessant activity drew upon him most of his opponents' fire. The more dangerous Mr. Gladstone seemed to become, the less spe-

cially dangerous did Mr. Bright appear, the rather as he had now ceased to be an agitator, and, when he spoke, spoke as one of Mr. Gladstone's colleagues. Many of the measures he had advocated, such as the disestablishment of the Episcopal Church in Ireland, vote by ballot, the abolition of church rates, were carried—concessions which showed that he had been right all along. Meantime, he himself was growing older, a circumstance which is doubly in favor of an eminent man: firstly, because people become more interested in him and prouder of him as a part of their national history; secondly, because he seems less formidable when the term of his activity is drawing toward its close. Nor must it be forgotten that although the free-trade struggle, in which his first triumphs were won, has begun to fade from the memories of this generation, his views on foreign policy, his protests against war and annexations, have found favor with an increasingly large section of the people. Thus, from being the best-abused man in England, he has now stepped into the place of an aged worthy, whose speeches every one hears or reads with admiration, and all the more because he speaks so rarely; whose fame is almost national property; and the purity of whose motives is not impugned even by those who question his proposals.

This appeared in the treatment his rectorial deliverances have received. Some newspapers called his doctrines unpractical; others remarked that they had been often advanced by him before; but every, or nearly every, organ was respectful and friendly. Next to Mr. Gladstone himself, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain has now become the pet aversion of the Conservative party, and Mr. Bright has little further hostility to fear. He always speaks now as if he belonged rather to the past than the present. He is retrospective, and seldom fails to celebrate the glories of the old free-trade struggle; he is not prospective, and does not grapple with the problems of the future. Indeed, he remarked at Glasgow that the topics of political strife in England seemed to be getting exhausted—a hopeful view which few men in England will share. The doctrine of non-intervention, which he advocated so earnestly, is so far from being generally accepted that it is not even held by a majority of the Liberal party: we are likely to have many party struggles in future over foreign and colonial affairs. Other questions, regarding the land, the Established Church, the readjustment of political power, are already rising above the horizon, and are sufficient to occupy politicians and provide matter for angry controversy for thirty years at least to come. It is a misfortune for England that no statesman of that old Puritan type which Mr. Bright embodies is rising up; no one who combines so much reverence for the Constitution and so austere a view of national morality with such warm popular sympathies. The radicalism of the younger generations—for two generations younger than his have now appeared on the stage—is a different thing from his, and, if wider in its intellectual outlook, is hardly so high and pure in its tone.

Y.

GERMAN ARMY AND NAVY INTRIGUES.

BERLIN, March 25, 1883.

THE sudden change in the Secretaryship of War and the Navy still occupies the public interest, but is shrouded in deep official mystery. Such an event, if not brought about by a Parliamentary defeat or by a political revolution, ordinarily does not produce much excitement; but in the present instance the resignation of two prominent public men is followed up in all its real and imagined details, and deserves something more than a mere passing notice, even in a foreign paper. This case lays open to all the world the poor beginnings of our constitutional life, and forms a very instructive chapter in modern German politics. To characterize its bearing in a few words, it is the triumph of military martinets, of the absolutistic system of old army notions over the modern views of constitutional and military policy.

General Kameke—to begin with him—was the successor of Marshal Roon, and has for ten years been Secretary of War. While Roon was a fighting character, passionate and impetuous, always ready to insist upon his own and the army's prerogatives, and bent upon picking a quarrel at every opportunity, Kameke was of a propitiating and mild disposition, who never went to extremes and always found means to reconcile opposite aims and contrary views. Thus during his whole career as Minister of War he never had a difficulty with the Reichstag, and by his winning manners effected more than others could obtain by brusque threats and intimidation. Although the Reichstag has only to deal with the Secretary of War, there is besides him a military cabinet under the immediate control of the Emperor. In a great many questions, especially in those respecting personal matters and promotions of generals, it is more powerful than the Minister, who, although the superior of the chief of that cabinet, must, notwithstanding, try to get along with him as well as he can. The present incumbent of the latter, General Albedyll, is a special favorite of the Emperor, and at the same time one of the leaders of that ultra-conservative wing of old soldiers who despise everything which is not absolute in its tendencies, and accuse of high treason all those who have an opinion of their own in military matters and dare to pronounce it. To these gentlemen the Emperor is the sole master of the army, and his generals are but servants carrying out his orders. General Albedyll is a very subaltern character, a pliant tool and a type of a whole class, which regards drill and parading as the gist and real essence of military life—one of those generals who, when in 1871 they came back from France, cried out, as if relieved: "Heavens be thanked that the sport of war is over, and that we can now return to the earnest of life."

Under the influence of the late war and the victories brought about by the people in arms, this party among the higher officers had not been able to obtain a majority in the Emperor's councils; but since Bismarck has joined it it has gained ascendancy from day to day, until at last it felt strong enough to offer battle to its opponents. The pretext under which hostilities were commenced was a very shallow one. Kameke, in the eyes of these ultra-conservatives, had not shown pluck enough in his dealings with the Reichstag; the first attacks, therefore, were directed against him. Some six weeks ago the Government had introduced a bill into that body, according to which the pensions of army officers were to be increased. The Reichstag in principle did not object, but as a consideration for its approval demanded that the officers henceforth should pay local taxes on their incomes, like all other citizens and civil officers. This demand was refused by the Government. Finally, however, a compromise was arrived at by which military officers were bound to pay local taxes on their private property only. General Kameke quite unequivocally expressed himself in favor of this compromise, and it was universally expected that thus narrowed down the bill would pass. This reckoning, however, was made without the Emperor. The army is his hobby, and the older the old gentleman grows (he was the other day eighty-six years old), the less he tolerates even the slightest opposition in army matters. The military clique around him very adroitly availed itself of these feelings. They frightened him with tales of an interference of the Reichstag with the internal affairs of the army; of signs of independence and even opposition among generals; and of Kameke's alliance with the Liberal parties, which of course did not exist. Consequently a military conference was called in which—the Emperor presiding—Marshal Moltke, Pape, the commanding general of the guards, Stosch, the Chief of the Admiralty, and Albedyll, the Chief of the Military Cabinet, participated, and in which the above question of local taxes was discussed. Stosch was the only member who spoke on Kameke's side in favor of the compromise; but the majority concluded to reject it, although the Government was bound to it by the official declaration of one of its ministers. Nothing, of course, now remained for Kameke to do but to resign, for besides not having been invited to the conference, he was openly disfavored, and as a gentleman could not stand such an insult. The respect and the regard of the independent men of all parties followed him into his retirement.

It was for a time very difficult to find a successor. General Blumenthal, in 1866 and 1870 the Chief of Staff of the Crown Prince's armies, politely declined and pleaded old age. Quartermaster-General Waldersee, ambitious as he is, nevertheless preferred to bide his time, apprehending that under the old Emperor he would hold his office for too short a time; and consequently spares himself for future emergencies. Finally General Bronsart was appointed. He is said to be a very able and even superior officer who distinguished himself in the last war. The principal question, however, is, whether he has an idea of what is expected of him, and whether he has backbone enough to resist any undue influence. The reactionary clique which has carried his nomination longs for a new conflict, in order to make itself still more indispensable and to have the army under its thumb. I apprehend that the new Minister will submit to its dictates.

Another interesting fact which is connected with this new appointment is the change which has taken place in the position of the Chief of the Military Cabinet. This officer has thus far been unknown to the Reichstag, as he was a subordinate of the Secretary of War. Now, since the accession of General Bronsart to power, and by a decree of the Emperor, he occupies a coördinate position with the Secretary. The Imperial decree, being in opposition to the letter and spirit of the Constitution, will of course not fail to provoke the attacks of the Reichstag and engender new disagreement and strife.

General Stosch was not, like Kameke, compelled to resign, but for substantial reasons preferred to do so. His department was not directly concerned in the decision which was rendered in the pension matter, and besides he had been invited to give his vote. If, nevertheless, this deserving officer sent in his resignation, it was provoked by other considerations. As Chief of the Admiralty General Stosch was under the direct orders of the Emperor, while in the routine and administrative business he was only subject to the Chancellor. This arrangement has always been against Prince Bismarck's wishes, who, for the reason that he alone was responsible to the Reichstag (what a sort of responsibility!), wanted to treat him like all his subordinates. On this point, however, the Emperor did not yield, while he had no objection to the other occupants of the highest Imperial offices being only Assistant Secretaries of State under Bismarck, partly with the title of Minister, but at all events the inferiors of the Chancellor. Thus far the Emperor perseveringly stood on the side of Stosch

and frustrated all Bismarck's plans to remove him. In the new situation, however, Bismarck allied himself with the reactionary military clique and availed himself of the favorable prospects offered by Kameke's resignation. Stosch, on the other hand, understood at once the sudden change. His resignation, sent in on March 14, was refused by the Emperor in the most flattering terms, so that Stosch was induced to withdraw it. Then Bismarck stepped in again, and in a long memorial most uncouthly declared that politically he could and would not be responsible for the administration of General Stosch. A similar insult has probably seldom been offered by one minister and one member of the Cabinet to another. General Stosch thereupon at once sent in his second resignation, in which he energetically remonstrated against Prince Bismarck, and which, on March 20, was finally accepted by the Emperor.

The discharged minister is a prominent organizing officer, who has been the real creator of the German navy, an upright and energetic man. His former subordinates think very highly of him, and deplore his loss. I do not believe that he will be doomed to inactivity and leisure forever. To the great mortification and regret of all our navy officers, an infantry general has been appointed his successor—a gentleman by the rather uncommon name of Concha di Caremba Caprivi Caprara di Montecuculi. His father was a prominent criminal jurist and an able judge of the Prussian Supreme Court, and his mother the daughter of a president of a Berlin college, so that from the full and high-sounding name of General Leo von Caprivi you cannot conclude on Abruzzian or Sierra-Nevadan origin. The new minister is comparatively young (born in 1831) and has a splendid record as Chief of Staff of the Tenth Army Corps during the last war. Whether he will be able to master the details of his new department as quickly and thoroughly as General Stosch, remains to be seen; but so much is certain, that for the present he can only be the executive tool of Bismarck and the Military Cabinet.

Admiral Batsch, the first in command after General Stosch, and an old, experienced sailor, felt especially hurt at the nomination of an outsider like General Caprivi, and sent in his resignation. Having belonged to the navy from the first, and enjoying the confidence of all his comrades, he might have expected not to be altogether overlooked. The Emperor, however, appealed to the patriotism of the old tar, who thereupon withdrew his resignation.*

As far as I am able to judge the present situation, Bismarck, surrounded as he is by scores of self-created difficulties, has no other means left to carry through his plans than to send home the Reichstag and appeal to the people for a new one. A popular pretext for doing so will easily be found. The charge of indifference of the Reichstag to the army, and of the narrow-mindedness of its majority toward the heroic defenders of the country, will find so strong an echo in the heart of the old Emperor and among the peasantry that it may secure an ephemeral success for Bismarck's policy. That there is a certain method in driving the army into wild passions and animosities is evident from many signs. These stratagems are the more to be deplored as they are perfectly uncalled for, and as the soldiers do their duty much better without them. Thus, on the Emperor's last birthday, a Colonel Rosenberg, the commander of the Zieten Hussars, addressed his regiment in the following style: "Hussars, our Emperor is the truest and best patriot of all. I am sorry to say that in his devotion and solicitude to render his people happy, he is often checked by his opposing subjects. On this day we will again resolve not only to protect the beloved Emperor against enemies from abroad, but also to suppress those who at home try to embitter the last years of his life. The day will come when you will change your soldier's calling for civil duties; but always remember that you will best honor your noble regiment by always fighting against the enemies of your Emperor." Now, there is no people in the world that, often to meanness, is more loyal to its dynasty than the Prussian. I am sure that the soldiers did not understand one word of the Colonel's harangue. However that may be, Bismarck is not fastidious in the selection of his means, and, if need be, he will choose other pretexts for carrying out his plans. An accident may just as well help him; a budget or internal-revenue question may finally better suit him. It is his old custom to have half-a-dozen arrows on his string. Perhaps he will avail himself of all of them in the arraignment of the Reichstag. †††

* He has again tendered it.—Ed. Nation.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF GEORGE SAND.—II.

Paris, March 26, 1883.

Madame Sand received the confidences of many persons unknown to her. She was very conscientious in her character of spiritual adviser, though her spiritual advice was not always very good. She had herself very early been led astray from the straight road, and she had wandered among many doctrines and many strange men. As a novel-writer, she had not had any doctrine; she had recognized the legitimacy of passion, but had never understood that passion must be made obedient to certain rules. She loved nature with a pure love; she was in a certain sense religious, but she did not like any established religion. She writes to Mlle. de Chantepie, who was a good Catholic: "I do not believe in the Catholic institution, and any fixed form in the practice of worship seems to me an obstacle between God and the soul. . . . You form for yourself too narrow an idea of God, and you only see in him a judge in the image of man. . . . Your brain must be ill; I have often bade you change your locality by travel. Go to Paris, shake off this sad melancholy, which has nothing in it agreeable to the Divinity or useful to mankind." The purest sentiment in Madame Sand was her affection for her children. She had made herself a botanist to please Maurice; she collected plants and shells for him, and helped him in his classifications. She made him also a writer: Maurice composed a book, called 'Masques et Bouffons,' on the traditional characters of Italian comedy, with fine engravings. A copy was sent to King Victor Emmanuel, by the kindness of Prince Napoleon, who was Victor Emmanuel's son-in-law. "This book," says Madame Sand to the Prince, "is homage rendered to Italian genius, and it has a right to be placed at the feet of the Liberator of Italy." You see what a courtier she was becoming. Speaking of the *re galantuomo*, "The terrible hero!" she says to Prince Napoleon; "he has forced me to give up the idea of a united Italian republic! Before so much patriotism, courage, loyalty, simplicity (and simplicity is the mark of true greatness), all theories are wrong: the heart is taken by force—and it is the heart which governs the world."

It is rather surprising to find Alexandre Dumas, jr., the sceptic, among the persons who are under the spiritual guidance of Madame Sand. I doubt if he was very docile; at any rate, she talks to him like a father—she even explains to him that he must not take too much iron (in 1860 Alexandre Dumas seems to have been unwell). Iron, in certain forms, she observes, merely becomes ink in the stomach, and can do no good; he must only take a certain salt of iron, and she gives the formula. Then comes the spiritual advice: "Our great evil is excitement; but it would be another to suppress it altogether, for we are not made like birds and positivists, and the total absence of emotion, of work, even of fatigue, throws us into atony, the greatest enemy of our organization. . . . Medication and absolute repose kill us." Dumas had been complaining of being discouraged. "Don't say so to anybody but me; think of all the jealous people who would rub their hands. The jealous people means everybody—not only professional rivals, but the lazy, the incapable, who suffer when they see you leading a triumphant and brilliant life; it means the whole public, which is ungrateful, and which likes to see you suffer after having applauded you, and which will applaud you still, if you resist." She calls him "the spoiled child of destiny"; and there is much truth in the expression.

Madame Sand had, in the latter part of her life, become very fond of science; she found in it a new source of inspiration. She read the whole of Humboldt's 'Cosmos'; she read often what she did not understand—it was enough for her to find in some descriptions of natural phenomena a certain color, a certain beauty of which she was ignorant. Her descriptions of natural scenery become more precise. There are some charming pictures of the neighborhood of Tamaris, on the southern coast of France, where she spent some time with Maurice in the winter of 1861: "The solid Aleppo pines, with their majestic parasol, and the rough cork-trees, are not shaken by the tempests, . . . nor, in spite of these, are the olive-trees more or less pale. Among these insensible trees, the real spring plants begin to smile. The tamarisks, the purple and red anemones cover the soil, and the orchids flower in the shade."

While she was at Tamaris there was some question of giving her the "prix Gobert" of the Academy. Several members of this body had put her name forward for this prize, but the majority of the Academy was not in her favor, not finding her novels sufficiently moral. The Emperor Napoleon, hearing of this, spoke of giving Madame Sand some sort of compensation. She wrote on this delicate subject, May 11, 1861, to a friend in Paris: "Buloz [the editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*], who has not always a clear style, writes to me that somebody came to see him and asked him to sound me in order to know if I would accept from the Emperor a compensation, offered in an honorable manner, and equivalent to the Academy's prize, in case this should not be given to me. I have answered that I desired absolutely nothing; but I have charged Buloz to present my refusal under the form of very sincere and very grateful thanks." She is afraid, however, that her answer may be twisted by the intermediary, and she charges Prince Napoleon, her friend, to make it for her in these terms: "I put no foolish pride, no party spirit, no shade of ingratitude in my refusal. If I were ill, infirm, and in a state of poverty, I would perhaps ask of him for myself what I have often asked of the Empress and the ministers for unfortunate people. But I am well, I work, and I have no needs." She ends by thanking the Emperor for the interest he manifests in her case. I note this incident in order to show well what the relations of Madame Sand with the Empire had become in 1861: the spirit of opposition was broken; she kept aloof, but she was no longer hostile; she even felt a very great friendship for Prince Napoleon. She called Princess Mathilde an "excellent Princess"; she was, indeed, not very far from Sainte-Beuve's state of mind, who had accepted the Second

Empire as a form of democracy, and who disliked all the statesmen who represented the "ancient parties," the Legitimacy and the constitutional monarchy of 1830. "Les extrêmes se touchent," says a French proverb: Napoleon I. had changed the surviving Jacobins into mute and obedient Senators; and even now I could find many Bonapartists of the Second Empire among the most ardent advocates and supporters of the Third Republic.

Maurice Sand joined Prince Napoleon in a journey which the latter made to Oran, Cadiz, Lisbon, and the United States. During his absence, his mother was working at her Memoirs, and organizing a small theatre at Nohant. She was tired of the great theatres and of the tyranny of the public, the directors, the press; she had her own plan of a free theatre, without any conventionalities, without any public, except a few sympathizing friends. It was a method for giving life and movement to her dreams—something much better than a novel, as a drama is life itself, without the tedious descriptions. The theatre of Nohant was, so to speak, the last fancy, the last passion of this imaginative and creative genius. Her attempt was, in one sense, successful, and in another sense it was vain. It was successful in so far as it procured her very great enjoyment, and peopled the solitude of her country house with the creatures of her fancy. It was vain inasmuch as nothing can live without rules. The theatre does not escape the general law. The public is a necessary element in all theatrical representations; the limitations imposed by the stage are also necessities; a drama must have a beginning and an end; it must obey a certain law of development. The dramatic faculty was not sufficiently developed in Madame Sand, and instead of trying to improve, she tried to escape from the rules of the dramatic art.

We find her becoming interested, while her son was in America, in Channing, in Emerson. She says of Emerson: "He is a philosopher, at the same time a critic, a metaphysician, a vast intelligence—a little obscured by too many divergent lights, but sublime; it is impossible to deny it." She studies Channing, and admires his doctrine. She does not accept everything. Channing says that "the individual is more than the state; that he is not made to devote himself, to sacrifice himself, to the state; that the state is made to devote itself to him, to protect him; the state is instituted to guarantee and to respect the rights of the individual." Mme. Sand sees egotism at the root of this doctrine. How, she asks, "can we all be free, absolutely speaking, if we are not all perfect?" "Be perfect," would answer Channing; "love each other." This seems to her an impossible ideal; she belongs instinctively to the school of Rousseau, who sinks the individual in the state. This doctrine leads to despotism in democracy, though Madame Sand would not have recognized it. She never fixed herself completely on any formula; she gathered her honey from all flowers. She writes to Dumas, *fils* (November 7, 1861):

"At your age, I was as tormented, as sick as you are, morally and physically. Tired of looking into myself and into others, I said one fine morning, 'This is all one to me. The universe is great and fine. What we think important is so fugitive that it is not worth while to think about it. There are only two or three true and serious things in life, and these things, so clear and so easy, are precisely the things which I have ignored and disdained, *mea culpa!* But I have been punished for my folly. I have suffered as much as it is possible to suffer. I ought to be pardoned. Let us make our peace with the good God.'"

She adds this: "If my pride had been incurable, it would have been all over with me; but I had what you have, the notion of good and of evil, a thing which is becoming rare in our time, and I did not adore myself, and I have forgotten myself." To forget one's self! Here we see Madame Sand come back to the morality of the 'Imitation of Christ.' Her religion was vague and undeveloped, but the little flame was always there under the cinders. When a child is born to her beloved son Maurice, she writes a very curious letter to M. Leblois, a Protestant minister of Strasbourg. Her son had been only civilly married, but when a boy was born to him, Maurice, Madame Sand, and the mother (probably the mother more than the two others) felt a sort of remorse. "We asked ourselves all three if the child could be educated in the vague religious aspirations which may be sufficient in the age of reason, or if we should not try, in order to prepare him to become a complete man, to attach him to a faith, idealistic, sentimental, and rational? But where are we to find a faith sufficiently formulated to be placed at the disposition of a child? We sought it in Protestantism, chiefly because it is a protest against the Roman tyranny." She then makes objections: there are things in the French Protestant Church which she cannot admit, but she has read his sermons, and she asks him to celebrate the religious marriage of her son Maurice, and to baptize her grandson. She puts questions, being ignorant of the Protestant world; she hopes his Church is not intolerant, at the same time she feels that something definite must be taught the child. She does not believe in very small churches: they are too narrow, too powerless; she wants something very large, very human, and at the same time very divine. The letter shows a singular ignorance of theological matters. The truth is, that Madame Sand had been educated as a Catholic. As, in politics, her ideal was the state above the individual, in religion, though she protested against Rome, and spoke of the Papacy with a singular horror, she had no other ideal than a *catholic* church, in the Greek sense of the word. She was a rebel, but wished to be a slave; she felt the impotence of her own nature, and longed for a rule.

Her letters to Prince Napoleon become very numerous in this fourth volume. We see in all of them this same tendency—social progress, political progress, must be forced on the people. The Prince is slowly assuming in her eyes the proportions of a Providence: she expects everything from him, as he is enlightened and progressive. She constantly warns him against priests and priestcraft. Her nature was flexible: she occasionally writes still a line to some old Republican friend, but had evidently lost all hope of a republic. She wanted now a substitute for it, a liberal empire. Prince Napoleon was her ideal Emperor. The fourth volume of this correspondence brings us to the end of 1864; the last years of the Second Empire and the war of 1870 will probably not be wanting in interest.

Correspondence.

A SAMPLE OF THE TARIFF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your readers may be interested in an extract from a letter just received from an American artist in France as follows:

"I heard from one of my friends, a very well-known painter here, on the jury of the Salon, who, writing to tell us of our fate in general, says: 'The two pictures by X—— have been received as No. 3. His large one richly merited a No. 2, but I could do nothing, and it fell to a 3. Why? I don't know. But the fact is, there is a strong feeling against the Americans—America has voted a law imposing a tax upon imported paintings by foreign artists of more than 33 per cent., which is practical prohibition, and is regarded in Paris as a veritable infamy. The Americans, and probably all foreigners (if the law is not changed at the next session of Congress), will be immediately expelled from all the private French studios, from the École des Beaux-Arts, and from the Salon. This is fully decided upon.'"

The American goes on to add: "What a shame to see our country, with a revenue so large that she does not know what to do with it, taking off the duties on rum and putting them on to Millet."

If we consider what an inestimable advantage these privileges give to our artists, the liberality with which the French Government has extended them, and the fact that even the retaliation is hardly worse for ourselves than the original provision, it makes one blush not so much for the country as for that which calls itself a government.

G. B.

Boston, April 14, 1883.

QUESTIONABLE ADVERTISING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Special Report No. 56 of the United States Department of Agriculture, pages 60-62, I find a contribution headed "Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Saint Louis and Chicago Railway, 'Kankakee Line,'" from the pen of Charles S. La Follette, the Western passenger agent of the line, and consisting of a description of the route and connections of the railway. The policy of special reports by persons outside the Department has, I believe, been productive of good results in some cases, and the railroads of this country are certainly an important factor in our agriculture; but I should be glad to have the views of some competent person as to the difference between this "special report" and a gratuitous advertisement by a department of the United States Government of one particular railroad.

Yours truly,

Inquirer.

Worcester, Mass., April 16, 1883.

THE STORY OF A PARDON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An item is going the rounds of the press to the effect that one Samuel Ulum, a life convict in the Michigan State Prison at Jackson, after serving a term of twenty-eight years, has been pardoned out, *his innocence having been completely established.* As the death penalty was many years ago abolished in Michigan, and its reënactment therefore is sure some day to be, if not accomplished, at least agitated, cases like Ulum's will certainly be used in popular discussions as precedents. It may, therefore, be worth while to put on record the facts.

Although I am not specially conversant with the facts, I may say that the murder of which Ulum was convicted in 1855 occurred in our part of the State, and the trial was in our county. Moreover, it being the first murder that I remember, it has always had a peculiar hold on my imagination. On seeing this item in the newspapers, therefore, and among them newspapers so conservative as *Harper's Weekly*, I wrote to an uncle who was formerly a prison inspector, asking about the truth of the story. His reply, though not written for publication, is so brief, clear, and to the purpose, that it may interest others as it did me. He says:

"I do not understand there is anything new, positive or circumstantial, which has any bearing upon his (Ulum's) guilt or innocence. I think all the facts in the case were presented to Governor Bagley, and successively to Governors Crosswell and Jerome, which have now induced Governor Begole to grant the pardon. You will remember that Ulum was tried in our [Kalamazoo] county, on a change of venue from

St. Joseph County, after White, the accomplice, had been convicted in that county. They were convicted on the positive testimony of one Giles Harding (another accomplice), together with a chain of circumstantial evidence corroborating his testimony. Nothing has since occurred to throw any light on the matter, except that Harding, who also received a life sentence, and who died in prison many years ago, stated before his death that his testimony was false, and denied any knowledge of the murder whatever."

If this is the whole case, does it warrant the positive statement that his innocence has been completely established?

Yours very respectfully, MARCUS BAKER.

UNITED STATES MAGNETIC OBSERVATORY,
LOS ANGELES, CAL., April 6, 1883.

JESTING UNDER DIFFICULTIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. W. F. Poole having made an onslaught upon me touching an inoffensive note in your columns, I must pray you of your courtesy to allow me a few words in answer.

My suggestion that convict labor should be employed in the manufacture of indexes was not altogether original, being a recommendation of Joseph Scaliger's. He, however, looked rather to the penal advantages, while I was chiefly moved by the wish to relieve many worthy persons of an humble, though certainly useful, drudgery, of which I can speak feelingly, having made indexes myself. Neither Mr. Poole nor his Index was at any time in my mind.

Mr. Poole, however, imagined that I was blaspheming both him and his book, and waxed exceeding wroth; apparently under the hallucination that no one can mention an index without thinking of his, and an uneasy suspicion that if any one laughs, he is probably laughing at him. This was all so absurd, that it was not in human nature to refrain from treating him to a little harmless persiflage; which seems to have irritated him to a quite extraordinary extent, as otherwise I am sure he would never have committed such a breach of literary good manners as to publish my name, and, what is worse, the private communications of a third person, without permission given in either case.

Mr. Poole compares me to an elephant. The elephant is a noble animal, and I do not disdain the comparison. But to that particular historical elephant who, pushing where he had no business, and, getting pricked with a needle, responded with a ferocious and unpleasant douche—it seems to me the counterpart might be found in another quarter.

However, Mr. Poole evidently suffers from hyperæsthesia, and his is a case for sympathy, not for smiles. It were inhuman to molest him further; and—since levity so offends him—I trust that in future his name and that of his Index will raise a general sadness whenever spoken. I am, sir, etc.,

WM. HAND BROWNE.

UNIVERSITY HONOR — NORTH AND SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The method of conducting college examinations in some of our Southern colleges is so different from that of our Northern that doubtless most of your readers will be interested in it. At the University of Virginia, University of Georgia, and several others, the utmost freedom is allowed the student during his examination. There is no separating of them as in the North; there is no watching by the professors or proctors; permission is even given to them to leave the room, and in some instances they have been known to be absent for hours. At the University of Virginia the student attaches a pledge to his paper to the effect that he has neither given nor received aid during the examination. At some of the other colleges this pledge is not required. This is, briefly, the plan on which most of the college examinations in the South are conducted. So well has this plan worked that there is on record at the University of Virginia only one instance of a student cheating during the last twenty years, and, strange to say, he was from Indiana. He was detected consulting his books while out, not by members of the faculty, but by his fellow-students. The sentiment among his classmates was so strong at what they considered an outrage, that they immediately warned him that unless he left within so many hours, violence might be done to his person. There is an instance of a case similar to this that occurred at the University of Georgia. The accused was detected and expelled, not by the faculty, but by his own associates. Not long since the writer had occasion to call upon one of the professors in the University of Georgia, and, expecting to find him at the examination, was told that he had gone to the post-office at some distance. Upon meeting him and expressing some surprise that he should leave his class, his answer was: "Those men are gentlemen; they would not take advantage of my absence."

The sentiment is certainly very strong against cheating all through the South, and is in marked contrast with that which exists in our best Northern colleges. In the South they look upon a man who will cheat as a sneak-thief, whose very presence is an insult. In the North the prevalence of cheating is such that one might say that there exists hardly any sentiment against it. In the South it is the student that feels the insult. In the North it is the faculty that feel the wrong.

Is this not an instance where our Southern colleges are vastly superior to our Northern on the question of college morality and honor?

Yours respectfully,

GEO. A. PLIMPTON.

NEW YORK, April 13, 1883.

Notes.

MR. CHARLES H. MOORE is, we are glad to announce, shortly about to publish a series of "Examples for Elementary Practice in Delineation," for the use of schools and isolated beginners. It consists of reproductions of twenty examples drawn by himself, ten of them from historic works of art, and ten from nature; and of about a dozen pages of explanatory letterpress. The object of this series is, while training the eye and hand to accuracy and precision, to cultivate perception of those characteristics of line upon which all expression of living character and beauty depends. This object is, so far as we know, neither clearly contemplated nor successfully attained by any drawing copies now in use in our schools. The publisher of Mr. Moore's present work is Moses King, Cambridge, as also of his admirable "Facsimiles of Examples in Delineation," a companion series for more advanced students, brought out last summer.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish in May the first two volumes of a monthly "series of representative essays" called "Topics of the Time," to be issued both in paper and in cloth. The editor will be Dr. Titus Munson Coan, and the arrangement of the essays will be such as to make each volume homogeneous. Thus, the two initial ones will be devoted to "Studies in Biography" and "Social Problems."

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce that while they will abridge the three volumes of the 'Life of Bishop Wilberforce' which they are now reprinting—omitting much that would possess little interest for the American reader—they will scrupulously retain the portions of the third volume which have caused such a hubbub across the water.

The 'Life of George Eliot,' now in preparation by her husband, Mr. Cross, will be published in this country by J. R. Osgood & Co.

T. Whittaker will print an American edition of H. L. Sidney Lear's 'Five Minutes' Daily Readings of Poetry,' by friendly arrangement with Houghton, Mifflin & Co. as respects certain copyrighted selections from Longfellow.

Van Epps & Co., Cleveland, Ohio, have nearly ready 'The Resources of the Rocky Mountains,' an illustrated handbook by E. J. Farmer.

Harper & Brothers announce 'The Cruise of the Canoe Club,' by W. L. Alden.

In response to the Messrs. Harper's cheap *lex talionis* edition of the 'Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle,' Charles Scribner's Sons will publish at once, in a single volume, a new and cheaper edition than their library edition already issued in two octavo volumes. It will be printed from the same plates, on good paper, and will contain an etched portrait of Mrs. Carlyle.

Edward Stern & Co., Philadelphia, will shortly publish 'The Jews in Philadelphia prior to 1800,' by Mr. Hyman Polock Rosenbach. The edition will be limited to 250 large-paper copies.

Mrs. Lillie Devereux Blake's recent lectures in reply to the Rev. Dr. Morgan Dix will be immediately issued, under the title of 'Woman's Place To-day,' by John W. Lovell Co.

It marks the change in the relation of the sexes in this country that Mrs. Martha J. Lamb is to assume, with the May number, the editorial direction of the *Magazine of American History*, in place of the retiring editors. The want of stability hitherto in the conduct of this periodical will, we understand, disappear under the new proprietorship.

Mr. Appleton P. C. Griffin, of the Boston Public Library, proposes to reprint as a large pamphlet, in a limited edition, his two articles on the bibliography of the discovery of the Mississippi, published in the March and April numbers of the *Magazine of American History*. It will contain a facsimile of Joliet's map of 1674. The price will be seventy-five cents a copy.

The *Evening Post* Association, of Hartford, has issued its annual quarto volume of 'Biographical Sketches of the State Officers, Representatives in Congress, Governor's Staff, and Senators and Members of the General Assembly of the State of Connecticut,' for 1883, with portraits. Such a collection of lives and faces affords a very interesting study of politics and character. Disciples of Lavater may amuse themselves by guessing the party of each member of this portrait gallery from his physiognomy.

We regret the withdrawal from the book trade of the veteran Mr. Alexander Williams, of Boston, whose imprint has lately been attached to literary ventures rather bespeaking a revival of enterprise in the firm. Cupples, Upham & Co. will succeed A. Williams & Co. in the "Old Corner Bookstore"

The fourth number of the *Folk-Lore Journal* (London: Elliot Stock) contains an index to the folk-lore, etc., of Horace, without giving the actual quotations. The same thing done for Virgil would be a more serious undertaking, but very serviceable.

We have received from L. W. Schmidt, 7 Barclay Street, Parts 56-60, completing the fourth volume of 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon' (13th ed.) with the title *Deichselrecht*. The full-

page illustrations relate entirely to steam in its various applications, and accompany the longest connected series of articles in the above instalment of the Lexikon. The 32 pages devoted to this subject close with a very useful table of European steamship lines, classed according to their destination, with days' length of trip noted, and of the principal foreign lines. The other most prominent articles are Cuba, Czech law, languages, literature, etc., Denmark, Dante, and Darwin and Darwinism. American biographies include Caleb Cushing, Charlotte Cushman, R. H. Dana, sr. and jr., and Jefferson Davis, whose ponderous and disappointing 'Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government' is dryly described as "a very comprehensive but pretty empty (*inhaltslosen*) work." The colored maps show the international steamship tracks, and (in one plate) Denmark, Sweden, and Iceland. Custozza, Danzig, and the Dardanelles are charted in the text.

The *Bibliographer* for April (J. W. Bouton) is very true to its name; the Bibliography of Skating is continued, that of Sacheverell begun. Mr. Cornelius Walford, also, uncrushed by his 'Insurance Cyclopædia,' offers the first part of a tremendous scheme for a Dictionary of Periodical Literature. In the meantime, the *Publishers' Weekly* of this city is able to announce the success of arrangements to carry out Messrs. Poole & Fletcher's plan of annual coöperative indexing of periodicals, both those already included in 'Poole's Index' and others. The first volume will cover the years 1882–83, after which the issues will be strictly annual. The public has nothing to do with these, which are the affair of the coöperating and subscribing libraries, but every five years there will be made from them a Supplement to the great Index, which will be for sale.

On the other hand, a scheme of Mr. W. K. Stetson's, assistant librarian at Wesleyan University, will be carried out in the *Library Journal*. This is the indexing of current periodicals from month to month, as they appear, and the printing of the entries in such a manner as to make them available for card catalogues. The same rules will be observed as in 'Poole's Index.' In view of this undertaking, and of the added support which it ought to secure from the public at large for the *Library Journal*, we can hardly welcome a projected monthly *Index*, to be published at Lawrence, Kansas, by Prof. James H. Canfield, of the State University. From the specimen page it is clear, as might have been expected, that the character of the indexing will fall far below that which the coöperating libraries will employ.

We have often been amused by unlucky translators who have rendered *librairie* (bookselling) by library. Now we find *Polybiblion* saying that the *Société américaine de Librairie* (by which it means the American Library Association) commissioned Mr. W. Poole to prepare a third edition of his 'Index to Periodical Literature.'

Part 3 of the third volume of the Proceedings of the Davenport (Iowa) Academy of Natural Sciences is entirely given up to a commemoration of the late President of that body, Joseph Duncan Putnam, a young entomologist of indefatigable industry and great promise, and the most useful member the Academy has ever had. The pamphlet contains a portrait, numerous obituary sketches and condolences, and an unpublished paper on the Solpugidæ, with bibliography and illustrations, by the deceased naturalist. To this spider-scorpion family he had given more attention than any one else. On the paternal side, Mr. Putnam was, as his name implies, of Eastern descent, reckoning common ancestors with General Israel Putuam, General Daniel Morgan, and President Holyoke, of Harvard; on his mother's he was descended from the same stock (Caldwell) as John C. Calhoun.

Mr. Samuel H. Scudder's 'Pine Moth of Nantucket' (Boston: A. Williams & Co.), one of the publications of the Massachusetts Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, tells a curious story of the invasion of the trees of that sparsely wooded island by the Retinia frustrana. Their attack is deadly, and can only be met by heroic treatment—"by breaking or cutting from every pine tree on the island every affected shoot" during the month of June. The conditions for concerted action on the part of an isolated population holding much of their lands in common would seem favorable, but Mr. Scudder despairs of seeing his "ten men, each armed with a pair of hedge shears, and ladders of some sort." The enemy is beautifully figured in colors.

The Woman's Education Association has again enabled the Boston Society of Natural History to open the Seaside Laboratory at Annisquam, Mass., from July 1 to September 1, 1883. This will make the third summer of the institution, which those are qualified to profit by who have had some experience in a laboratory, or attended practical lessons, or have taught in the schools. The Curator of the Boston Society, Mr. Alpheus Hyatt, will answer inquiries by applicants as to terms, etc.

Dr. Samuel A. Green, who has done so much to illustrate the history of the town of Groton, Mass., has just published a brochure on 'Groton in the Witchcraft Times.' The chief matter and interest of it consist in an independent transcription of the before-printed account left by the Rev. Samuel Willard of a supposed case of demoniacal possession in the year 1671, famous in Puritan annals as the case of Elizabeth Knapp. This clerical relation is in style an excellent production, and in its revelations of contemporary superstition a most instructive document. The unfortunate victim of hysteria often had her tongue "turned up circularly to the roofe of her mouth"; but, by means of a devilish ventriloquism, "the labial letters, divers of which were used by her, viz., B. M. P. which cannot bee naturally expressed without motion of the lips, which must needs come within our ken, if observed, were uttered without any such motion," etc.

According to *La Réforme Sociale*, the law against duelling lately defeated in the French Senate was the seventh abortive attempt since the code of 1810. The measure had no provision for the suppression of duelling in the army, where it is almost obligatory. Nevertheless, says *La Réforme*, the number of duels in France is steadily diminishing.

The ever-enjoyable "Voyage de M. Perrichon" of MM. Eugène Labiche and Édouard Martin forms No. 1 of "a series of the best modern and standard French plays, carefully selected for their unobjectionable character, each one recommended by teachers in the language, and suitable alike for school or general reading," which is to be issued by W. R. Jenkins under the title of the 'Théâtre Contemporain.' From this announcement it is evident that the 'Théâtre Contemporain' is to follow the lines of the excellent series of "College Plays" edited by Prof. Bôcher. It is to differ from them in the omission of all notes, grammatical or otherwise. The new series contains absolutely nothing but the text of modern French plays. It is proposed to issue twelve a year. No better choice for beginning the series could have been made than Labiche's "Voyage de M. Perrichon," which is perhaps the best bit of pure farce, founded on deep observation, in the French drama of this century. It is to be followed by the "Gendre de M. Poirier" of Augier and Sandeau, the "Duc Job" of Laya, "Bertrand et Raton" and the "Verre d'Eau" of Scribe, all of which are excellent selections, and by a double number containing the "Soupière" of M. d'Hervilly (whose clever but tortured style is not a good model for students) and "Sa Canne et son Chapeau" of the Comte W. Sollohub, which is altogether unworthy of reproduction in America, and indeed unfit for general reading here, as the fundamental idea is neither commendable nor cleanly.

Of making many reviews there is no end. One of the latest has the singular title, "*Le Règne de Jésus-Christ*, revue illustrée du musée et de la bibliothèque eucharistiques de Paray-le-Monial." From the first number it appears to be devoted chiefly to Christian archæology. *Polybiblion*, in which we find this noticed, also records the foundation of the *Revue du Monde Latin*, a monthly devoted to the interests of the Latin races, material, intellectual, and moral, and intended to pave the way to their permanent union. It is to be issued in five editions—French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, and Rumanian. These editions will differ solely in the language of the first sixteen pages, the monthly political and diplomatic bulletin. The rest of each number will be generally in French, or, if there is an article in any other language, it will be accompanied by a French translation. Our list of oddities finds an appropriate ending in *Croque-Mort*, a new journal which is to have its readers, and, what is more important, its advertisers, among the undertakers, coffin-makers, dead-watchers, grave-diggers, and mourning-milliners.

—The book-sales of the present season in New York will be memorable for the large contingent furnished by the State of Rhode Island. We have already had the poorest part of the unregulated collection of the late Joseph J. Cooke, of Providence, and the library of the late David King, of Newport, perhaps also only in part; and now the Messrs. Leavitt will sell at auction, on April 30 and the following days, a first-rate sample of the collection of the late Mr. C. Fiske Harris, of Providence, which far outranks the others just named. The catalogue shows that the special line selected for disposal, and which embraces a decided plurality of the 2,569 titles, is early English poetry and drama, in choice and early editions. Shakspere is represented by the first four folios, uniformly bound and in exceptionally fine condition; as well as otherwise. Of Spenser there is the first edition of the 'Faerie Queene' printed under the poet's care, 1590-96; of Waller, the first edition of his 'Poems,' 1645; of Milton, the first edition of his 'Defensio' against Salmasius, 1651, and of his 'Paradise Lost,' 1669, and of his 'Poems' bearing his name on the title-page, 1643; of Thomson, the 1736 edition of his poetical works, with several autographs of the poet and his sisters superadded. The collection of Drydens is also noticeable for its numbers, and there are several tempting volumes of miscellaneous poems. The books on or illustrating early printing are comparatively few, and do not reveal the strength of the collection on this side. Still, there are some Dutch "Fifteeners" bound up in No. 1841, and No. 1312* is ascribed to the same epoch and nation; No. 1208* is the Aldine edition of the 'Hypnerotomachia Poliphili,' 1499, and there is besides a French translation of the same work, 1554. Finally, we must mention a French version of Boccaccio's 'De Genealogia Deorum,' 1498. Several manuscripts on vellum, of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and sixteenth centuries, are beautiful of their kind. We can barely name further 'The Pleasauntest Workes of George Gascoigne,' 1587, once Thomas Warton's, by gift of Bishop Warburton; 'Ferdinandi Cortesii Narratio,' 1524; and John Eliot's Indian Bible and

New Testament, the latter imperfect, in one volume.

—A handful of correlated manuals come to us from F. Leypoldt, for which we bespeak the widest possible circulation. One is a collection of short essays and familiar lectures by Mr. W. E. Foster, of the Providence (R. I.) Public Library, for which a general title, 'Libraries and Readers,' has been found. Another is a volume of about the same size, the work of several hands, Mr. Foster included, called 'Libraries and Schools'; Mr. Samuel S. Green, of the Worcester (Mass.) Free Library, being of right the editor. A third is 'Books for the Young,' by Miss C. M. Hewins, of the Hartford (Conn.) Library Association. A catalogue, not published by Mr. Leypoldt, nor for sale, of the library of the Point Street Grammar School in Providence has a close relation to each of the foregoing publications, and may properly be mentioned in connection with them. Mr. Foster's discourses are the outgrowth of his experience in meeting the needs of the actual, and enlisting the interest of the natural, patrons of his library. No one, with limited resources, has done more to turn to account the collection under his charge, or shown greater activity and ingenuity in devising ways and means to stimulate reading, study, and research, and guide them in the proper direction. His chapters are valuable as exhibiting phase after phase of his perception of the conditions under which public libraries are now used, and found to be of service, by widely differing classes of the community. They are all sound, practical, and suggestive, and will benefit parents, their elder children, and the author's fellow-librarians about equally. They treat of the following topics: Right Reading; Correction of Aimless Reading; Specializing of Reading; "Current Literature," and "Standard Literature"; Securing the Interest of a Community; What May be Done at Home; How to Use a Library; Books and Articles on Reading.

—The second volume on our list bears wholly upon the best method of making the public library a component part of the common-school system. It opens with Mr. C. F. Adams, jr.'s, frank address to the Quincy teachers in 1876, and notably contains, besides, a full account by Mr. Green of his success in Worcester in establishing the coveted alliance, and two papers by Mr. Foster upon the general theme. Some of the methods advocated or proposed by the several writers invite criticism, but librarians and teachers everywhere who consult this little volume will close it with a sense of indebtedness. Reference is made in the last chapter to the library gathered for a Providence grammar school. The catalogue already mentioned shows that there is, as there should be, a pupils' and a teachers' collection, the former being regarded as a sort of "branch" of the public library, with the advantage of the most careful censorship in its formation The discipline which it is made to yield to the pupils is set forth on pp. 120–123 of 'Libraries and Schools,' and no one can read Principal Sawin's scheme without feeling that it embodies a new and fruitful idea. Miss Hewins's classified list of suitable books for the young deserves more extended praise than we have space for. It will bring joy to the hearts of hundreds of parents, whose confidence in the compiler's judgment will be assured by her prefatory remarks and directions, and her choice extracts from divers authorities on the true aim and criterion of juvenile literature. One more volume remains to be written, in behalf of the cultivation of a refined and elevated taste either through a reform in text-books, particularly in readers, or through early memorizing, even occasionally past comprehension, of noble passages in prose and verse from the great English classics.

—The last two numbers of the *American Journal of Philology* contain articles by Mr. Fitzedward Hall which impress the reader anew with the extraordinary scope of this writer's explorations in the field of English literature. They do more than this, for they inevitably suggest the desirability of Mr. Hall's annotations being utilized for some work of permanent authority, like a grammar or a dictionary. In his first paper (Vol. iii., No. 11) he is concerned with an idiom which it is safe to say not one Anglo-Saxon in ten thousand has ever regarded by itself—"The English Perfect Participle used Infinitively." The text is furnished by a singular passage from Thomas Fuller—"At this time *began* the troubles in the Low Countreys, about matters of religion, *heightned* between two opposite parties," etc. The various forms in which this idiom lurks will prove a revelation to those who follow Mr. Hall through the labyrinth of illustrations with which his footnotes are charged. The second paper (Vol. iii., No. 12), "On Some Points of Usage in English," is more varied, because it is a criticism on Professor Short's late articles in the *Journal* on the Revised New Testament. Thus it establishes against his dictum the frequency of the use of a singular verb with a compound subject in modern English, and concludes that the only restriction which good usage imposes, forbids either plural substantives and pronouns, or a plural and a singular, to be nominative to a verb in the singular. Another vindication is of "moth and rust *doth* corrupt" as a survival of a plural form, which the Jacobean revisers tolerated (by exception in this text) for euphony's sake. We have not mentioned all the points in Mr. Hall's comments on Professor Short, but these are the most important.

—In a reference made by the *Revue Politique* to the Reports or Proceedings of the Société Archéologique, of Constantine, it appears that there are at least twenty volumes, and that a general index has just been published. The antiquities in the neighborhood of Constantine are rich and often important. Not long since, the Society opened a *lararium* near Tebessa, in which were mingled Roman and Numidian idols which had found a refuge there when the temple of Minerva, at Theveste, was taken possession of by the Archbishop Aurelius, 399 A. D. The most noteworthy find, giving a glimpse of the difficulties of life at that day, was a fragment of a god evidently representing Apollo, and yet recalling the type of Christ found in the Catacombs. The probable explanation is, that a Christian sculptor had taken an order from a Roman priest, just as idols for India and Africa have been and perhaps are now manufactured at Birmingham. This is not quite according to our ideal of the early Christians; but the early Christians were not all saints—there were the *lapsi*. Besides, they had to live together, Pagans and Christians, and it could not have been easy always to determine just what was lawful commerce, just what criminal compliance with heathen customs.

—Among the clerical contributions to the literature of the Salvation Army, M. E. de Pressensé's "L'Armée du Salut" in the *Revue Politique et Littéraire*, and Dr. R. Schramm's 'Das Heer der Seligmacher' ("Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen," Berlin, Carl Habel) claim especial attention. M. de Pressensé's article, while brief, is as outspoken in its condemnation of the movement, from an intellectual as well as a purely religious point of view, as Dr. Schramm's exhaustive essay. "Taken all in all," M. de Pressensé says, "one can but see in this movement a dangerous deviation both from the principles of Christianity and the reform of the sixteenth century." The ways of the Salvation Army are those of Loyola's disciples and the flagellants; he speaks of its "prearranged" enthusiasm, of neophytes drilled into giving "testimonials," of "the almost total suppression of the activity of the mind" characteristic of every English "revival," with its sudden "improvisation de la conscience." "What the Salvation Army has developed to a boundless extent is *humbug*, the unbridled charlatanism which chooses any means to excite attention, nay, to provoke scandal, in order to agitate and inflame minds. General Booth may well give a few points to Barnum." M. de Pressensé, however, deprecates the illiberality of the Swiss cantonal governments in their treatment of the Salvationists, which ended in making martyrs of them. He proposes, as the best way of dealing with them, "the cold-shower-bath of public indifference," which will speedily lead to the disappearance of the "insanity and fanaticism that enter largely into every movement like that of the Salvation Army." Dr. Schramm, who is preacher at the cathedral of Bremen, acknowledges, as does also M. de Pressensé, that the Salvation Army has achieved some practical good among masses which perhaps can only be reached by such methods as it employs. He shows a thorough knowledge of English society, which, as he well says, is necessary in order to enable Germans to understand the movement at all. "In Germany, the only agitation remotely resembling it in its methods is that headed by the court-preacher Stöcker." Dr. Schramm has personally attended the meetings of the Salvationists in England; he has observed their actions and the behavior of their audiences with a keen eye, and describes what he heard and saw with a graphic pen—their confessions and conversions, their hymns, tracts, and "war-cries." He is familiar with all the details of his subject, and discusses it in a spirit of singular fair-mindedness. Yet he, too, comes to the conclusion that the activity of the Salvation Army "exposes Christianity to the laughter and ridicule of the civilized world; . . . that these men do their best to widen the chasm between Christianity and modern culture, between religion and enlightenment, between piety and knowledge." These opinions of two foreign Protestant clergymen of such prominence are well calculated to make an impression on those of the English clergy who, while objecting to the methods of the Salvation Army, have lavished encouragement on it for the sake of its aims.

—Not long ago we called attention to the inaugural address of Professor Butcher, at Edinburgh. At least equally noteworthy, though for different reasons, is the inaugural address delivered by Dr. H. Usener, last October, on assuming the rectorate of the University of Bonn, which has been published in pamphlet form. Under the title 'Philologie und Geschichtswissenschaft,' Dr. Usener discusses the place of philology in science. In a brief preface he disclaims all intention of saying new things: he only wishes to give a public statement of what many must have thought and felt about the present relations of philology to other studies, and the exact view which must be taken of the purposes of philology at the present stage of the development of studies. This statement is given in a very clear and simple way, though the analysis on which it rests is both acute and profound. A brief quotation from the last page will give a hint of the spirit of the work:

"We Germans are not likely to forget, nor do we wish to forget, that it was a masterpiece of creative power in reproducing antique life which laid the foundation of our philology; and the

more we subdivide our work, the more securely shall we fix our eyes upon the goal which Wolf and Boeckh pointed out. The philologian has been and is and will continue to be the pioneer of scientific history."

—Everybody knows that even a great artist like Rubinstein does not always play equally well. A muggy day, a bad dinner, a temporary emotional excitement, may frustrate his best intentions, whereas the coexistence of the opposite conditions will enable him to play on the nerves of the audience with the same certain effect with which a violinist's strings respond to the touch of his bow. With a large body of instrumentalists and singers it is still more necessary that the circumstances should be favorable to secure good work. This was the case at the Wagner Memorial Concert given at Steinway Hall on Saturday. The atmosphere was clear and bracing, which enabled the strings to develop their fullest resonance; the audience was very large and eager, which helped to inspire the performers; Mr. Thomas was full of personal magnetism, which communicated itself to his musicians and the audience alike; and, finally, Steinway Hall is acoustically so superior to the Academy of Music that the Philharmonic Orchestra, which forms part of the Chorus Society, could be heard to the best advantage. The result was a concert to be remembered a lifetime. We have heard all the best orchestras in Europe; but, after Saturday's experience, the conviction forced itself on our mind that the Philharmonic is absolutely the best in the world, and that a more able conductor than Mr. Thomas cannot be found. Unqualified praise cannot be bestowed on the chorus as a whole, for it is impossible to get a sufficient number of good tenors to secure such an evenly-balanced ensemble as the orchestra's. Except in point of weakness, however, no fault was to be found with the tenors on this occasion; and as for the female chorus, we know what we are talking about when we say it is one of the finest in existence, producing a tone of rare resonance and sensuous beauty. The chorus of sirens and that following the march in "Tannhäuser," as well as the finale from the "Meistersinger," were sung with a vigorous accent and full body of tone that excited the audience to the highest pitch of enthusiasm, and induced them, instead of leaving immediately at the end, to remain and tumultuously call out Mr. Thomas with applause, bravos, and waving of handkerchiefs.

—There were three preludes on the programme —"Tannhäuser," "Parsifal," and "Meistersinger"—together with "Siegfried's Death," from "Götterdämmerung," all of which the orchestra played in such a way as to reveal the minutest detail of the polyphonic interweaving of motives, and to show the warm, rich, and ever-changing colors in the most brilliant light. The "Bacchanale," from "Tannhäuser," which had not been played in this city for some years, probably proved *haut-goût* for a large part of the audience, while to the epicure it always seems delicious. It is perhaps the most tumultuous, dissonant, and delirious composition ever written, but when it is heard while the eyes behold a wild dance of bacchantes on the stage, with Cupids hovering in the air and shooting arrows at them, nothing could appear more appropriate. It was not in "Tannhäuser" as originally written, but was added by Wagner when that opera was to be produced in Paris, in place of the necessary ballet in the second act. He refused to put a regular ballet in the second act, and this incensed the Jockey Club, and caused the fiasco of the opera which led to such a long quarrel between France and Wagner. The music belongs to the "Tristan" period, and the striking harmonic resemblance to the love-motive in that drama suggests a subtle psychological nexus which we have not space to do more than hint at here. With the dramatic and scenic background of the flower-garden scene and the finale of the third act of "Parsifal" readers of this journal are already familiar. The flower-girls sang beautifully, although the solo parts were somewhat weak; and the same remark applies to the quintet from "Die Meistersinger," which followed Pogner's Address (Herr Remmertz). The "Parsifal" finale may have proved tiresome to a few of those to whom the music was entirely new: but if they will reserve judgment until they have heard it again, they will find that it belongs to the very best Wagner has written. Indeed, so finely were its beauties revealed on Saturday—the performance being actually better than at Bayreuth, so far as the orchestra was concerned—that we felt for the moment as if this, Wagner's Swan-song, was the best thing he had ever composed. The short funeral march, in its monotonous grandeur, has the effect of an exaggerated minor, on account of the shrill discords and the lugubrious meanderings of the bass.

—Mr. Thomas, by the way, has added to his numerous other achievements in behalf of good music the distinction of having invented a new instrument of such exquisite timbre that it will doubtless at no distant time become a part of the necessary outfit of every first-class orchestra. It will be remembered that at Bayreuth considerable trouble was occasioned by the difficulty of securing an instrument to execute the four notes of the bell-motive in the finales of the first and third acts. Actual bells, besides being too expensive, were not available, on account of the harsh, dissonant overtones which always accompany their proper tone. Hans Richter's "bell-piano," which contained four thick strings consisting each of several ordinary strings twisted into one, did not prove a success; and the tam-tams substituted for them did not indicate the pitch with sufficient distinctness. In place of these Mr. Thomas conceived the happy idea of getting four steel bars of different thicknesses, which are carefully tuned, and, on being struck with a wooden hammer, give forth a silvery sound as free from overtones at a distance as tuning forks, and strikingly suggestive in their sound of actual cathedral chimes.

LIDDELL AND SCOTT.

A Greek-English Lexicon. Compiled by Henry George Liddell, D.D., Dean of Christ Church, Oxford, and Robert Scott, D.D., Dean of Rochester, late Master of Balliol College, Oxford. Seventh Edition, Revised and Augmented throughout, with the coöperation of Professor Drisler, of Columbia College, New York. New York: Harper & Bros. 1883.

THE late Charles Astor Bristed, in his interesting account of 'Five Years at an English University,' refers to the Greek Lexicon of Liddell and Scott as a worthy monument of the classical learning of Oxford. This is doubtless a just appreciation. To be sure, such a work would ill bear comparison with the monumental achievements of the University of Berlin, working in the name of the Berlin Academy; but if we ask what have been the large and serviceable gifts of the other universities of the world to Greek scholarship, we must admit that Oxford has no reason to be ashamed of this lexicon. To judge fairly of the service rendered, we must ask ourselves how we should like to go back to Donnegan or Schrevelius. It is not in England alone, of course, that advances have been made in lexicography; and Liddell and Scott owe very much of what is good in their work to their German predecessors and contemporaries, almost all that is trustworthy about verb-forms to Dr. Veitch, of Edinburgh, and now not a little of special value to three American scholars. Still, the book is an Oxford book, true to its origin in its merits and in its defects; and when all allowances have been made, it must be confessed that the University of Oxford has bestowed upon English-speaking scholars very decidedly the best Greek lexicon for constant service now in use in the world.

The present, seventh, edition naturally invites comparison with the third edition of Pape's 'Griechisch-Deutsches Handwörterbuch' (1880). Without disparaging the great merits of Pape and his editors, we cannot hesitate to say that Liddell and Scott have succeeded in making a more useful book. The superiority is due chiefly, it is true, to greater skill in mechanical arrangement, in the use of types and such matters—to a better practical sense of ways in which time may be saved and vexations avoided for those who seek information; but in such a book such a superiority deserves high recognition. Pape invites the student, in his examination of a troublesome word, to wander in a chaos where nothing guides his eye, until he stumbles upon something to satisfy his need. Liddell and Scott make it possible for him to find instantly whatever information they may have for him: the whole machinery of divisions and subdivisions and guiding numbers and letters is admirable. It may be possible to quarrel with a classification sometimes on scientific grounds, seldom indeed on grounds of practical usefulness. So far, too, as we have been able to examine, the English book is very much the more correctly printed of the two. In point of learning and soundness of views, Pape may possibly have a slight advantage. For some reason, most dictionaries keep somewhat behind their time, and the new edition of Pape is no exception. The two volumes of Pape (leaving the separate volume with the proper names out of account) give about one-tenth more square inches of printed paper than the one volume of Liddell and Scott, and, as Pape is more closely printed, it may contain about one-eighth more matter. In the main, there is little difference in fulness of treatment, but Pape gives very much more copious discussions and examples of difficult words in frequent use. The space given to ἄν is seventeen times as great in Pape as in Liddell and Scott, to μή nearly three times as great, to ἐπί rather less than twice as great. But it is in such articles as these, above all others, that we are thankful for the clear arrangement of Liddell and Scott. There are other differences of proportion. Under the editing of Sengebusch, Pape's lexicon has acquired a disproportionate number of citations from Homer; it is a merit of Liddell and Scott that they are comparatively free from such partialities.

The seventh edition of Liddell and Scott, compared with the sixth, shows an increase in space of printed paper of nearly five per cent. The number of pages is diminished, but their height is considerably increased. The preface tells us that the matter contained in the sixth edition has been considerably compressed: "the additions consist mainly of fuller references to the classical authors, and a free use of the *Indices* to the Berlin Aristotle and to the *Corpus Inscriptionum Græcarum*." These additions greatly increase the usefulness of the book. The references to the authors might with advantage be made still fuller. A teacher often needs an example of some familiar usage which it may cost him a long search to find; students should be carefully trained to feel the same want. It is not enough for teacher or student to be told

that a word is used in a certain sense in Attic writers—the teacher needs to show, and the student needs to see, actual specimens of the usage. The old dictionary tells us that αἱρεῖν means to "get into one's power, conquer, πόλιν, ναῦς, Il. 2, 37, 13, 42. and Att." The new edition says: to "get into one's power, ναῦς, Il. 13, 42; esp. to take a city, 2, 37, Soph. Ph. 347, etc.; cf. ἄκρα." This is a gain; but a few examples from Attic prose-writers would still be a gain. In both editions alike we are told that αἱρεῖσθαί τινα, ἄρχοντα, στρατηγόν, is "freq. in Att."; but no example is given. The whole number of references under αἱρέω is seventy-one in the old edition, and ninety-one in the new. The new words from Aristotle are very welcome. The earlier editions did nearly nothing for readers of Aristotle—even the 'Ethics' and 'Politics' received but slight attention. Some advantage in dealing with philosophical terms might have been gained from a use of the index to Diels's 'Doxographi Græci,' though it would not have added any great number of words to the dictionary—only eight beginning with α. For another set of technical terms, Fabricius's 'De Architectura Græca Commentationes Epigraphicæ' came too late. The maker of the next new dictionary will find there thirty words hitherto unregistered (thirty-two not in Pape), besides valuable explanations of other words important to the student of architecture or archæology. But it cannot be said that similar unused sources abound. The dictionaries have generally absorbed the indexes. Careful reading of the authors must be the chief means in the future for the collection of omitted words and neglected turns of meaning. It is very strange that the fragments of the lyric poets have never yet been properly read for this purpose. Many of them, surely, ought to be made as intelligible as possible to all students. They present great difficulties to the lexicographer; but everybody would be glad to see the forms of Bergk's text registered, with some fairly reasonable explanation in each case. Within the first six lines of the famous first fragment of Sappho is a word for which this seventh edition of Liddell and Scott may be searched in vain.

But how shall space be found for further additions? This new edition has certainly reached the extreme limit of size permissible in a book intended for the general use of students—indeed, that limit was reached in the sixth edition. But we believe much may be done by still more rigid compression, by greater skill in the use of abbreviations, by the exclusion of all words whose value is purely lexicographical. This latter class of words, to be sure, must be within the reach of the scholar, but the young man trying to learn the language is only hindered by them. Three Greek dictionaries are needed, we believe: a small and handy one for beginners, having regard only to some few of the easier authors, containing, among other things, all the proper names in those authors; next, a book like the large Liddell and Scott, with the omissions suggested; finally, a sort of index to all dictionaries, including Hesychius and the rest. This last, if made on a proper plan, would be indispensable to all teachers and investigators, but young students need not be troubled with it.

The tact and good taste of the interpretations of Liddell and Scott are well known. The difficult passages of the authors most read have been considered, nearly or quite without exception, and sensible explanations given under the important words. Inaccuracy and inadequacy may sometimes be fairly charged against the explanations; but their general quality is nevertheless very excellent, showing distinct superiority over other Greek dictionaries. The etymologies have never been the strong point of the dictionaries. We incline to think Liddell and Scott more successful than others even here; but we wish the etymological notes had been written by a specialist. Liddell and Scott have made conscientious use of the text-books of Pott, Curtius, and others; but specialists they are not. For example, under κομιδῇ occurs the note: "Prob. from √ KOMIΔ, the *y* being lost in κομιδή, and *δy* becoming *ζ* in κομίζω." No specialist could have let that pass; and, so long as there are specialists whose services may be had, it is hardly excusable to put such statements before students. By the way, it seems wasteful to use both capital letters and the radical sign to designate roots.

We may give a few more specimens of fault-finding of various kinds. For exclamatory ἄ, ἆ, etc., there are only two entries. No mention is made of ἀά, nor of ἀᾶ. For ἄ ἄ ἄ, Eur. Cycl. 157, the repeated long breath of content after a satisfying swig, we have the misprint (or ill-advised emendation) ἆ ἆ, and are told it is a laugh. Under ἄλλως there is no adequate account of the meaning *foolishly, unreasonably*, so common in Plato. The interpretation of Soph. Ant. 455, given under ὑπερτρέχω, cannot stand—ὑπερτρέχω means *outrun;* it is ὑπερβαίνω that means *overstep.* Under ὑπίλλω we find the citation of Soph. Ant. 505, εἰ μὴ γλῶσσαν ἐγκλείσοι φόβος—a sort of grammar, fortunately, not to be found in that edition of Sophocles which Liddell and Scott tell us they have chiefly used. Under ναῦλον nothing is said of the meaning *house-rent.* The orators are still cited by the pages of Stephens and Reiske—a fashion long since out of date. Students seldom or never find such citations manageable. Under σώζω we find the statement, surely inadequate, "or with ι subscr. whenever ζ precedes ω"; while of θνῄσκω and other similar forms no mention is made. But there is little use in enumerating such flaws unless it be done for the good of future editions. Liddell and Scott tell us they cannot hope to see another edition issued in their lifetime, and our first duty is to thank them for what they have done.

We feel a certain hesitation in speaking at all of the contributions which American scholars have made to this edition—and we shall not speak of them in detail. Besides Dr. Drisler, whose name is on the title-page, Dr. Goodwin and Dr. Gildersleeve are named in the preface. It is no secret that one of these scholars has "protested against the unfair and inconsiderate manner in which his work has been treated." It may be that in many particulars these contributions fall short of the excellence which their authors wished and tried to give them. It is enough for our purpose to say that the articles on ἄν and on μή, to specify these examples, show an incontestable and very great superiority to the corresponding articles in the sixth edition. Very probably the editors have been unwilling to concede to any of the scholars who have helped them that degree of independence without which the help of specialists, as such, can have no value. It is a fact not very well recognized, we fear, at Oxford, that conspicuously good treatment even of matters of syntax or of etymology can only be given by men whom years of toil have qualified to speak on such matters. Literary taste and wide reading are not enough. When the next Greek-English dictionary comes, we hope it will come from an editor of literary taste and wide reading, and an instinct for accuracy. We hope he will have the assistance of numerous scholars in searching out material, and of several specialists in treating the materials amassed. And we hope he will know accurately the limits of his own special knowledge, and will insist against himself most strongly upon the observance of those limits. But it is no part of a reviewer's duty to discuss the possible plans of the possible maker of a book of the future.

The type and paper of this edition, as of its predecessor, are admirable—a comfort and a delight to the eye. Of the binding, it may be said, perhaps, that schoolboys deserve no better than this gaudy sheep—it will take them some time to wear it out. An occasional book lover will prefer to buy the sheets.

RECENT POETICAL TRANSLATIONS.

THE name of Omar Khayyám is not to be found, so far as we know, in any English cyclopædia; and yet no Oriental poet is read with such delight by a large circle of English readers. This enthusiasm for the astronomer bard is mainly due, no doubt, to the extraordinary vigor and beauty of the translation of his 'Rubáiyát' by Mr. Edward Fitzgerald. So unquestionable is this fact that the main interest of any new translation lies in the opportunity it gives of settling the vexed question, how much of this fine poetry is to be attributed to Omar, and how much to Fitzgerald. This alone would lend importance to the recent version, by Mr. E. H. Whinfield, of what he prefers to call simply 'The Quatrains of Omar Khayyám' (London: Trübner). Mr. Whinfield's experience in the Bengal Civil Service must have insured him opportunities for Oriental study; and he gives a guarantee of fidelity by affording us, unlike Mr. Fitzgerald, a reference to the precise chapter and verse of each "quatrain"—arranging them, as did his predecessor, at his own discretion. He gives us also a much larger variety of these remarkable verses, his collection offering 253 in all, whereas Fitzgerald gave only 75 in his first edition, 110 in his second, and 101 in his third.

Those who have carefully examined the great variations in the successive editions of Fitzgerald's translation, and, still more, those who have compared his striking version of the 'Agamemnon' of Æschylus (see *Nation*, vol. xxiv., p. 310) with the original, must own that he belongs to the very loosest school of translators, and that it is very hard to tell whether, in any given case, he is offering a translation or a paraphrase. The trouble is that, where the result is so fine, the reader does not much care whence it came. If Whinfield best represents the poet Omar, we can only say that we prefer the poet Fitzgerald. Compare, for instance, the passionate enthusiasm of

> "Here, with a little Bread beneath the Bough,
> A Flask of Wine, a Book of Verse—and Thou
> Beside me singing in the Wilderness,
> Oh, Wilderness were Paradise enow!"
> (Fitzgerald, xii., 2d ed.),

with the tameness of

> "Give me a flask of wine, a crust of bread,
> A quiet mind, a book of verse to read,
> With thee, O love, to share my lowly roof,
> I would not take the Sultan's crown instead"
> (Whinfield, ccxxxiv.).

Or compare that superb symbol of this mortal body,

> "'Tis but a tent where takes his one day's rest
> A Sultan to the realm of Death addrest;
> The Sultan rises, and the dark Ferrásh
> Strikes, and prepares it for another guest"
> (Fitzgerald, xlv., 3d ed.),

with the mild quatrain,

> "This body is a tent, which for a space
> Doth the pure soul with kingly presence grace;
> When he departs, comes the tent-pitcher, death,
> Strikes it, and moves to a new halting-place"
> (Whinfield, xxxvii.).

Or contrast this strong verse, having a sweep like that of an eagle's wing,

> "I sent my soul through the Invisible
> Some letter of that After-life to spell;
> And by and by my soul returned to me,
> And answered, 'I Myself am Heaven and Hell'"
> (Fitzgerald, lxvi., 3d ed.),

with the feebleness of this new rendering:

> "Pen, tablet, heaven, and hell I looked to see
> Above the skies from all eternity;
> At last the master and sage instructed me:
> Pen, tablet, heaven, and hell are all in thee"
> (Whinfield, lxviii.).

Yet this disparity does not destroy the interest of the comparison, but rather enhances it. The translators illustrate each other; and it may be, after all, that neither is Omar, just as neither Pope nor Chapman is Homer. Even if the two only give between them the maximum and minimum of the poet's quality, it is something to know what that range is; and we fortunately have now the German version of Bodenstedt with which to compare them both. It must be said, in justice to Mr. Whinfield, that his work seems to grow stronger as it goes on, and that the powerful closing quatrain is rendered with a vigor worthy of Fitzgerald himself:

"Khayyám of burning heart, perchance to burn
In hell, and feed its balefires in thy turn,
Presume not to teach Allah clemency,
For who art thou to teach, or He to learn?"

The same publishers have included in the same valuable "Oriental Series" a versified translation of Jámi's celebrated poem, "Yúsuf and Zulaikha," by Mr. Ralph T. H. Griffith. The poem, as is well known, is founded on the Scriptural story of Joseph and Potiphar's wife, the difference being that in the Persian tradition all is spiritualized, and the allegory, like that of Cupid and Psyche, is held to represent the soul's pursuit of the highest good. Zulaikha is humbled, purified, regenerated, and at last united to the chaste and loyal object of her love. This tale is told through a great many prolonged cantos, which are, after all, no more unreasonable in their length than is the 'Faerie Queene' or the 'Orlando Furioso.' Still, the tale must be owned to be rather cloying with a commonplace and fatiguing sweetness, like that of Oriental sweetmeats; while sometimes we come on curious Eastern comparisons, such as seem to a Western reader to go beyond the verge of the grotesque. For instance,

"Twelve months Zulaikha declined and sank,
And the fair full moon to a crescent shrank;
One eve she sat curved like the young moon with woe,
And her eyes were red like the morning's glow" (p. 60).

Or this, which is perhaps the highest poetic statement of what physicians call *ecchymosis*:

"She would strike her soft knee with her hand till the blue
Of the lotus supplanted the jasmine's hue" (p. 277).

There is much scattered beauty in the volume, but no passages of concentrated power; all is diluted and saccharine.

We pass to another book, which, though it does not consist of translations, can best be grouped with them, especially as much of it is made up of avowed paraphrase. No poet has more just reason to attribute fickleness to the American public than Mr. Edwin Arnold. No English poem since 'Festus' has been received among us with such a spasm of universal favor as his 'Light of Asia'; and as an immediate reaction greeted the arrival of Mr. Bailey's second volume, so has it been with the reception of Mr. Arnold's 'Pearls of the Faith' (Boston: Roberts Bros.). Yet the public has not been wholly to blame. No power can make Mohammedanism as poetic as Buddhism; and the beautiful story of Buddha was to most unlettered readers quite unknown till Mr. Arnold's attractive rendering of it. It may be, also, that Mr. Arnold himself is partly to blame, and that he may have suffered from the great haste of production which, by his own statement, has marked this book. Certainly the work has received but little justice from the critics, for it has in it much that is not only curious, but beautiful. The trouble is, that, apart from the well-known poem, "He who died at Azan"—which cannot be said to be improved in its new form—this volume contains but little that takes hold of the heart. That the defect is not wholly in the intrinsic coldness of the religion it delineates, is clear to those who remember the delight inspired by Lord Houghton's 'Palm Leaves,' and the especial beauty of the religious sayings of the Mohammedan prophetess Rabia, as there versified. Nor can the present book be favorably compared with 'The Song of Songs'—the third book in Mr. Arnold's "triology"—for that is full of fire and picturesqueness, and has, indeed, been criticised rather for undue ardor than for the want of it.

Another work which belongs on the shelf of Oriental poetry is Rückert's 'Wisdom of the Brahmins,' of which the first six books are translated by Rev. C. T. Brooks (Boston: Roberts). Yet it is to be feared that this also is one of the books which do not yield the reader enough to repay the labor they have cost the translator. Some of Rückert's "Strung Pearls," as restrung many years ago by Rev. Dr. Frothingham, have as much pith and beauty as any series of couplets that can be quoted; and this poet's versification is perhaps unequalled in the later German generation. But the test of a book is in its readableness, and the admirable translation of Mr. Brooks cannot make these many pages continuously attractive, even to those who followed the same skilful translator with some difficulty through the 'Layman's Breviary' of Schefer. Yet the reader comes upon couplets every now and then which are as pithy as the author's earlier strains. This, for instance:

"The rough may be planed down, the dull made sharp; with one
Who has too fine a point there's nothing to be done" (p. 41).

Mr. Brooks, in his preface, reminds us that Rückert died so lately as 1866, and that his last rhymed piece was a tribute to President Lincoln.

An attractive little book is 'Mountain Psalms,' by Joseph Victor von Scheffel, translated from the German by Mrs. Francis Brünnow (London: Trübner). Part of the interest lies in the fact that the author of this bit of devout mysticism is the self-same Scheffel who is dear to the heart of every German student, and the uproarious fun of whose "Gaudeamus" has been so well translated by our countryman, Mr. Leland. As in his amusing geological songs the poet has turned the megatheriums and the cave-dwellers into poetry, so here he leads his hermit of Falkenschucht far up the Alps and weaves fog-bank and glacier into triumphant song. In truth, it is the same vigor and animal spirits which carry him through both performances; his ever-climbing monk might be a saintlier twin-brother of that inexhaustible reveller, the knight of Rodenstein, in Scheffel's lively ballad—who swallowed two German villages during his last carouse at the Stag Inn at Heidelberg, bequeathing a third village to the university and his thirst to the students. There is even a touch of the old fun when the pious hermit in the 'Mountain Psalms' stops his climbing for a moment to go fishing on the lake. It should be added that the book is prettily illustrated from the designs in the original German edition.

Miss M. A. Biggs's version of 'Konrad Wallenrod,' from the Polish of Mickiewicz (London: Trübner), is eminently smooth and graceful, but has for English-speaking readers the drawbacks belonging to all Slavic poetry in the proper names it presents. It is needless to point out how much of the beauty of Milton's or of Tennyson's blank verse is due to their use of proper names, whether English or foreign; the "leaves in Vallombrosa," "the wild woods of Broceliande," are familiar to every ear. But when Miss Biggs tells us that

"The nightingales from Kowno's groves of oak
Still with their brethren of Zapuszczan Mount
Converse, as once, in Lithuanian speech" (p. 3),

it is impossible to take much interest in them; we do not know these nightingales. Moreover, there is something revolting in the story itself; we can pardon an humble spy, like Cooper's Harvey Birch, but it is difficult to see any chivalry in one who, like Konrad Wallenrod, so deceives the enemy as to be appointed general of a hostile army, and betrays to defeat and destruction the troops under his own command. Nor can we acquit the Polish poet of fully comprehending his own work, when he takes his motto from Macchiavelli, and proclaims that men should be at once foxes and lions (*bisogna essere volpe e leone*).

Of retranslating the Greek dramatists there is no end; and, in the multiplicity of new versions, one sometimes sighs after the time when there was for these poets no recognized English medium except in honest old prosaic Potter or earlier Francklin. This latter professor and divine dedicates his translation of Sophocles (1788) to the Prince of Wales, with the loyal remark that "Sophocles seems purposely to have waited for the present happy opportunity of making his first appearance amongst us under the patronage of your Royal Highness." Sophocles is now to be congratulated on the further happiness of making still another appearance in the reign of Victoria, and under the auspices of Mr. Robert Whitelaw, late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, and now Assistant Master in Rugby School (London: Rivingtons). He has given us all the seven remaining dramas of Sophocles in a compact and well-printed volume, which at once invites the test of comparison with other versions.

Let us take, for instance, the opening lines of 'Œdipus the King,' best known as 'Œdipus Tyrannus,' a play lately made familiar to Americans by its presentation at Harvard College, and by the pleasing American translation of Mr. W. W. Newell. These lines are thus rendered by Mr. Whitelaw:

"Children—of ancient Cadmus latest birth—
Why in such eager session sit ye here,
With chaplets twined around your suppliant boughs?
And all the city is thick with incense-smoke,
And loud with lamentation and with dirge:
Whereof, O children, choosing not to hear
From lips of others, hither I have come—
I, who am called all-famous Œdipus."

Here the first line is more simple and literal, as well as more poetical, than the

"Children, young care of Cadmus' ancient fold"

in Campbell's version; while, in the second line, both Campbell and Whitelaw lose the effect of μοι, through which the monarch claims the gates of the palace as his own. Mr. W. W. Newell's translation gives it more literally, "at my doors." In the third line, Whitelaw substitutes the modern "chaplet" for the Greek στέμματα, which were in this case boughs decked with wool-tufts, and, as the essence of the supplication lay in these appendages, which gave a sacred immunity to their bearers, it is better to designate them distinctly, as is done by Campbell. In the fifth line there is a more serious variation from the literal Greek. "Lamentation" and "dirge" are a tautology, or very near it; and where a Greek translator commits a tautology he may be quite sure he is wrong. The truth is, that there is no repetition, but an antithesis in the two words παιάνων and στεναγμάτων, the one implying worship, the other lament; and the word "pæan" employed by Campbell, or "holy chant" (Newell), or "sacred songs" (Potter), or even "prayers" (Francklin), would be better than Mr. Whitelaw's "lamentation." Again, in the eighth line, "all-famous Œdipus" is far too brief a summary of the proud and swelling boast furnishing so fit a key-note for the tragedy that is to follow:

ὁ πᾶσι κλεινὸς Οἰδίπους καλούμενος.

Campbell has it more amply,

"Great Œdipus, of universal fame."

We have taken a few lines by way of example, in order to ascertain under what class of translators Mr. Whitelaw is to be ranged. Taking Browning's and Fitzgerald's versions of the 'Agamemnon' to represent two extremes—the one being severely literal, the other containing whole passages that can scarcely even be called paraphrases—we find Mr. Whitelaw's work to belong somewhere between them, being fairly classed, perhaps, with the graceful translations of Dean Milman. In other words, he aims to give not only the truth but the beauty of his author, and succeeds well in both. The best test of this is in his choruses. If there is anything in all literature which stands for pure beauty, it is the chorus of a Greek play. Instead of cold, pure marble, it gives us passion and pathos and music; to translate it is like handling pure flame. To find equivalents for those wondrous compound epithets whose interfusing tints can no more be disentangled than one can dissect the sunset—this would demand an almost preternatural gift of language; nobody can do it well, and it is only a question of degree of failure. Yet in such a competition Mr. Whitelaw surpasses most of his competitors. Take, for instance, that wonderful lyric passage where Œdipus comes forth from the palace after blinding himself in his despair:

ἰὼ σκότου
νέφος ἐμὸν ἀπότροπον, ἐπιπλόμενον ἄφατον,
ἀδάματόν τε καὶ δυσούριστον ὄν.
οἴμοι.
(vv. 1313-16).

Whitelaw's translation is:

"O thou thick cloud of darkness,
That on my life hast settled,
Abominable, unutterable,
Indomitable,
By pitiless winds swept hitherward on me.
Alas!" (p. 55.)

It might seem a confessed failure when a translator needs twenty-three words to render thirteen; but for this the difference between the two languages is largely responsible. There is as much difference between Greek and English in the power of condensation as between English and our American-Indian dialects; and those who have ever heard, on the frontier, the oral translation of an English sentence to an Indian audience know the strength of this comparison. All the last line,

"By pitiless winds swept hitherward on me,"

is but the rendering of a single word, δυσούριστον, for which the briefest and boldest English equivalent would be "cruelly-wafted," or—to relax the grasp of condensation a little—"unkindly-guided-favoringly-on," or, as Liddell and Scott have it, "driven by a too favorable wind." The delicately combined meaning is that the favorable wind has become a source of tragedy in its result; and even Mr. Whitelaw's seven words do not quite exhaust this meaning. Other translators, in being briefer, have been less expressive. Campbell has "too surely wafted on," Newell has "sailing upon me," while Potter and Franklin omit the phrase altogether. Indeed, it is impossible to compare these older translators with the later ones, and not see how great the advance that has been made. One might almost say that the poorest English translation of a Greek play, if executed within the last thirty years, is better than the best which came before that epoch. And among these later versions we have examined none that is, on the whole, more enjoyable or more trustworthy, so far as Sophocles is concerned, than that of Mr. Whitelaw.

LALOR'S CYCLOPÆDIA OF POLITICAL SCIENCE.

Cyclopœdia of Political Science, Political Economy, and of the Political History of the United States. Edited by John J. Lalor. Vol. ii. East India Company—Nullification. Chicago: Melbert B. Cary & Co. 1883.

THE second volume of this work is much superior to the first, both in the number and range of the original articles and in the discrimination exercised in the translations from foreign sources. It is also larger by about two hundred pages than the first volume. Among the contributors who did not appear in the former volume we notice the names of Edward Cary, Haydn Smith, A. S. Bolles, Franklin B. Hough, E. Munroe Smith, Worthington C. Ford, Jos. D. Weeks, A. M. Sullivan, M.P., Henry Fawcett, R. W. Raymond, Ernest Renan, G. Koerner, and A. Leroy-Beaulieu.

Mr. Alexander Johnston, to whom has been assigned the department of Political History of the United States, contributes nearly one-third of the volume. It is impossible to speak too highly of the painstaking carefulness of Mr. Johnston's work. His sense of proportion is excellent, and his accuracy even in small matters remarkable. The more important articles from his pen are those on Electoral Commission, Electoral System, Embargo, Federal Party, Citizen Genet, Habeas Corpus, Jay's Treaty, Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions, and Nullification. There is scarcely any subject connected with the political history of the United States, coming within alphabetical range of the volume, which is not treated with sufficient fulness for the ordinary needs of the professional man, while the authorities for fuller investigation are pointed out to the student.

Mr. Edward Cary contributes articles on Education and the State, and on Gambettism. The latter, which necessarily includes the biography of Gambetta, is the best compendium of French political history since Sedan that we have seen. Mr. A. R. Spofford furnishes articles on the Bureau of Education, Homestead and Exemption Laws, the Navy Department, and the Lobby. It is gratifying to learn that one so near to the lobby as Mr. Spofford, and who has had it so long within his field of vision, has a low estimate of its power and influence, which he thinks have been greatly overrated. There is no such thing, he tells us, as an organized lobby at Washington, but rather a succession of lobbyists, who come and go as this or that interest happens to be affected by legislation. Bad legislation, he adds, is the fruit of ignorance, not of corruption. The baneful influence of the lobbyist is not that he bribes Congressmen, but that he befogs them with *ex-parte* testimony and argument. Prof. E. J. James, of the Normal University of Illinois, furnishes articles on Excise, Emigration and Immigration, Factory Laws, Finance, Insurance, and Labor. Mr. James's acquaintance with the whole range of German investigations of economic and social questions gives to his treatment of these subjects a peculiar value to persons who do not have access to the original works. The article on Finance is, in the main, a summary statement or condensation of the 'Finanzwissenschaft' of Adolph Wagner. The article on American Finance is from the pen of Mr. A. S. Bolles, the author of the 'Financial History of the United States from 1789 to 1860.' Mr. Bolles's article is defective as to the later period of American history—*i. e.*, from 1860 to 1882. It does not give a precise and consecutive statement of the financial transactions of the Government; makes no mention, for instance, of the compound-interest notes, or of the 7-30s, or of the successive refunding operations by which the interest on the public debt has been so greatly reduced. These matters are treated in a broad and general way, it is true; but in a cyclopædia we expect to find all the needful facts and dates arranged in chronological order.

The paper on Fisheries, by G. Browne Goode, is precisely the kind of article which the statesman, editor, professional man, or general reader who desires correct and copious information will find most useful. It embraces everything of importance commercially and statistically to be found in the reports and bulletins of the United States Fish Commission, together with a general survey of foreign fisheries. The fisheries of the world, in the order of their importance, according to Mr. Goode, are those of the United States ($44,870,252), Great Britain ($40,000,000), British North America ($27,000,000), Russia ($22,000,000), France ($17,000,000), and Norway ($12,000,000). The largest fishery in the world is the United States oyster fishery, which yields $13,438,852. The article on Forestry, by Franklin B. Hough, also deserves especial mention. Probably few people in the United States are aware that Germany has nine schools of forestry, Sweden eight, France four, Russia three, Austria seven, and Italy, Switzerland, Spain, Portugal, and Denmark each one.

Among articles of an abstract character, the longest and one of the best is that on Free Trade, by David A. Wells, who also furnishes articles on Extradition and on Navigation Laws. The editor, in a note at the end of the article on Free Trade, promises one in the next volume on Protection from the protectionist point of view. This plan appears to us a mistaken one. There is no more reason for exercising impartiality in this matter, and letting the other side be heard, than there would be for giving the Greenbackers a chance to reply to Mr. Horace White's article on Money, which has a place in the present volume. We make this observation not because we happen to agree with Mr. Wells's view, but because a work of this kind ought to have an opinion of its own as to a question so thoroughly settled in the domain of science that, as Mr. Wells says, "there is not to-day a first-class college or institution of learning in the whole world that would admit or invite to its chair of political economy a person who believed in the theory or expediency of restricting exchanges as a means of increasing popular welfare and abundance."

Mr. Simon Sterne writes the article on Monopolies, bringing to its consideration a great deal of special training, and as much fairness as can be looked for in the present unsettled state of opinion with regard to the railway problem. Mr. Sterne has little confidence in legislative control of railways so long as the civil service remains a shuttlecock in the hands of politicians. The vigor of his remarks upon this point leaves nothing to be desired. "There is scarcely a State in the Union," he says, "in which the adjournment of its legislative body is not hailed with delight, nor its convening regarded with dread by the citizens of the State; and so long as this feeling is justified, it is almost hopeless to clothe such legislative bodies with power sufficiently great to hold other sinister powers in check. Such a transfer of power is quite fairly regarded as making a leap in the dark." On the subject of "land monopoly," Mr. Sterne combats the positions of Mr. Henry George from the same point of view, and with equal terseness, thus:

"The ownership [of land] by the government means substantially the control of such ownership by those who have, for the time being, possession of the reins of government; and government is as yet so defectively organized, so little even in free countries does it represent

either the will or the interests of the whole people, and so far are the incumbents of official positions from subordinating their own personal interests, and the interests of their families and friends, to that of the public weal, that such ownership by the public, which in other words means control by the politician of all the landed property of the community, would create a tyranny so burdensome and so intolerable, and create an unequal taxation so monstrous, that nothing in modern history would at all form a parallel."

Mr. Sterne also furnishes the article on Legislation.

The article on Nationality, by Prof. Munroe Smith, of Columbia College, contains nearly everything that a person could look for under that title—even the laws and customs regulating citizenship in Guatemala, Hayti, and Monaco. The last work of the late Prof. Cliffe-Leslie is found in this volume under the titles: Fictions in Law and Political Economy, Guilds, Interest, and Historical Method. Mr. John W. Clampitt furnishes a number of articles on legal subjects, including one on Military Commissions, which gives a résumé of the trial of Mrs. Surratt, whom Mr. Clampitt pronounces an innocent woman, he having been her counsel on the trial. Mr. John Fiske writes articles on the House of Commons and the House of Lords, and also on Great Britain. Mr. F. W. Whitridge contributes those on Instructions and Trial by Jury; Mr. J. C. Bancroft Davis, one on the Geneva Arbitration; Mr. G. Koerner, one on the Monroe Doctrine; and Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, one on Elective Judiciary. Mr. R. W. Raymond brings together in readable form a great deal of information respecting Mines and Mining Laws and Customs in the United States. Mr. Worthington C. Ford writes several good articles on economic subjects, including one on the Internal Revenue of the United States. The subject of Municipal Bonds is treated by Mr. Geo. Walton Green, who gives an outline of the litigation which has resulted from attempts at repudiation of debts by cities and towns. One of the best articles in the work is that of Max Eberhardt on the German Empire. The article on Mohammedanism by Ernest Renan, although only five pages in length, is a profound disquisition on the state of Arabian society and on Oriental modes of thought contemporaneous with the founder of that religion.

Young Japan. By J. R. Black. 2 vols. 8vo. Baker, Pratt & Co. 1883.

"To the dignity of history, this book"—in two well-printed volumes of nearly one thousand pages—"makes no pretension." Large portions of the work consist of extracts, some of which are quite long, from Alcock, Oliphant, Mitford, the British Blue Books, and one American author, Mr. E. H. House. Most of the remainder is a rearrangement of the voluminous matter collected by the author from the newspapers of which he was formerly editor. These were the *Japan Herald*, the *Japan Gazette*, and the *Far East* (a monthly magazine, illustrated with photographs, published at Yokohama), and the *Nishin Shinjishi* (Daily Newspaper), owned and edited by him in Tōkiō. This latter was the first newspaper "worthy of the name" published in the Japanese language. Its freedom of thought soon brought the proprietor into contact with the Mikado's Government. A few cunning officers, by a sharp game of heathenish trickery (which, in method, bears a surprising resemblance to some of the wrecking operations of New York financiers), "transferred" the plant and paper, so that it is now an "official" organ. This turn of fortune was a killing blow to the former owner; and though he lived several years afterward engaging in various precarious enterprises of journalism in China and Japan, his loss of health and happiness dated from his failure in Tōkiō.

One wonders, first and last, what is the reason for the existence of these portly volumes, costing an eagle, since almost all their matter, even to details, is already accessible in the books which now fill the overburdened shelves in the library of works on Japan. The book in its present form will be read almost exclusively by old residents in the treaty ports, but hardly by the general public. Their substance could have easily been presented in a duodecimo, to the advantage of the buyer's purse and the reader's mind. The style of narration is simple, clear, and garrulous, and needs a large correction for national parallax, since British eyes can see very much of justification in the policy of Sir Rutherford Alcock, Sir Harry Parkes, and the Foreign Office in London, which no Japanese or American can possibly see. The tone of the book impresses one with the idea that Mr. Black had the fear of his countrymen, especially the official portion of them, before his eyes, and that American opinions on Japanese subjects were his especial horror; or, to state it mildly, such un-British notions seemed to him unorthodox and dangerous.

The book partakes largely of the nature of the author in many curious features. A warm-hearted Scotchman, a rover from his native heather in many parts of the earth, a musician and singer, a photographer, a journalist, and at last a writer of books, he was clever in everything and excellent in nothing. A man of delightful presence and magnetic personality, a generous friend, though not a favorite of fortune, he died while engaged in the task of writing 'Young Japan.' A posthumous chapter and index have been added by his executors, and the book, "printed at the private printing-office of the author, No. 16 Yokohama, Japan," is a good specimen of typographic art. Its sub-title is "Yokohama and Yedo: A Narrative of the Settlement and the City from the Signing of the Treaties in 1858 to the Close of the Year 1879. With a Glance at the Progress of Japan, during a Period of Twenty-one Years."

James Monroe, in his Relations to the Public Service during Half a Century, 1776 to 1826. By Daniel C. Gilman, President of the Johns Hopkins University. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883. 12mo, pp. 287.

It has become the fashion to disparage the abilities of Mr. Monroe, and certainly, in comparison with either his predecessors or his immediate successors, he must pass as a second-rate man. But it is no disparagement to a statesman to rank him after the giants of those days, and there are few of his successors who have so dignified their high office by the combination of personal character, statesmanlike abilities, and thoroughness of preparation. A man who was prominently mentioned as a successor to Jefferson, and who had taken so active a part in the diplomatic relations of three administrations, cannot be thought in any sense an unworthy incumbent of the office. Add to this that his name is inseparably associated with a great public principle, and we see good reason for including him in the series of "American Statesmen."

President Gilman's remarks upon the subject of his memoir are worth citing (p. 213):

"He has suffered by comparison with four or five illustrious men, his seniors in years and his superiors in genius, who were chiefly instrumental in establishing this Government on its firm basis. He was not the equal of Washington in prudence, of Marshall in wisdom, of Hamilton in constructive power, of Jefferson in genius for politics, of Madison in persistent ability to think out an idea and to persuade others of its importance. He was in early life enthusiastic to rashness, he was a devoted adherent to partisan views, he was sometimes despondent and sometimes irascible; but as he grew older his judgment was disciplined, his self-control became secure, his patriotism overbalanced the considerations of party. Political opponents rarely assailed the purity of his motives or the honesty of his conduct. He was a very good civil-service reformer, firmly set against appointments to office for any unworthy reason."

Perhaps the best evidence of Monroe's genuine statesmanship is the fact that under his Administration party dissensions died out, and the era of good feeling set in—for a moment. The account of his diplomatic performance in France during Washington's Administration, which is the least creditable part of his career, is one of the most entertaining parts of the volume. Whatever defects marked his temper and judgment were most conspicuous at this time and in these relations. But what has impressed us most in his history, as here related, is his course during Madison's Administration—the soundness and good sense of his letters to the President in relation to General Armstrong; his prompt and sagacious action at the time of the attack upon Washington—his assumption of the duties of Secretary of War being the turning-point in the administration of that department. He was equal to the situation, and it was a very difficult one: we cannot say more of any man than that.

Nevertheless, Mr. Monroe's greatness—if we may call it greatness—was that of the man of action rather than the thinker, and for this reason he appears little by the side of his predecessors, the men who *thought out* for this nation the principles of independence, organic law, and national policy. So, with regard to the Monroe doctrine, it may very well be that, as is frequently asserted, it was formulated by the Secretary of State rather than the President. For all that, as President Gilman well shows (p. 215), his whole public career was an embodiment of the principles in question:

"The one idea which he represents consistently from the beginning to the end of his career is this, that America is for Americans. He resists the British sovereignty in his early youth; he insists on the importance of free navigation in the Mississippi; he negotiates the purchase of Louisiana and Florida; he gives a vigorous impulse to the prosecution of the second war with Great Britain when neutral rights were endangered; finally, he announces the 'Monroe doctrine.'"

We must not close without calling attention to the admirable bibliography of works relating to Monroe and the Monroe doctrine in the appendix, prepared by Mr. J. F. Jameson.

The War Between Peru and Chile, 1879–1882. By Clements R. Markham, C.B., F.R.S. R. Worthington 1883.

The accounts hitherto published of this war have been almost entirely from the Chilian side, the most important being the elaborate work of Señor Mackenna, published at Santiago, and the excellent history by Señor Arana which was reviewed in these columns last year. Mr. Markham has determined to write a history from the Peruvian side. He was well fitted for the task by former residence in the country, by familiarity with its language and people, and by study of their customs and habits for nearly thirty years. He is, in fact, a well-known authority on Peru. Under these circumstances, his book was looked forward to with much interest, in the expectation that it would present a view of the Peruvian side of the contest which would be worthy of careful study. It is impossible to deny that

this expectation is not realized. The book is filled with epithets rather than calm judgments, and is so violently partisan as to be unworthy of credence. It represents the Peruvians as a chivalric and noble people, fighting gallantly for their homes, while the Chilians are a scheming, cruel race, spreading devastation and bloodshed. The Chilians are constantly compared to Pizarro and his followers, but while "the worst of the older conquerors sought for gold, their Chilian imitators wanted to appropriate manure." The origin of hostilities is traced to an insatiable desire on the part of Chili for conquest and war, and the seizure by Peru and Bolivia of the nitrate establishments owned by Chilian subjects within their territory is declared to have been perfectly justifiable. Peru is represented to have been unprepared for war, and Chili to have been scheming for years to bring it about; the Peruvian troops are undisciplined volunteers, fighting like heroes though lacking military training, while the Chilians are well organized, well armed, and well drilled, but animated by the spirit of butchery; Grau's "deed of patriotic heroism will never be forgotten," but Lynch was merely a freebooter and blackmailer—an "experienced cattle-lifter."

This is the tone of the whole book. It might well have been written by a native Peruvian; and, if nothing more can be said on their side of the case, it will only confirm the impression which has been hitherto received, that the Chilians gained the victory because they were the superior race—more sober, industrious, and intelligent, capable of greater endurance, and determined to maintain what they deemed to be their rights by actual deeds, and not by proclamations and bombast.

American Humorists. By the Rev. H. R. Haweis. Funk & Wagnalls.

Mr. Haweis has collected into a small volume his lectures on American humorists. These are Washington Irving, Dr. Holmes, J. R. Lowell, Artemus Ward, Mark Twain, and Bret Harte. His account of these writers is mostly random talk, founded on no critical principles; and the very fact that he lumps them all together as "humorists" shows clearly enough, if there were not plenty of other evidence, that he brings little acumen to his task. If Irving is a humorist, surely we need some different term to define A. Ward; and if by a humorist is meant any one with whom the production of humorous literary effects is the efficient cause of composition, then such writers as Lowell, whose wit and satire have always some serious object, must come under a different head. If we apply "humorist" with so little discrimination, what is to be done with the wits, the satirists, the jesters, the wags, the buffoons, and the clowns? "Funny man" is a convenient term for a certain kind of writer; but will the time come when some successor of Mr. Haweis will imagine "funny man" to be a sufficiently descriptive epithet to apply to Pope, or Swift, or Butler? Mr. Haweis's lectures are to a considerable extent made up of extracts from the writers he deals with, and, though his powers of analysis are not great, he enjoys so thoroughly the good things that he sets before his readers, that quarrelling with him for this, or for his discursive, disjointed, and inconsequent style, is out of the question.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, G. Colin Clout's Calendar. The Record of a Summer. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Bach, Alberto B. On Musical Education and Vocal Culture. Third edition, revised and enlarged. Scribner & Welford.
Braune, W. Gothic Grammar. B. Westermann & Co.
Brockhaus's Conversations Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 56-60 (concluding vol. iv.). Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus; New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Brocklehurst, T. U. Mexico To-Day, and a Glance at the Prehistoric Remains and Antiquities of the Montezumas. Scribner & Welford.
Campbell, Helen. The Housekeeper's Year-Book. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 50 cents.
Clay, Charles M. The Modern Hagar: a Novel. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1 50.
Connecticut at the National and State Capitals, 1883. Hartford: *Evening Post* Association.
Craig, T. A Treatise on Projections. United States Coast and Geodetic Survey. Washington: R. D. Cutts.
Creighton, Louisa. Stories from English History. Thos. Whittaker. $1 25.
Eve-Sidgwick-Abbott. Three Lectures on Subjects connected with the Practice of Education. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Fasnacht, G. E. A Synthetic French Grammar for Schools. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Fort, G. F. Medical Economy During the Middle Ages. J. W. Bouton.
Foster, W. E. Libraries and Readers. F. Leypoldt. 50 cents.
Free-Trade Speeches of the Right Hon. C. P. Villiers, M.P. With a Political Memoir. In two vols. Scribner & Welford.
Froude, J. A. Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle. Prepared for publication by Thomas Carlyle. In 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.
Galdós, B. P. Marianela. Wm. S. Gottsberger.
Gautier, Judith. Richard Wagner and his Poetical Work, from "Rienzi" to "Parsifal." Boston: A. Williams & Co.
Green, A. T. "Eureka"; or, The Golden Door Ajar. Cincinnati: A. G. Collins.
Green, S. S. Libraries and Schools. F. Leypoldt. 50 cents.
Halévy, L. Criquette. 18th ed. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.
Havergal, Frances R. Royal Grace and Loyal Gifts. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Hewins, Miss C. M. Books for the Young. F. Leypoldt. 25 cents.
Hoppus, Mary A. M. A Story of Carnival. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Humphreys, Dr. F. The Humphreys Family in America. Part 1. New York.
Labiche et Martin. Le Voyage de Monsieur Perrichon. New York: William R. Jenkins. 20 cents.
Lalor, J. J. Cyclopædia of Political Science, Political Economy, and of the Political History of the United States. Vol. ii. East India Company—Nullification. Chicago: Melbert B. Cary & Co.
Leroy-Beaulieu, A. L'Empire des Tsars. Vol. ii. Les Institutions. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Littell's Living Age. Vol. clvi. January-March, 1883. Boston: Littell & Co. $2.
Lockhart, J. G. The Life of Robert Burns. Revised by W. S. Douglass. Scribner & Welford.
McElroy, J. The Red Acorn: a Novel. Chicago: Henry A. Sumner & Co. $1.
Moncel et Geraldy. L'Électricité come Force Motrice. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Piñeyro, E. Poetas Famosos del Siglo XIX. Madrid.
Pryde, D. Highways of Literature. Funk & Wagnalls. 15 cents.
Pusey, Rev. E. B. Sermons for the Church's Seasons, from Advent to Trinity. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1 75.
Robinson, F. W. The Hands of Justice. Harper's Franklin Square Library.
Sand, George. Correspondance, 1812-1876. Vol. iv. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.
Savage, M. J. The Modern Sphinx, and Some of her Riddles. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.
Schmitz, L. Dora. Miscellaneous Travels of J. W. Goethe. Scribner & Welford.
Selections from the Poetry of Robert Browning. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Shirley, W. S. A Selection of Leading Cases in the Common Law. 2d ed. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Van Dyke, J. C. Books, and How to Use Them. Fords, Howard & Hulbert. $1.
Yonge, Charlotte M. Stray Pearls: Memoirs of Margaret de Ribaumont, Viscountess of Bellaise. Macmillan & Co. $1 50.

Fine Arts.

FIFTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

At the Academy the influence of the new style is stronger and more generally prevalent than it has been before, so that, exclusive of the decidedly feeble and crude works exhibited—the proportion of which shows no abatement—the collection substantially resembles that of the Society of American Artists, to which it is certainly not inferior. Some of the leading artists, as very noticeably Mr. Winslow Homer, exhibit works of distinctly inferior merit, as compared with what they have formerly shown, while some others still sustain their former character, if they do not, in many cases, show any decided advance. We especially regret to find Mr. Homer so far below his mark His single contribution, "The Coming Away of the Gale," No. 290, contains all the bad qualities and mannerisms, the tendency to which we noticed in his contributions to the last Water-Color Exhibition, while it shows few, if any, of the good qualities which gave interest to those works. The design in this case is awkward. The principal figure is conspicuously out of proportion and ill-drawn; the lines of drapery are neither graceful nor natural; the color is monotonous in the extreme—everything being suffused in that purplish hue which is peculiar to Mr. Homer, but which we have not before seen him carry to the same painful extent. Nevertheless, the picture has a breezy effect, and the expression of the nearly-spent fury of the storm on the white foaming sea is in a measure fine and impressive. Mr. George H. Smillie's "Massachusetts Coast," No. 298, represents a calm sea reflecting light gray clouds, with a rocky promontory reaching out into it, and pleasantly-broken rolling upland as a foreground. It is an agreeable picture, though treated in the artist's usual manner, which is growing very conventional. Mr. Arthur Quartley's designs are strikingly similar in character one to another. He, like Mr. H. P. Smith, in whose works we noticed the same tendency in the Water-Color Exhibition, confines himself very closely to one class of effects. We have, in each of them, the same rounded gray and white clouds, with rifts showing blue sky, and water in the same state of slight agitation, and in the same roily condition. The sky in this instance is, however, a particularly fine one. The quality of the blue is very aerial and beautiful, and the white light and pearly gradations are very just in tone and tender in execution. But the water is as mannered and unnatural as ever. Mr. Quartley's powers are considerable, and we regret that he does not employ them more fully in giving expression to accurate and extended observation of nature.

Mr. H. W. Robbins has an exceedingly good subject—"Early Autumn, Adirondacks," No. 324. It is admirably conceived in light and shade, with well-proportioned masses. The distance and middleground are successful in drawing and color, but the foreground is conventional and feeble in both these respects. Mr. Robbins has good feeling for landscape, but his works want more freshness and complete veracity. There are some good landscapes by Mr. John L. Fitch, among which No. 340, "A Pastoral," is noticeable, as showing true feeling for nature and considerable power of painting. Mr. Fitch is not an imitator of the French style; but he possesses many of the good qualities, without the faults, of that style. His color values are excellent, and his execution is broad, yet full of character. Without omitting essential details, he subordinates them well to the entire effect of his subject. There are, however, no very subtle or high qualities in his work. He does not express, any more than our artists generally do, those essential elements of beauty which alone give the landscape significance to the ideal painter. Mr. Jarvis McEntee's "Autumn Memory," No. 353, is another repetition of the subject which he first invented about twenty years ago. There is, perhaps, more strength of tone and vigor of execution than formerly, but there is little, if any, more truth. The drawing is weak, the colors lifeless, and the total effect heavy and leaden. The subject is a picturesque woodland brooklet on a cloudy November day. The ground is strewn with fallen leaves, and naked trees rise against the sky. Notwithstanding the restraint of color in such a subject, it would, in nature, be various and glowing. Even a single dried leaf, if one examines it, will usually be found to contain many changes and modifications of hue. And, in addition to the changes of local color, there will be the changes of light, shade, and reflection. In a litter of such leaves—especially when they are of different kinds—the variety will, of course, be practically infinite. The artist who would faithfully picture the beauty of such a leafy foreground as this will be obliged to employ a wider range of the resources of his palette than Mr. McEntee has done. The distance, also, would show a purer gray, and the tree trunks more color.

Mr. Eastman Johnson, again, is far below his mark this spring. The serious defects of color which we noticed in his work last year are repeated with increased emphasis in his contributions to the present exhibition. They are the most conspicuous in his "Portrait of a Child," No. 348. We are growing weary of the task of pointing out this faultful habit of painting the shadows of objects in uniform brown, whatever their real local colors may be; yet it is a very constant habit with a large number of painters. The quality of the brown employed seems to vary with different individuals. With some, as with Mr. Bridgman, it is bituminous; with others, as with Mr. Vedder, it is more golden; but with Mr. Johnson it is a peculiarly disagreeable purplish brown. In the painting of flesh, or of objects of any warm color, it is perhaps more natural (though it is never justifiable) to paint shadows in brown; but in this picture the child's light-blue garments are shaded with precisely the same brown that is used in shading the steps upon which she is seated. We do not remember ever to have seen a more glaring intance of the violation of right principles of coloring.

In contrast to this there is a great deal of truth of color in Mr. C. Y. Turner's "The Harvest Meal," No. 624, in the corridor. It represents a party of farm laborers dining in the open air in front of a farmhouse. The chiaroscuro is freer than usual from those faults of excessive shade which we have before had occasion to notice in Mr. Turner's work. It is such that while there is much strength of light and dark, there is no loss of color in the shadows. The picture is noticeable for an unusually successful expression of open sunlight, which is secured by the remarkably just management of the color values. The sun-burnt complexions of the men whose faces fall in shadow are almost Venetian in character. The head of the figure to the right is particularly fine for combined fulness of color and strength of shade against the brightness beyond. The corner of the table, also, which projects in shadow against this light, is very subtle and beautiful in its values, with cool sky-reflection on its white cloth. The drawing is rough, but, save in a few passages of drapery, it is good.

Mr. C. A. Platt's "Old House at Chartres," No. 601, is a good ragged sketch, in which the broad relations of things are well rendered. There is a good deal of cleverness, too, in Mr. Percy Moran's "Woods in Winter," No. 595. But the color is impure, and the execution is dangerously slight and facile. It is the facility of immaturity, which can hardly fail to impede, if it does not wholly arrest, progress. There is some very good painting in No. 590, "Two Pipes," by T. Alex. Harrison. The picture deserves a better place than that which it occupies on the floor. Nos. 581 and 586, "Le Viatique, Finisterre," and "Market Day, Pont-Aven," by Clifford P. Grayson, are clever sketches of French peasant life. The very large canvas, high up facing the stairway, No. 629, "Alexander at Persepolis," by Robert Hinckley, is a good illustration of the slight value of academic correctness of execution when not joined with real powers of design. In the South Gallery is a picture by Mr. Harry Chase, No. 365, "Herring Boats Preparing for Sea," which shows feeling and native ability, but is so highly conventional in treatment that we fear the artist cannot reasonably hope to make further progress in this direction. Mr. Chase, like Mr. Quartley, too rarely varies his theme, and his methods have too little individual freshness and truth. Mr. George Inness contributes but one picture, No. 232, "A Summer Morning," which is of very inferior merit. The more obvious color values are fairly well rendered, indeed, but they are not enough to make an interesting and beautiful picture. The most meritorious part of the work is, we think, the passage of furthest distance.

Mr. T. Moran's "Pass of Glencoe, Scotland," No. 221, presents a grand subject in a clever and facile but highly conventional way. Mr. Moran's effects are apt to be too much forced in their contrasts of light and shade. The calm and temperate effects of nature rarely seem to attract his interest. His method of execution appears to be based upon that of the English landscape painters of the last generation, with comparatively slight modification. Mr. Gilbert Gaul exhibits his "Cold Comfort on the Outpost," No. 370, which we noticed in the last Brooklyn Exhibition. We find no occasion to abate the terms of commendation with which we then spoke of it. We would, however, suggest that even Mr. Gaul (in common with our other figure painters, in relation to whom we have before made the suggestion) might derive great profit from the study of such works as those of the English painters, Wm. Hunt and John Lewis. The modern schools afford nothing else, of their kind, so instructive. Mr. J. G. Brown's "A Story of the Sea," No. 258, represents an interesting old sailor explaining the parts of the model of a ship to a wondering boy. As a work of art, however, it exhibits this artist's characteristic mannerisms. No. 368, "Golden Grain," by Edward Gay, is a sweet bit of landscape, very excellent and effective in light and tone, and graceful in composition. Mr. Gay has a fine feeling for landscape. The beautiful aspects of nature do not appeal to him in vain. He has learned a good deal from the art of others, but he retains his own freshness and integrity of conception and execution.

Mr. J. H. Beard, in "The Race for Life," No. 205, makes the first attempt that we have noticed to embody in a work of art the results of recent scientific investigations regarding the movements of animals; but the result is, as might have been foreseen, entirely unsatisfactory. The movement of the dark-colored hound, in this picture, is, to the eye, at once excessively ungraceful and unnatural. The notion entertained by Dr. Stillman and others, who have engaged in these investigations, that the facts of animal action, ascertained by means of instantaneous photography, can have the slightest bearing upon art, is a fallacy which has grown out of a fundamental misconception of the nature of art and of its relation to science. To the artist, physical facts have no importance except in so far as they have effect upon the eye. Whatever may be the actual figure assumed, from instant to instant, by an animal in normally rapid motion, it is, happily, a fact that, to the eye, the movement is graceful, and is never in the least like the series of distorted forms which Dr. Stillman has so admirably shown us are actually assumed. We have no doubt of the facts as science presents them, but we have reason to be thankful that such facts make no impression on the eye. From the artist's point of view, the movements of animals were as well understood at Khorsabad, and on the Athenian Acropolis, as they are to-day.

"Taming a Bird—Portraits of Justine and Bayard Cutting," No. 146, by Anna Lea Merritt, is, we think, the best example of portrait-painting in the gallery, though in conception and treatment it verges on prettiness. This is shown especially in the lips, which are too cherry-red, and in the excessive redness of some of the flesh shadows—more particularly of the hands. Mr. H. Bolton Jones is a painter of marked ability as regards rendering of the color and light of summer landscape. He manages greens with unusual success, presenting their freshness and vividness without crudeness; and his color relations are so just that few artists equal him in expression of sunlight. In his "October, near South Orange," No. 116, the tone is masterly, the verdure is living, and the sky, with its high white clouds, is, we think, the finest in the gallery No. 87, "A Votary of Art," by Benoni Irwin, is worthy of notice as being truer in color than works of this class are apt to be. "The Story of Œnone," No. 462, by F. D. Millet, is, to our minds, an essentially meaningless design. Technically it is but careful and clever academic work, without the merits of execution which we have noticed in some of Mr. Millet's water-color drawings. We recognize in Mr. Millet an artist of marked ability, and we wish he would always employ it in a worthy manner.

There seems no occasion, even did our space permit, to say more upon particular works. We have endeavored to criticise justly and helpfully, but have found ourselves obliged to call attention to so many defects that we fear we may have seemed almost captious. The fact is that the defects of our art are the inevitable result of various abnormal influences, some of which we have endeavored to point out. But, in addition to these, there is another which is now everywhere active, and which sadly hampers the freedom of the artist and complicates the task of the critic. We allude to what may be called the commercial influence. The production of pictures is approaching the nature of a manufacture, and their sale is rapidly passing—indeed, it has very nearly already passed—out of the hands of the artist. It is becoming, all over the world, a mercantile business of great magnitude, conducted by commercial dealers who act as mediators between the artist and the public, and whose sole object is naturally to make money. The style of work which the dealer demands of the artist is, of course, that which he can most readily dispose of. The dealer has not, himself, any preference for one style or quality of art over another. He simply wants what he can sell. He makes it his business to find out who among the rich men of a community are the most likely to be willing to buy pictures, and what sort of pictures they will soonest buy. Now, the average rich man is not highly cultivated in matters of art; and if he cares for it at all, it is chiefly as an appendage which he supposes he ought to possess to the general elegance of his household. The art which will attract such a patron must present those salient and obvious effects which he can appreciate; and such, accordingly, is the kind of art which the dealer demands of the artist. A standard is thus created to which the artist who would gain his bread by painting must, more or less strictly, conform. To this he must at least subordinate any true feeling or cultivation of his own. Matters have now reached a point where the most refined and excellent painting finds no sufficient and steady encouragement to enable artists to cultivate their best powers. The dealers can find no buyers for such work, and the artist must either conform to the demands of the market, or get on without patronage.

The pressure of this commercial standard is now enormous, both in Europe and America, and it is doing more perhaps than anything else to retard progress. A change must come before we may hope for better things—a change which can come through the growth of individual cultivation only. Artists can go but a little way in advance of public taste. They depend upon the moral as well as the material support of the public. At present the individuals who possess any degree of love for art and intelligent appreciation of real excellence are, in America espe cially, so few that their influence is hardly appreciable.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 26, 1883.

The Week.

It is reported from Washington that a strenuous effort is making by certain Machine politicians to secure the appointment of a man of their own way of thinking as Chief Examiner under the Civil-Service Commission. It will be remembered that according to the original plan, and, indeed, according to the Civil-Service Reform Bill as passed, the Chief Examiner was to be appointed, or, as the wording is, "employed," by the Civil-Service Commission itself, unquestionably for the reason that there should be complete harmony of views as to objects and means between the Commission and its chief executive officer. But in order to obviate a constitutional difficulty, it was thought best that the President should appoint this officer, with the consent of the Senate, while the clear intent of the law, namely, that the Chief Examiner should be virtually selected by the Commission, remains the same. The President, however, saw fit, in the first instance, not to wait for the Civil-Service Commission to make and present its choice. He used the office of Chief Examiner as a convenient means for the very questionable purpose of eliminating Colonel Burt from the public service in a roundabout way, and when this discreditable performance was accomplished, it was promptly discovered again that there was no hurry at all about the appointment of a Chief Examiner, and that it might properly be put off until the Civil-Service Commission should have drawn up rules and got fairly prepared for practical work. It was so put off, and as the rules have now been submitted to the President, the time for making the appointment has evidently at last come.

We take it for granted that the Civil-Service Commission will honestly and zealously endeavor to make the reform contemplated by the law a reality. That all the powerful political interest born of the spoils system will spare no effort to throw every possible obstacle in its way, is a matter of course. The very first and most essential thing required to enable the Commission to overcome these difficulties is that they should be faithfully and efficiently seconded by their own official instruments, and especially by the man whose business it will be practically to conduct or supervise the examinations. If that officer is inefficient or unsound in his faith, and disposed to play into the hands of the spoils politicians, the whole experiment will be apt to fall into ridicule. It is very natural, therefore, that those who want this attempt at reform to miscarry at the very start, should now make an effort to have a man who, directly or indirectly, will work in their sense put into the Chief Examiner's office. And it is equally natural that they should turn to the President for aid in the execution of this scheme. This is, perhaps, a proper moment to remind him as well as the country once more of the fact that the success of the Civil-Service Reform law rests practically in his hands. The Civil-Service Commission is in the first place only an advisory body. The rules which it draws up are to be submitted to the President for his approval. He may adopt them as they are presented, or change them as he pleases. As they come out of his hands with his approval, he will in a certain sense be responsible for them.

We are advised from Washington that the section of the Civil-Service Reform Act which makes it a misdemeanor for any commissioner, examiner, or any person in the public service, wilfully and corruptly to interfere with the examinations for the benefit or to the detriment of any person examined or to be examined, is "severely criticised by certain parties in the departments." The point of the criticism is that this provision will be taken advantage of by persons who do not succeed in the examinations, to accuse the examiners of unfair dealing as to the ratings, and to harass them with criminal prosecutions. We venture to predict that nothing of the kind will happen if the examiners endeavor to be strictly just and to act upon fair and easily-intelligible principles. It is true that the first impulse of a great many of the persons failing in the examinations will be to revile the examiners. This has always been so, and would continue to be so even if the provision of the law above referred to did not exist. But while this cannot be avoided under any circumstances, there will be but very few if any persons willing to advertise their failure and incompetency by means of a lawsuit. The examiners need not borrow any trouble on that account.

A curious scene occurred last week in the Milwaukee Municipal Court—a tribunal which, we presume, corresponds to a police court with us. It seems that Miss Kate Kane, a "lady lawyer," is a member of its bar, in full practice, and "on several occasions has exhausted the patience of the Court by methods of procedure not in harmony with the rulings of the Judge." Not content with exhausting the Judge's patience, however, she on Friday imprudently resorted to a new method of displaying her dissatisfaction with his rulings by throwing things at him. She first tried to shy an inkstand at him, and, failing in this attempt, she dashed a glass of water in his face. The trouble arose out of the Judge's refusal to assign her as counsel to a prisoner who wished to have the benefit of her professional services. The Court fined Miss Kane $50 for contempt, which, however, did not quiet her, for "she spoke her mind freely to the Judge, using anything but gentle expressions." This little incident does not tend to show that the admission of women to the bar, necessary as it may be on other grounds, will have a softening effect on the tone of professional manners.

Railroad and ecclesiastical interests have again come in collision in Brooklyn. Some time ago Mr. William Richardson—"Deacon" Richardson, as he is popularly called—found it "a work of necessity" to lay railroad tracks in Seventh Avenue on a Sunday. It was the fault of the courts and the people who lived on the line of the street that the work became one of necessity. Some of the citizens were so unreasonable as not to want a railroad on Seventh Avenue, and the courts issued an injunction in their behalf. In order to get the better of these designing persons and of the Judge, the good Deacon set his laborers to work on the Sabbath day, and finished the job before the inhabitants of Seventh Avenue recovered from their astonishment. The temporal courts did nothing about it, but the spiritual court of the Hanson Place Baptist Church, of which the Deacon was a member, summoned him for trial on a charge of "disorderly walk." Upon a careful investigation, his walk was found to be so extremely and inexcusably disorderly that he was promptly expelled. Later he professed profound and bitter repentance, and upon promising not to offend again was received back into the fold. There is now a chance for the Deacon to repent once more. This time it is only a very little one, the laying not of tracks but of a mere switch, still on Seventh Avenue. The particulars of the Deacon's defence are as yet unknown, except that he says the switch-laying was "a work of necessity." Probably the Hanson Place Church will regard it as a work of necessity to discipline him again, for it may well be asked, How shall the Penal Code be enforced against rumsellers and bootblacks and newsboys, if "truly good men," even Deacons, may violate it with impunity? But in any event the Deacon's stock of repentance cannot easily be exhausted.

Texas Siftings complains that "Colonel" Varnell, who some weeks ago assaulted a girl who was taking a walk with him in the moonlight at an evening party, and murdered her father when he came to the rescue, has simply fled to an adjoining county, in which the officers of the law are making no serious efforts to arrest him. It also alleges, in answer to an indignant contemporary—the Honey Grove *Independent*—that while it is true that the penitentiary in Texas is crowded, "murderers who have friends or money" are seldom found in it, and that most of its inmates are petty thieves, who are prevented from cheating justice simply by want of funds. In countries in which justice is venal the petty thief always goes to the wall. The very nature of his crime makes him an object of disgust to a magistrate or constable who is "on the make."

A devoted young High Church curate has got into trouble of a curious kind in London. He was called upon by a romantic devotee, who begged him to come and see her "on a matter deeply affecting her happiness," and, she feared, her life. The good man, distressed and sympathetic, made the visit, and learned,

to his dismay, that the lady loved him madly. She told him, however, that she knew her passion was hopeless, and was prepared to resign him, and die single. But as a parting favor she begged that he would kiss her. The curate, though somewhat alarmed, complied with her request, as any gentleman would under the circumstances, and left her in tears. A few days afterward he received a neat little parcel, which he found, on opening it, to contain an instantaneous photograph of the scene, accompanied by a letter offering him a round dozen of the impressions for twenty pounds apiece. "Negotiations on the subject," according to the story, are now going on, which seems a sad pity. We trust it is not too late to suggest to the reverend victim that he had better save his money, and put the photograph in the hands of the police. As his little adventure has become a subject of public notoriety on both sides of the Atlantic, the damage to his reputation has been "discounted." Paying money to "hush up" an affair of this kind when its details are already known to several millions of people, is most unprofitable employment of it.

The business of office brokerage still seems to flourish in Washington, if we may judge from the advertisements which now and then appear in the newspapers of that city: "A lady will give one-half of salary for a position as copyist in one of the departments as long as position is retained." "A reliable gentleman will furnish the best political papers and pay $150 to any one who will help him secure a position of any kind in Washington." "A gentleman of experience will pay $100 to any one who will secure him a position in one of the departments." And so on. The "lady," and the "reliable gentleman," and the "gentleman of experience," undoubtedly received the next morning, through the addresses given in their advertisements, a number of offers from persons pretending to be able to procure them the desired appointments. In most cases these persons will insist upon an advance of money, a sort of a retainer, to insure the good faith of the applicant, and that is then usually the last the applicant hears of them. In other cases the broker may have an acquaintance with an "appointment clerk" of a department or a chief of division which will enable him to have interviews with those officials and give him the appearance of influence. The applicant is then likely to be bled repeatedly without getting any employment in the end. But sometimes such brokers are acquainted with Congressmen from whom they solicit recommendations for friends, for which they get pay without the Congressman who gives his name being aware of it. We remember a striking occurrence of this kind which happened some years ago. A prominent Senator, a man of the highest character, was asked by a man from his State, who frequently called upon him, to give his recommendation for some subordinate place to a crippled soldier who was in great distress. The Senator good-naturedly did so, and the person who had solicited his recommendation received $100 from the man who got the appointment. The signature of the Senator had thus been sold for $100. How many recommendations of men of high standing and irreproachable character have been sold in like manner, nobody can tell.

Mr. Porter, "the strong man of the Tariff Commission," who has been sending home those exposures of British free trade, is being called to account by the English *Ironmonger*, as well as by Mr. Titus Salt, the great Yorkshire manufacturer, for some of his statements. One of them is his reiterated assertion that no English workman owns his house. This is not true, and if it were true, the reason Mr. Porter gives for it would be incorrect. Large numbers of workingmen—thousands and thousands — do own their houses, in nearly all the great manufacturing towns of the North, through the operation of building societies; and the houses are usually brick or stone. The reason why it is more difficult for a poor man to own his house in England than here is not, as the Strong Man thinks, because his wages are lower, but because the transfer of landed property is attended in Great Britain with such enormous law costs as to make the purchase of single small lots almost impossible. The building societies meet this by purchasing in large blocks and then dividing them up, so that the costs are distributed. The *Ironmonger* also flatly contradicts the Strong Man's stories about the rate of wages.

The past week has been an uneventful one in the general mercantile and industrial business of the country. The expectation of trouble among the Western iron-workers has not yet come to anything, though it is predicted that there will be lock-outs at Pittsburgh and other places. The grain movement at the West has fallen off largely in the last fortnight, and this helps to sustain prices, which would otherwise decline, in view of the improved prospect for winter wheat as compared with a couple of weeks ago. The number of failures, as reported weekly by the mercantile agencies, continues to be from 60 to 75 per cent. greater than during the corresponding weeks of last year, but the aggregate amount of liabilities does not so far exceed last year's. The supply of money continues to increase, and rates of interest, though nominally unchanged, are easier. In all speculative affairs business has been extremely dull. Railway stocks are generally from 2 to 3 per cent. lower than a week ago, though there are some exceptions to the rule. There seems to be no special cause for the stagnation, except the apprehensions of what trouble may grow out of the iron-workers' discontent, and also the possibilities of a freight war between the railroads. In Europe money is very abundant, but speculation is as stagnant as here. The disturbances in Ireland, the unsettled aspect of politics in France, and the talk of other Continental complications, all help to discourage enterprise and speculation.

Another, according to his own account, absolutely innocent man, Curley, has been convicted in Dublin of participation in the Phœnix Park murders. He admits that he was an "Invincible," but somehow, like all the leading Invincibles, happened to be absent when they were performing their greatest exploits. None of them seem to have been there, except the two Careys and the car-driver, Kavanagh, and they say they were only looking on. We know from his own statement that Joe Brady was not there. So that we are driven steadily back on the conclusion that the murders were committed by the Metropolitan Police. There were the usual partisan judge, bribed jurymen, and perjured witnesses, at Curley's trial. What the remaining prisoners will do for counsel remains to be seen. They have no funds for their defence, and the Court has had to assign them counsel; but the barrister selected for the purpose, Dr. Webb, has got tired of his job and asks to be relieved. He had nothing to offer but alibis.

The Irish-American dynamite conspirators in England are having the same unhappy experience as the "Invincibles" in Ireland. The informer has turned up in their own bosom, and is busy swearing them into penal servitude for life, or for a term so long that they will not be good for much after they come out. The story is the old and familiar one of the secret society, the oaths, and passwords, and numbers, and the mysterious orders from the unknown commander-in-chief, which has so long fascinated the imagination of Irishmen, and in which the informer, who lays the whole thing bare in order to get off himself, appears as regularly as the villain in a play. It would seem as if O'Donovan Rossa really had had something to do with this conspiracy, and he appears to have secured in Dr. Gallagher a man of more education and ability than those who usually figure in these enterprises. But their futility is shown by the fact that the conspirators had hardly gone to work when they were discovered and caught, and were hardly caught before evidence sufficient for conviction was forthcoming. The whole party will now pass years in the penitentiary, during which Rossa will be blathering away in great comfort and safety, and every now and then making a sufficient haul on the wages of the very poor to provide him with good victuals and drink.

It appears from the testimony of Norman *alias* Lynch, the informer, that the conspiracy was hatched, and the funds provided, and the emissaries despatched from this city, and we shall doubtless have a renewal in England by the press and the orators of the demand that the United States shall do something to put down the dynamite movement here. Without again going into details, we may say confidently that this Government could do nothing which would be effective, and indeed which would not stimulate the movement, and make martyrs of the persons proceeded against, and bring to their support whatever dormant anti-English feeling there is in the country among native Americans—and there is undoubtedly a great deal even among those who now regard the conspirators with contempt and abhorrence. No more potent means of putting an end to this deviltry can be provided on either side of the water than that which the English Government is now providing. Let the English police be vigilant, and the courts prompt, so

that all murderers are strung up within a month or six weeks of conviction, and dynamite men set to work at useful toil in British dungeons, and we may depend upon it that the enthusiasm of the exploders and the Invincibles will rapidly die out. There is evidently no real grit or fanaticism among them, as we see from the failure of every one of them to confess his crime and glory in it. They all try every possible chance of saving themselves, just like common pickpockets.

The fate of the bill introduced into the House of Commons the other day to provide "Elective Councils" for county government in Ireland, is an excellent illustration of the goodness of the case which the Home Rulers have, and which the late excesses and outrages are obscuring. Irish counties are governed—that is, their taxes are levied—by a Grand Jury composed of large landed proprietors arbitrarily summoned by the High Sheriff. These then add to their number a few of the farmers who pay the rates, taking care, of course, to choose men who will not give them trouble. The general result is that the county taxpayers have no control whatever of the taxes, except the poor-rates, which are managed by an elected board. They are controlled by a small body of one class, far removed from the taxpayers in feeling if not in interest, and generally Protestants, while the taxpayers are Catholics—a fact of some importance in a country in which religious differences play such a deplorably large part. It is but right to add that in this century, at least, Irish county administration has generally been pure; but the wrong of excluding the farmers from all share in the management of their principal direct tax has long been recognized. It was long ago pointed out, too, that if the Irish farmers had more interest in their local government, they would give less time and attention to agitation for national independence and other chimeras.

The history of this wrong is now worth following, because it throws a flood of light on the road by which England has reached her dynamite crisis. It took more than fifty years, one rebellion, and threats of another to bring about Catholic Emancipation. It took twenty years of tumult and bloody rioting to bring about the abolition of the Church Tithes. The tenant-right question was first brought before Parliament in 1835. It has thus taken nearly fifty years of murder, outrage, disorder of every description to get Mr. Gladstone's Land Act passed. The present county government was investigated and condemned in 1840 by Royal Commission, but nothing came of it. A bill reforming it was introduced by the Liberal Ministry in 1849, and abandoned simply because the majority cared nothing about it. A private bill was introduced by a highly respectable Irish member, Sir Denham Norreys, in 1855, and defeated. It was defeated again in 1856 and 1857. In 1861, Mr. Isaac Butt asked for another from the Government of the day, and was refused. In 1868, a Select Committee was appointed to investigate the subject again, and told the same story as the Royal Commission of 1840. In 1875, Mr. Butt introduced a bill himself, and Mr. Trevelyan, the present Secretary for Ireland, voted for it, and so did Sir Charles Dilke and a good many other leading Liberals; but the Tories were in power and it was defeated. Finally, a sham reform bill was introduced by the Tories in 1879, but even this was not passed. The Liberals, when they came into power in 1881, promised another bill, but now say that the time for it has not yet come. There is too much disorder, and treason, and dynamite, and disloyalty. So they will not introduce any bill of their own, and they have just defeated one introduced by a Parnellite, Mr. Barry. Thus the weary game goes on, and the latest coercion bill is always heralded as the sure cure for Irish treason.

The ominous utterance of Prince Bismarck's press-organ, that, if the monarchy should be restored in France, Germany would probably not declare war against France forthwith, but await an attack, "which would soon be made, as under certain conditions the restored monarchy could probably be induced to declare war on Germany without a warning," is merely a repetition of a thought frequently expressed in German journals. It is that a restored dynasty in France would endeavor to win popular favor by seeking to revive the national enthusiasm of the French in the military sense, and that a war against Germany would naturally present itself as the most popular martial enterprise. This explains the fact, which at first sight might seem curious, that the German Government, in spite of its extreme monarchical tendencies, prefers the preservation of the Republic to the reëstablishment of the monarchy in France, for the sake of peace.

The news from Russia continues to be gloomy in the extreme, and the latest news is the more dismal as it comes closely before the time fixed for a coronation. The successive announcements, within a few weeks, of the suicide of the ex-Minister of the Interior, Makoff, of the Post-Director Persilieff's two attempts on his life—suicide and attempts owing to discovered faithlessness in office—of discoveries of gigantic defalcations in the railroad management of the Empire, of the unearthing in the capital of a band of Nihilists and a store of dynamite in their possession, of wholesale arrests of conspirators or suspects in Moscow, have been followed by official statements of the sentences of the score of Nihilists lately tried by an extraordinary tribunal in St. Petersburg. Of these, several were condemned to death, several to penal servitude for life, and many to imprisonment for a considerable number of years. Two of the condemned were executed at the beginning of this week: Bogdanovitch, long hunted as "Kobozeff," who in March, 1881, when Alexander II. was blown up, had laid a dynamite mine for the same purpose in a street adjoining the place of the catastrophe; and a retired naval officer, Butzevitch. The former was hanged, and the latter shot. Among the female conspirators more or less vigorously dealt with by the tribunal—which sat behind closed doors—were two daughters of priests, one of whom was sentenced to imprisonment for life; the daughter of a physician, a noblewoman, a Jewess, and the sister-in-law of an engineer, whose wife and sister are now expiating revolutionary crimes in Siberia. It is clear that the Government, with all its terrorism, is far from having stifled the revolutionary spirit of young Russia, and that this permeates both sexes and all classes alike.

The "revolution in Hayti" is evidently one of those uprisings which, although made in the name of "God and Liberty," and promising a "new era of progress," spring really from nothing else than the restless desire of one man to oust another man from a place which he wants to put himself into—a thing of common occurrence in the tropical republics. This time the insurrection is set on foot by the mulattoes, who, being a minority of the whole population of the republic, want to lord it over the negroes. The mulattoes began the movement with a force of 106 men well armed with breech-loading rifles bought in Philadelphia, and the Government troops, who were miserably armed and disciplined, seem to have run away at the first fire. The insurrectionists are now trying, "in the name of the sovereign people," to organize a provisional government from delegates of local committees. Their easy success so far is explained on the ground that they are "determined and disciplined" men—men "of greater energy and education" than the adherents of the Government. At the head of the revolutionists stands "General" Bazelais, who is represented as a man "of a good deal of intelligence" and as "a ferocious fighter, who goes into action with a short sabre, cutting right and left." He declares, of course, that he will "conquer or die, and never be taken alive."

The French press is indulging in some unseemly mirth over the appeals which Englishmen are making to France and to the United States not to allow their soil to be made the "lair" of the dynamite conspirators. They recall, with some bitter humor, the fact that when France and Austria made similar appeals in old times to Englishmen they were laughed to scorn. But it ought not to be forgotten that the conspirators whose presence England was asked not to tolerate, were simple tyrannicides. They proposed to kill Louis Napoleon and Francis Joseph only. The Irish dynamite men, on the other hand, propose to blow up whole cities and large buildings, and do not care how many innocent lives they destroy in the process. So that what the English are undergoing is not exactly, as the French critics think, "sauce for the gander." It is an entirely new kind of sauce, which has never yet been tried on goose or gander, and the inventors of which are in a new sense, as Sir William Harcourt says, the enemies of the human race. If they carried out their schemes, they would undoubtedly be put in the category of *feræ naturæ*, and everybody be authorized to shoot them on sight. Some of our Southern friends who like that kind of sport could be let loose among them, and would make fine bags.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 18, to TUESDAY, April 24, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR and his party arrived at Savannah, from St. Augustine, on board the *Tallapoosa*, Wednesday evening. The President went ashore on Thursday afternoon, and a public reception was given him. On Thursday night he was, according to reports telegraphed North, seized with a congestive chill and bilious colic, suffering great pain. Denials were sent from the President's party. Friday night, the reports, however, asserted, was passed miserably, and on Saturday he was feeling very weak, but he determined to hasten back to Washington by rail. The special train left Savannah at 4:15 P. M., on Saturday, and arrived at Washington on Sunday evening at 9:30 o'clock. He asserted on his arrival that he never felt better in his life, and his private secretary said on Monday that the President's only illness was from indigestion one night.

Secretary Folger's health is much improved, and he is again at his desk in the Treasury Department, but he permits Assistant-Secretary French to perform the routine duties, and devotes his energies to points of law.

The Civil-Service Commissioners have completed their rules, and have submitted them to the Cabinet and the President. They were considered at a Cabinet meeting on Tuesday.

Lord Granville's reply to Secretary Frelinghuysen's despatch of May 8, 1882, in regard to the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, was made public on Tuesday. It is dated December 30, 1882. The letter contains the following pertinent paragraph: "The conclusions arrived at by her Majesty's Government, after a careful consideration of the questions raised in Mr. Frelinghuysen's despatch, are that the meaning and effect of Article VIII. of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty are not open to any doubt; that the British Government have committed no act in relation to British Honduras or otherwise which can invalidate that treaty and justify the Government of the United States in denouncing it; and that no necessity exists for renewing any of the provisions of that treaty." Important correspondence between Sir Henry Bulwer and Mr. Clayton, in 1850, is quoted by Lord Granville in support of his position.

The steamer *Tropic* arrived at Philadelphia on Monday from Jamaica. Her captain and first and second mates were arrested for violating the neutrality laws in carrying munitions of war for the Haytian insurgents. They were given a hearing on Tuesday, and the first two were held to answer at the next term of the district court.

The Investigating Committee, to consider the charges against Supervising-Architect Hill, of the Government service, has been making preliminary arrangements during the week at Washington. Mr. Hill claims that the charges are inspired by disappointed contractors and by malice, and that there is not a single thing in his administration of the public buildings that will not stand the closest scrutiny. On Monday the Committee met formally to hear witnesses, but as neither witnesses nor accusers were present, they adjourned until Wednesday, April 25. Mr. Hill, on Monday, filed an answer to specific charges of a Philadelphia firm of contractors.

The supplemental report of the *Jeannette* Court of Inquiry has been approved by Secretary Chandler. The report says that the court have concluded the examination of the survivors of the *Jeannette* who have recently returned from Siberia, and they find that no modification is necessary in the conclusions reported on February 12, 1883.

In the Star-route trial, just before the evidence in rebuttal was closed, Judge Julius B. Bissell, of Leadville, Col., testified that he had seen a check drawn by S. W. Dorsey to the order of "J. B. B.," or bearer. The amount was about $2,000, and it was to be divided among four gentlemen. John A. Walsh was called by the prosecution on Wednesday to testify in regard to the Price drafts, and the testimony was excluded as irrelevant. This closed the case as far as the hearing of witnesses was concerned. On Thursday the Court decided that in view of the unusual number of counsel for the defence, the Government should have as many opening arguments as it wished, but that the closing argument should be confined to one speech by one counsel. Mr. Ker opened for the prosecution, continuing his analysis of Brady's testimony throughout Friday, pointing out its inconsistencies. Monday and Tuesday, the third and fourth days of Mr. Ker's argument, passed without incident.

The Grand Jury at Washington on Wednesday returned an indictment against William Pitt Kellogg for receiving money while a United States Senator for services rendered in relation to a contract with the United States, and one against Thomas J. Brady for receiving money while Second Assistant Postmaster-General for services rendered in relation to a contract with the United States. Mr. Kellogg has given $10,000 bail to appear to answer the indictments.

The National Academy of Sciences, in session at Washington on Wednesday, elected Prof. O. C. Marsh, of Yale College, President to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Professor Rogers. Under the auspices of the Academy, the statue of Professor Joseph Henry was unveiled on Thursday, President Porter, of Yale, delivering an oration. The Academy adjourned on Friday afternoon to meet at New Haven on November 13.

Senator Anthony, of Rhode Island, is seriously ill with uræmic poisoning.

At a meeting of the New York Academy of Medicine on Thursday evening resolutions were introduced by Dr. Austin Flint, jr., and, after a stormy discussion, adopted, declaring that no physician known to be opposed to the old system of medical ethics, which forbade consultations with homœopaths, should be eligible in future as a resident Fellow. The vote was 58 to 25, and among the minority were a number of physicians of the highest professional standing.

The Railroad Commissioners of this State on Thursday submitted their report to the Legislature on the elevated railroads, relative to the cost of construction, the amount of capital, and the feasibility of their carrying passengers for five cents. There are two reports, one signed by Commissioners Kernan and Rogers, the other by Commissioner O'Donnell. The majority report finds that it is impracticable to reduce the fare to five cents, while the minority arrives at substantially the same conclusion. Mr. O'Donnell, however, submits with his report two bills, one extending the commission hours from 4 to 10 A. M. and from 3 to 9 P. M., during which fares shall be five cents. The other directs the Railroad Commissioners to proceed as soon as possible to examine and ascertain the cash capital and actual expenses in constructing and equipping each of the surface railroads in the State.

The Senate, at Albany, on Wednesday passed the bill establishing a Bureau of Labor Statistics under one commissioner; also, the Niagara Falls Park Bill, by a vote of 19 to 10. In the Assembly there was a warm discussion of the Butts bill, dealing with prison labor. It substitutes the "public account" system for the present contract system, and was amended so as to apply to penitentiaries as well as State prisons, but not to reformatories, except the one at Elmira. It was passed as amended, by a vote of 74 to 44. On Thursday the Senate passed the bill to make uniform the fees of county clerks, and the bill submitting to the people at the next general election the proposition to abolish contract labor from the prisons of the State. Governor Cleveland having made known to members of the Legislature that he could not sign the Excise Bill as it had been sent to him, the Assembly on Thursday, in accordance with his suggestions, so amended the bill as to repeal the three-bed clause of the act of 1857, and to prevent changing the location of a license without the consent of the Excise Commissioners. In the Senate on Friday Mr. Boyd, from the special committee appointed to investigate dealings in "corners" and "futures," presented a report, with the testimony taken. They recommend that a tax should be laid upon certain sales for future delivery, to be collected at the time of settlement in all cases where an actual delivery does not take place; and declare that bona-fide sales of merchandise for future delivery are lawful and beneficial when there is evidence that it is the intent of the contracting parties to deliver and receive the property sold and bought; further, that "puts" and "calls" and bucket-shop operations are gambling transactions and should be treated accordingly. Bills were introduced to carry out the recommendations of the Committee. On Monday evening the Senate passed the Primary Election Bill, so amended as to make it apply to all cities in the State. The Assembly at once accepted the amendments, and the bill has gone to the Governor. The bill allowing women to vote at all elections had its enacting clause stricken out on Tuesday in the Senate. The Assembly on Tuesday passed the bill regulating the duties of pawnbrokers in cities of more than 300,000 inhabitants.

The centennial anniversary of the issuing of General Washington's order announcing the cessation of hostilities in the war of the Revolution was observed at Newburgh, N. Y., on Thursday.

Governor Butler, of Massachusetts, on Monday sent an order to the State Board of Health instructing them to assume immediately all the powers and duties of the Board of Trustees of the State Almshouse at Tewksbury. He requests the Board of Health to appoint some officer to take charge of the Tewksbury buildings, and states that the name of Frank B. Sanborn would be acceptable to him. This is an outcome of the pending investigation into abuses at that institution.

A constitutional prohibitory amendment was defeated in the Pennsylvania House of Representatives on Friday when it came up for a third reading.

The Iowa Supreme Court on the rehearing has again declared the prohibition amendment null and void.

The total wheat acreage in Minnesota in 1882 was 2,572,000, while this year it is estimated that it will be 2,500,000. In Dakota last year the acreage was 850,000, which this year will be increased to 1,600,000, and it is estimated that this will swell the total crop to fully 24,000,000 bushels, as compared with 12,000,000 bushels in 1882.

A trading party of British Indians, the Crees, having crossed the border into Montana, and stolen stock, were pursued by a United States cavalry company and severely punished on Thursday. Their leader was killed.

General Crook, with 200 Apache scouts and one company of cavalry, is coöperating with the Mexican troops against hostile Indians in Arizona and across the border.

Terrible storms prevailed in the South and West on Sunday. A cyclone visited Wesson and Beauregard, Miss., towns about one mile apart, on Sunday afternoon, destroying about two hundred houses, eighty-three lives, and wounding more than 300 persons. The suffering is very great. West Point, Miss., was struck by a gale on the same afternoon, and many important buildings were wrecked. A tornado passed over the Maple River Valley, of Iowa, in the evening, blowing down houses and wrecking a church. Damage to the extent of $10,000 was done by the storm

at Chattanooga, Tenn. Snow prevailed in Orange County, N. Y., on Monday. The losses by the storm in Georgia on Monday will reach $1,000,000. Many lives were lost.

FOREIGN.

Norman, Dalton, Willson, Dr. Gallagher, Bernard Gallagher, Curtin, Ansburghe, and Whitehead, the eight men arrested on charges of being concerned in a dynamite conspiracy, were again brought up in the Bow Street Police Court, London, on Thursday morning. On being arraigned, it was announced that Norman had turned informer. The rest of the prisoners were formally charged with treason-felony. Norman, on being called to the stand, testified that his real name was William Joseph Lynch, and that he was born of Irish parents, in the State of New York. He swore that he worked in October last at a coach-builder's in Brooklyn. At that time he joined a secret society in New York called the Emerald Club, the object of which was to free Ireland by force. The hall was situated on the corner of Second Street and the Bowery. Members were selected to go on missions. He (Lynch) was sent to Dr. Thomas Gallagher, who lived at Greenpoint, Long Island, where he learned that he was to go to London—he would know what for when he got there. Gallagher gave him $50, and told him to take passage by the steamer *Spain* under the name of Norman. Afterward, he gave him $100 more and a small box. He examined the latter on board the steamer, and finding that it contained a spring which worked by pressure, he threw it into the sea. Lynch reached London on March 23, where he met Gallagher in about a week. They walked past the scene of the Westminster explosion. On his asking Gallagher if "that's what we are going to do?" the latter answered "Yes." Gallagher viewed the Houses of Parliament and said, "They will make a great crash when they come down." Lynch inferred from the talk of his co-conspirators that O'Donovan Rossa was in the scheme. He related the details of his visit to Whitehead's factory at Birmingham, and his getting the rubber bags filled with nitroglycerine. The hearing was continued on Friday, when Lynch's testimony was confirmed in many points by a boy employed by Whitehead at Birmingham, a waiter, and a cabman of the same city. A further hearing was put down for Thursday next.

Lynch's confession created considerable excitement among the Irish in this city. A member of the Emerald Club said the story was substantially true. The Emerald is only one of more than 100 similar clubs scattered throughout the country. They are subsidiary clubs of the Clan-na-Gael Society. The clubs are governed by executive committees who select the men to go on missions. Dr. Gallagher was highly respected at Greenpoint. He was graduated from the Bellevue Medical College.

Bernard Gallagher, a brother of Thomas, asserts that he was ignorant of the latter's business, that he is not a Fenian, and that he was in Sing Sing, N. Y., at the time of the Glasgow explosion, with causing which he is charged.

An explosion occurred on Sunday at the Government manufactory of small arms at Enfield, England. Owing to the open situation of the place little damage was done. Just before the explosion two men were seen to decamp with a box.

Featherstone, O'Herlihy, Morgan, and Carmody, charged with complicity in the dynamite conspiracy, were arraigned at Cork on Friday. It was reported on Monday that Featherstone's real name is Edward O'Brien Kennedy, and that he had turned informer.

The trial of Daniel Curley at Dublin for participation in the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke was brought to a close on Wednesday with the arguments of counsel and the Judge's charge. The jury were out but a short time, and returned with a verdict of guilty. Curley was then sentenced to be hanged on May 18. Before sentence he admitted he was an Invincible and a Fenian, but declared his innocence of the murder. As he left the dock he cried out: "God save Ireland."

Timothy Kelly was placed on trial, on the same charge, Thursday morning, and the testimony for the prosecution was mostly a repetition of that given in the cases of Brady and Curley. The defence was an attempt to prove an alibi. The case was given to the jury on Friday afternoon, and they announced after a short time that they could not agree. They were discharged. It is said that one of the jurors wanted more proof of Kelly's presence in Phœnix Park at the time of the murder. Kelly was remanded, and the second trial was begun on Monday. On Tuesday fifteen witnesses testified in favor of his claim of an alibi.

The London *Times* of Monday asserted that the Government have obtained information in the course of recent inquiries that the enrolled members of the Fenian organization in the United Kingdom number 150,000, and that there are besides distinct offshoots of Fenianism, such as the Vigilants and the Invincibles.

In the House of Commons on Monday afternoon Mr. Bourke, Conservative, gave notice that he would question the Government as to whether any steps had been taken by the authorities at Washington relative to the conspiracies against England alleged to have been organized in America by members of the Irish dynamite party. On Tuesday Mr. Gladstone said it was inexpedient to make any reply at present.

A man named Eugene Kingston, supposed to be an Invincible, and one of the Phœnix Park conspirators, was arrested at Liverpool on Wednesday. He was arraigned at Dublin on Friday, and remanded to answer a charge of conspiracy to murder.

Mr. Parnell has tacitly admitted, it is said, that the Explosives Bill made it at least imprudent for him to attend the Philadelphia Convention of Irishmen. Sir William Harcourt, the mover of the bill, is reported to have said that the Explosives Bill would do more to disarm the Irish in America than all else that had ever been done in that direction by the British Government.

Owing to the receipt in Dublin, on Saturday, of private information of contemplated misdeeds by lawless persons, policemen, armed with swords and revolvers, were placed in the Central Postal Telegraph, the Excise, and the Customs offices.

The Parliament House at Quebec was burned on Thursday evening, and the deed is attributed to Fenians. About one-third of a valuable library of 30,000 volumes was saved.

Three thousand emigrants sailed from Liverpool on Thursday for the United States and Canada.

Negotiations have been in progress in London for some time to effect a consolidation of the interests of the Canadian Pacific and Grand Trunk Railways, of Canada. They seemed to be going on favorably, when on Wednesday a sudden rupture, owing to objections raised in America, was announced.

Lord Coleridge, Lord Chief Justice of England, has rendered a decision in favor of Mr. Charles Bradlaugh in an action brought by that gentleman against Mr. Newdegate, member of Parliament for North Warwickshire, for maintaining the suit of Mr. Clarke against Mr. Bradlaugh in regard to the latter's sitting and voting in the House of Commons without taking the oath of allegiance.

The French Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday, by a vote of 400 to 107, adopted the bill providing for the conversion of the 5 per cent. rentes into 4½ per cents.

In the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday, M. Challemel-Lacour, Minister of Foreign Affairs, presented the draft of a convention concluded between France and the United States fixing the indemnity for losses sustained by French subjects during the civil war in America.

A copyright convention has been signed between Germany and France.

It is asserted in Paris that the object of the alliance between Germany, Austria, and Italy is to secure the isolation of France in order to effect a simultaneous disarmament, which Prince Bismarck intends to propose at a European congress.

The Berlin *North German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ), replying to comments of the French press on an article which it published recently, says that if the monarchy should be restored in France it is not very likely that Germany would declare war against the former country forthwith. She would probably await an attack by France.

Advices from Tamatav, Madagascar, assert that the natives are busily engaged in making weapons. They declare that they will not surrender an inch of territory to the French invaders.

The London *Daily News* says that in the event of the affair with Annam involving France in a war with China, it is understood that she will confine herself to blockading Chinese ports, as she is very well aware of the difficulties of an expedition to Pekin. It was reported on Thursday that a Chinese war squadron had been ordered to cruise in the Tonquin River.

Jules Sandeau, the French novelist and Academician, died on Tuesday at the age of seventy-two. He was the literary partner of Mme. Dudevant in writing the novel 'Rose et Blanche,' which appeared under the name of "Jules Sand." When a second novel appeared, 'Indiana,' which was the work of Mme. Dudevant alone, the name of "Sand" was preserved, but the Christian name changed to "George."

Louise Michel has been committed for trial at the next Paris Assizes, on a charge of inciting to riot. She will conduct her own defence.

Prince Krapotkine, who with several other persons was some time ago convicted at Lyons, France, of Nihilism and sentenced to prison, is seriously ill.

Several more Nihilist leaders have been arrested at St. Petersburg. The trial of eighteen prominent Nihilists was concluded in that city on Thursday. All were convicted, six sentenced to death (two of whom were executed on Sunday), two to life-long servitude, and the remainder to varying terms of imprisonment.

The Emperor and Empress of Russia will reach Moscow on the 21st of May, and the coronation will take place on the 27th. The festivities, which include eight grand balls, will be prolonged until the 8th of June. The state entry into the city of St. Petersburg will be made on the 10th of that month.

Suleiman Pasha, the famous Turkish soldier, died on Saturday at the age of forty-three. He gained notoriety from his fierce struggle at Shipka Pass during the war with Russia in 1877. In October of that year he succeeded Mehemet Ali as Commander-in-Chief of the Turkish armies. He met with reverses, was tried for high treason, and, after a long trial, in which he brilliantly conducted his own defence, was deprived of his rank and transported for fifteen years.

The Crown Prince of Germany on Monday left Berlin for Italy to seek a change of air for his health.

Herr Jauner, late director of the Ring Theatre, Vienna, who was imprisoned for criminal negligence in connection with that disaster, has been pardoned by the Emperor of Austria, having served half his term.

A report was received from Cairo on Saturday that the False Prophet had captured the town of Khartum, in the Sudan.

WHAT CAN OUR GOVERNMENT DO ABOUT IRISH DYNAMITE?

THERE is some danger that the very natural and proper denunciations of the dynamite operations of the Irish malcontents by the American press may deceive Englishmen as to what this Government is likely to do or can do to prevent them. It is all the more important that there should be no mistake on this point because, as the English public now for the first time fully perceives, the long-standing quarrel between Ireland and England has been fully transferred to American soil, and is likely to be carried on as long as it lasts mainly from this side of the water. It is this fact which makes the present Irish crisis so much graver than any former one. All former violent manifestations of Irish discontent have easily been suppressed by the passage of a coercion bill and the despatch of troops to the island. This would have been sufficient, even if the people had not been so poor and so wanting in leaders as they always were. It is now discovered for the first time that the old means of repression are not sufficient; that Ireland may be completely in the grasp of the officers of the law, and the capital of the empire and the Imperial Parliament be all the while in a state of not unwarrantable and panicky dread of Irish violence. This is an absolutely new situation, and one that is likely to last a good while, and it is not surprising that the British public should expect American help in obtaining deliverance from it, and should be disposed to put some of the responsibility for it on American shoulders. It is not surprising either that some of our newspapers, in their disgust over the performances of the dynamite men, should seem to promise some kind of relief from this quarter. It may therefore be worth while to consider what the real outlook as regards prevention here is.

We presume there is no doubt that this Government would do its duty under the treaty, at any cost, by surrendering any person proved guilty of one of the crimes enumerated in the extradition treaty of 1842. But, as we have already frequently pointed out, this treaty has to be interpreted subject to the understood exception in favor of persons charged with political offences, which every free government is careful to uphold, and none more than Great Britain herself. This might put our State Department into a position of great difficulty in dealing with many cases in which offenders were charged with dynamitic offences on British soil. Such offences as blowing up public buildings are atrocious, undoubtedly, but they would unquestionably, in the case of the Irish, be extremely political, and in handing over persons accused of them the Secretary of State would be taking on himself a new and great responsibility, even if such offences were mentioned in the treaty, which they are not. There is, in fact, nothing in the treaty to warrant the surrender of a dynamite conspirator, unless his explosion happened to cause loss of life. But would loss of life so caused be murder as contemplated by the treaty? Would the Secretary of State take upon himself to decide that it was? Would any of our courts so decide? These are questions which nobody can as yet answer with any certainty. But the probabilities are that the extradition treaty gives our Government no power whatever to surrender dynamite men, even if their offence consisted in causing explosions on British soil, and even if it were not a political offence.

Supposing now that the powers of the Government under the treaty were acknowledged to be insufficient to prevent the United States being made the focus of conspiracies for the destruction of life and property in Great Britain, and that fresh legislation were declared necessary for the purpose, does any rational observer suppose there would be the slightest use in asking for it at the hands of the Democratic Congress which will have possession of the Government till 1885? Such an application would undoubtedly be met with derision in both houses. Nearly every Democratic member would greet it with a terrible speech containing an epitome of Irish history, and advising England to lay aside her pride and make terms with the estimable and long-suffering Irish people. In fact, supplements to the *Congressional Record* would have to be issued to accommodate the statesmen who would be eager to put on record their burning hatred of British tyranny and their sympathy with the Irish race, to which it would probably appear that nine-tenths of them belonged by descent.

Let us suppose, however, that an act were passed which would enable our Government to deal with dynamite conspiracies and projects. Such an act would only empower it to try the offenders in this country by jury. It would not authorize the President to hand persons over to the British Government to be tried in England or Ireland for crimes committed here. Suppose the needed proofs for an indictment were then forthcoming, and the indictment were found, we should then simply be at the opening of a political trial, one of the rarest proceedings in American history—one which has never come to any satisfactory conclusion, which the victorious North shrank from under circumstances of the strongest provocation at the close of the civil war, and which, whenever attempted, has shown signs from the very outset of degenerating into a farce. The empannelling of a jury to try such a case would probably take a month or two, if it were possible at all. Large numbers of the windiest "counsel" in the world would be retained in it. The judge would probably catch the contagion, and become as excited over it as the bar. The evidence for the defence would probably include proof of "six hundred years of wrong" against the "real prosecutor," the British aristocracy, who would be "unveiled" and dragged "into full view," and made to show his hideous countenance at least once a day during the trial. To say that it would take six months to get all the testimony in and argue the exceptions, without including the "summing up" of counsel on both sides, is a ridiculously low estimate. Our own belief is that the trial would last a year and a half, and would be the most uproarious and irrelevant judicial proceeding ever witnessed, and would end either in an acquittal or a disagreement of the jury, and in the shame and regret of every rational and sober-minded person on either side of the water.

In fact, it is impossible in the space at our command to give an adequate notion of the absurdity of supposing that Englishmen are likely to obtain protection against Irish dynamite from any process of American law. A great and, we fear, impassable chasm separates the honest indignation which the performances of O'Donovan Rossa and his confederates arouse in the American breast from their punishment or repression by American courts. This much ought to be said, in all candor, to English voters and publicists. The Irish question cannot be settled here. It must be settled in London, and it is for Englishmen to decide on what terms and through what means.

THE "CORNER" COMMITTEE ON "CORNERS."

THE "Corner" Committee of the Legislature have made their report, in which they divide corners into "accidental corners," resulting from fires, floods, or other operations of nature, which, they say, do no great harm, are temporary in their nature, and at any rate cannot be prevented, and "protective corners," which are made by persons who sell without intending to deliver unless the value falls below the price at which they have sold. What the Committee think of "protective corners," as regards their effect on the public, does not clearly appear, but it seems as if they had a low opinion of those who make them.

On "futures" the Committee are, on the whole, inclined to look with a lenient eye, and do not see their way to compelling merchants by law to deliver everything they sell, and to acquire possession of it before they sell it. In fact, they have discovered, after careful inquiry—

"that the system of buying and selling for future delivery, to use the words of a witness, 'is the invention of a great necessity, and has answered the needs so well and has helped to build up interior towns and large cities and mercantile exchanges so rapidly, that it is universally recognized as part of our great and growing commercial development.'

"But it has been urged that sales for future delivery cause violent fluctuations in values greater than those which occurred prior to their general introduction into commercial trading. This statement has not been substantiated, however. Indeed, the evidence tends to show that the effect is, to some extent, quite the reverse."

The Committee also examined the question whether, supposing "futures" to be on the whole useful or indispensable to commerce, there was not "gambling" in them. They were compelled to admit that there was occasionally, among the "young and inexperienced," who will over-trade and operate on margins and what not. The Committee is not, however, prepared to prohibit futures in order to stop gambling. Of the system of "puts" and "calls," as carried on in "bucket-shops" and such places, the report speaks in terms of crushing severity. It adds, however, that the existing laws, if enforced, would break up the bucket-shops and punish the operator in puts and calls, and it asks, therefore, with much solemnity, conceding it to be

"true that the operation of this system is attended with some objectionable features, would it be wise to abrogate or legislate out of existence the whole credit system because to the abuse of

it can be traced in a large measure the failures and misfortunes which so often overtake merchants and commercial institutions? Shall our code of legal ethics present this paradox, that merchandise may be sold and delivered to the purchaser upon the promise of future payment, and at the same time deny the right to sell merchandise for future delivery with payment to be made upon delivery? Should it not be the end and aim of legislation in this State to attract and encourage every influence and element that will establish and perpetuate the commercial interest of her commercial metropolis?"

We answer unhesitatingly that to abrogate or legislate out of existence our whole credit system, in order to put down bucket-shops, would be a very unwise step, and we thank the Committee on behalf of the commercial world for throwing the weight of their influence against it.

While greatly admiring the whole report, which we think is the most important that has appeared in any commercial community since that of the Bullion Committee, what we like best in it is the recommendations. The first is that a tax should be levied on all sales for future delivery, to be collected at the time of settlement if no delivery takes place. There is to be no tax, however, on purchase for future delivery, which is just as wicked as sale, and the Committee fails to point out how the tax is to be collected at the time of settlement. Settlement in such cases consists in handing over a check for the difference or in crediting or charging somebody in a current account. Would the Committee have all such settlements made before a notary public or the Sheriff? Was such a tax ever collected anywhere, or, in fact, proposed? Would it not be about as fruitful as a tax on sneezing in all cases where a person sneezes more than once at a time?

The Committee has got now to the point reached by the Illinois Legislature after ten years' experience of an attempt to put down futures and corners by law—that is, to the point of admitting that such attempts are idle, and ought not to be made by a commercial community. All excess in a thing which is harmless or useful in moderation is apt to be beyond the reach of law, and is pretty sure to be self-curing, if curable at all. No penalties on corners, or overtrading, or speculation which the wisdom of legislatures can devise are half so effective as those which result naturally from the practice itself to those engaged in it. The reason why commercial gambling, in fact, is so much reprobated by the world generally is that those who engage in it usually come to grief, and lose everything they possess—a punishment which the law would not decree and could not enforce.

THE MEDICAL WAR.

THE trouble between the "regular" and the "irregular" doctors over the Code of Ethics—in other words, over the propriety of allowing consultations with homœopaths—led to an exciting meeting of the New York Academy of Medicine on Thursday. The new code adopted by the State Medical Society allows such consultations, but there appears to be a question whether the action of that Society is binding on the New York Academy, or whether this institution is not still governed by the old-fashioned ethics. Accordingly resolutions were introduced on Thursday by Dr. Flint, and after a stormy discussion adopted, declaring that no physician known to be opposed to the old system should be eligible in future as a resident Fellow. The vote was 58 to 25, and among the minority were a number of physicians of the highest professional standing. The fact is, that, as all the proceedings of the various medical bodies during the past year show, the profession is divided in opinion as to the code; and this division of opinion is what strikes the layman in reading the accounts of the various meetings, rather than the success of one party or the other. Such a division means, of course, that instead of one code of ethics we shall probably now have two in use, in this State, at least; but it does not seem that they will differ in any point but one. The regulars insist on maintaining "the dignity of the profession" by forbidding consultations with homœopaths, while the irregulars insist on considering the interests of the sick simply, in all consultations.

It is not difficult to foresee how the affair will end. The new code must eventually triumph, because all the influences of the times are on its side. Nothing that the irregulars ask for involves in the smallest degree any concession of the claims of homœopathy to be considered a scientific method of treatment. Their amendment does not provide for the joint treatment of any case by an allopath and homœopath. It simply permits the allopath to give his opinion to any one who asks for it, and is willing to pay for it, without inquiring into his motives or character. It allows a regular physician to tell any sick person or his medical attendant what he thinks of the case, and to receive a fee for so doing. It binds him to no approval of the treatment previously pursued, for he may disapprove of it wholly. Those who ask for the opinion, in fact, indicate by their asking that they are doubtful about this treatment themselves, and think it not unlikely that he will disapprove of it. Their asking for it when the treatment has been homœopathic is, in fact, a concession to allopathy; and the most singular thing to us in the present discussion is that the regulars should not see it in this light, and encourage their members to go into consultation with homœopaths whenever the latter seek it. There is probably no other calling in which it would be considered improper for an orthodox practitioner to tell what he thought about his condition to a heretic or infidel who asked what he should do to be saved.

Physicians, as well as all other scientific men in our time, must come to regard themselves, not as bands of tradesmen, interested in keeping up the prices of their goods and discouraging competition, but as reservoirs of the best knowledge of the day, from which everybody is at liberty to draw. If homœopaths were absolute and recognized impostors, it would not constitute an excuse for refusing to tell a patient who had fallen into their hands what he should do to get well. On the contrary, the worse a regular thinks of homœopaths the more eager he ought to be to get access to the unfortunates who are under their treatment. If his advice is taken, and the patient gets well under it, the result is a victory for orthodox medicine and a defeat for what he considers quackery. If it is not taken, the patient is no worse off than he was, and the regular physician is better off by the amount of his fee. The quarrel, in fact, reminds one of the Irish priest who complained much of the low moral condition of his flock, whose evil ways he was unable to restrain even by occasional horsewhipping. Being asked whether he had ever tried the Gospel on them, he answered indignantly that "he was not going to waste good Gospel on the likes of 'em." In fact, the notion that there are classes of people so low and wicked that they are not even entitled to religious teaching, is hardly more ridiculous than the notion that there may be sick persons so deluded and gone astray that it would not be right for an orthodox doctor to tell them, even for a fee, what is the matter with them, and what will cure them—that homœopathy so degrades and dehumanizes them that a good allopath ought not to advise them to give it up.

THE EXPLOSION CONSPIRACIES AND THEIR EFFECT ON ENGLISH OPINION.

LONDON, April 10, 1883.

THE discoveries of persons concerned in the manufacture or carriage of explosives which have been made during the last few days are already as well known in America as in England, and need not be described in a letter which will not arrive till further discoveries, believed to have been already achieved, have been made public. The most noticeable result of these disclosures in England has been the composure with which they have been received. It might have been expected that when the people of Birmingham and London learned that there had existed in populous parts of both towns stocks of nitro-glycerine sufficient to destroy, had the least carelessness produced an explosion, thousands of homes and tens of thousands of lives, and when at the same time there is every reason to think that the intention of those who made and carried about these dangerous substances was to destroy the public buildings of the capital, and therewith probably a great many lives, there would have been a panic of terror, followed by a panic of rage against the persons accused of such desperate crimes. However, the matter has been taken very coolly. Naturally, there is much curiosity; and much indignation is expressed in conversation and in the newspapers. But there have been no demonstrations of ferocity against the prisoners captured, no passionate cries for severe punishments. In London, people observed after the explosion at the Local Government Board offices, which took place at nine o'clock at night, that the moral of it was that Government clerks had better not stay late at their work; as on the announcement of Lady Florence Dixie's adventure they remarked that the moral of it was that ladies had better wear steel corsets.

In fact, the main feeling of the country seems to be one of surprise—surprise that toward the end of the nineteenth century, in a perfectly peaceful country, where no battle has been fought for over a century, and every class of the community has been supposed to be fairly contented, and certainly well affected toward the Government, outrages of this desperate kind should have been concocted, and even on a small scale carried out. People rub their eyes, so to speak, and ask themselves whether it can really be true that in London all the public buildings, not the Treasury only and the House of Commons, but Westminster Abbey and St. Paul's, should have to be watched by strong bodies of soldiers and police, while all the members of the Cabinet are guarded by policemen standing

sentinel at their doors, following them about in plain clothes, sleeping in their houses. "Are we in England at all," they say, "or is it in Russia that these things are happening?" In Birmingham, after Whitehead's manufactory of nitro-glycerine had been seized by the police, the danger of a tremendous explosion was so great during the three or four days that elapsed before the dangerous substances could be removed and destroyed that many of the inhabitants carried off their families from the neighborhood and left their houses empty. Yesterday Parliament, suspending the standing orders, passed through all its stages in both houses a bill increasing the penalties for the possession of explosives under suspicious circumstances, and rendering more stringent the procedure for discovery by the police and for judicial inquiry. This, however, was done in the coolest and quietest manner. No one denied that some such measure was needed in the extremely loose state of our law on the subject; and the temptation to make the penalties retrospective, so as to strike heavily at the persons already arrested, in the event of conviction, was resisted. There has been no panic anywhere, and, what is even more remarkable, there has been hardly any denunciation of Ireland and the Irish. One or two newspapers, and especially the *Times*, have shown a tendency that way, but they have not been followed either by the press generally or by opinion as one hears it from private persons. Doubtless many people think the Irish even more reckless and fierce, even more capable of terrible mischief than they thought them before. But it has been felt that the crimes of a small minority ought not to be charged on a whole people; and although it is often remarked that the Parliamentary agitators must bear the blame of having raised the storm—of having taught, or seemed to teach, that lawless means may be used to attain political ends—of having failed to denounce agrarian murders and outrages when they were most rife—still the difference between these latest plots and all previous crime is so considerable, and the injury to the interests of the Irish Nationalist party from such plots so patent, that there is less indignation against the Land-League leaders than an observer might have been inclined to predict. No one, I think, has accused them of any direct connection with the so-called dynamite faction.

What is the cause, then, of the coolness which England and Scotland have shown in such a crisis? Why has the national pulse not beaten perceptibly faster for the discovery of a tremendous danger, which might have cost thousands of lives and produced a fierce and lasting exasperation as serious as the loss of those lives? Without detracting from the credit which belongs to the national character, its soberness, its fairness, its conscious strength, we may assign some subordinate reasons which have operated at this particular conjuncture. One of these, and perhaps the most important, is the fact that so far no blood has been shed. Even a single death would have made a great difference to public feeling—would have rendered impossible that tendency to see the ludicrous side of a serious matter which the English have almost as generally as you in America, and which is foreign to the French nature. The death of even a few persons by an explosion would have given a fierceness to the temper of our people, and evoked a cry for vengeance which happily has not been heard. It is odd, but most fortunate, that the contrivers of the Local Government explosion should have placed their nitro-glycerine in almost the only place in this huge city where it could make a noise and damage a building without injuring a single person. Another cause is the promptitude and skill which have been shown by the police. They have proved themselves so capable of following up the first threads that fell into their hands that confidence was soon restored, and the element of mystery and darkness told less on men's imaginations. When a number of persons had been seized in different parts of the country, people felt as if the immediate risk was passed, concluding that, even if there were some other conspirators at large, they would not venture to carry out their designs at present, but would save themselves by flight. There is also the idea—whether well or ill founded does not yet appear—that this conspiracy is managed by a comparatively small knot of men, and is not backed by any sympathy, much less support, from any large number of Irishmen. Considering how large an Irish element there is in the population of all our great towns, and how likely they would be to suffer, partly by an explosion itself, partly by the wrath of the English and Scottish workmen as well as employers which would fall upon them, it is plain enough that few Irish on this side the ocean can wish success to the nitro-glycerinists. And perhaps one may even attribute something to the story about the attack on Lady Florence Dixie. Those who had at first assumed its truth, and been incensed at the notion of an attack by Irish ruffians on a defenceless woman, were ashamed of their precipitancy when no evidence appeared in support of her narrative, and have consequently been the more anxious to take, or seem to take, all subsequent disclosures with coolness.

On the whole, there is no reason to believe that so far these plots have seriously aggravated the difficulties of Irish policy. The good sense of the country has felt that the only motive which can be ascribed to the conspirators is a desire to irritate England (for of coercing her into granting Nationalist demands there can, of course, be no question), and that England is therefore bound, so far as she can, to disappoint and frustrate this malevolence by not confounding the innocent with the guilty in one outburst of wrath. Of course, this temper may not continue; things may be said and done which will widen the breach between the countries; but up to this writing there are no signs of grave mischief. Nor has anything vehement been said as to the toleration extended to the so-called "dynamite wing" in America. People know how that party is regarded there, and know also what the maxims of American policy as regards indulgence to such persons have hitherto been. At the same time, there is a good deal of unexpressed regret, and even annoyance, that this indulgence should have gone so far. The remark is made that indulgence emboldens people to crime, and that conspiracies which propose to destroy any number of innocent private citizens in "skirmishing" against a government, are, after all, widely different from the conspiracies that were carried on from London against the tyrants of Italy.

Other subjects of interest have been thrown into the shade by these events, and the interest felt in the measures brought forward by the Government is for the moment languid. Some amusement has, however, been created by the efforts of Lord Randolph Churchill to procure the deposition of Sir Stafford Northcote from the leadership of the Conservative party. It was at first supposed that he was the mouthpiece of a widely-spread discontent. But his letters to the *Times* on the subject have had no effect but to stimulate the previously rather half-hearted loyalty of the Tory party in the House of Commons to its leader, and he seems likely to retain his office in peace. No one of superior abilities, and certainly no one of at all similar experience, can be named for it; nor is it at present a post to be greatly desired. Y.

EDWIN BOOTH IN GERMANY.

LEIPZIG, March 22, 1883.

As the first representative of the American stage who has returned the visits of numerous German artists to our shores, Edwin Booth, apart from his fame as tragedian, has been the object of marked attention and close scrutiny since his début in the Residenztheater in Berlin. A "starring" tour was surely never made with more freedom from ostentation, and less employment of advertising puffs, than this. Such means of attracting public attention, supposed to be peculiarly American, are, I am happy to say, totally neglected by the first American actor who has appeared before the German public. In the *Leipziger Tageblatt*, a newspaper otherwise filled with the gossip of the day, I found but a single brief paragraph on Booth before his representation of *Hamlet* in Leipzig on March 19. The theatre posters of the same date, as well as the theatre advertisements in the newspapers, contained nothing beyond the usual laconic announcement (not even in full-faced type, as is generally the case): "Erste Gastdarstellung des Herrn Edwin Booth—Hamlet ***—*** Herr Edwin Booth." Nevertheless, for the three evenings on which he played in Leipzig, every seat in the Stadttheater not occupied by the regular subscription audience could have been sold twice over. The genuine enthusiasm manifested by all educated Germany for Shakspere's works—an enthusiasm to which the celebrated Meiningen troupe in great measure owes its organization and present degree of perfection—together with the natural interest felt by the English-American colony, sufficed to fill the theatre to overflowing.

I was able to attend but one performance, that of "Othello," on March 20. That hush of profound attention which is such a delightful characteristic of German audiences seemed intensified as, after the first change of scene, *Othello* was about to make his appearance. One might have heard a pin drop as he, accompanied by *Iago* and attendants, strode upon the stage. And this air of eager attention was his only welcome—not a hand was raised to applaud him among the relatively small American contingent (a piece of tact, by the way, worthy of commendation). The German portion of the audience, coolly critical, likewise remained passive. *Iago* opens the dialogue in sonorous, melodiously guttural German, ending with the words:

". . . Zwanzig Mal
Dacht' ich, ihm mit 'nem Rippenstoss zu dienen!"

Othello answers, in dry, nervously clipped English:

"'Tis better as it is."

The thrill caused by these few unimportant words is more easily imagined than described.

The English language has been so persistently decried as the most unmusical, and more particularly as the least adapted for song, of ancient or modern times, that a very general impression (which I confess I have always shared) prevails that it is almost entirely unsuited for musical-dramatic uses. Booth's delivery of certain passages has done much to weaken this prejudice as far as I am personally concerned. The lines,

". . . If it were now to die,
'Twere now to be most happy; for, I fear,
My soul hath her content so absolute
That not another comfort like to this
Succeeds in unknown fate,"

were spoken with a truly melodious pathos which was to me like a revelation of previously undreamt-of musical possibilities. It must be regarded as peculiarly fortunate that the first interpreter of the English Shakspere in Germany

should be an actor of the old school, having such a wonderfully clear, musical pronunciation; the modern English, as it is generally spoken (or *in*-articulated), would have sounded, as alternating with the full and rounded diction of the German stage, like the rustling of dry husks amid a forest symphony. If ever a poet-musician arise in America, he will choose, as did Wagner in German, with the intuition of genius, only such words as are eminently adapted to the uses of the musical drama, and, I am persuaded, with a most happy result. To be sure, the singers will be obliged to submit to a vigorous course of training in a new style like that which Wagner's singers have gone through—a training as severe as that which has made the name of Booth famous for nearly two centuries.

At the close of the second act, the Germans again showed their determination not to let a foreign celebrity be forced upon them, the faint applause being quickly stifled by the customary counter-demonstrations. The third act, however, which is generally regarded as the touchstone of the actor's quality, met with a quite different reception: the whole audience seemed to be carried away by enthusiasm, expressed in a whirlwind of "bravos" and clapping of hands (stamping with the feet and pounding the floor with canes are not tolerated in a cultivated German audience). I say "seemed" advisedly. A local critic, in writing on Booth's representation of *Hamlet*, had been profuse in his praise, saying, "The transatlantic actor has this advantage over the German performer of *Hamlet*, that he is not bewildered by a multitude of commentaries, which in Germany spring up like fungi out of the ground. . . . This *Hamlet* was a portrayal of character such as would render a hundred commentaries superfluous; for in this symmetrical, consistent representation all the contradictions which alarm the conscience of the critical expositor were reconciled." I strongly suspect that he felt, on reading these remarks in print the day after they were penned, that he had gone too far in his commendation of foreign methods and his tacit condemnation of German "Shakspere literature." Now, in casting about for a "but," he appears to have remembered that, in his criticism of Booth's *Hamlet*, he had hinted that in respect to the "whirlwind of passion" this performance had somewhat fallen short of his expectations (*e. g.*, in the burial scene). Thus he says:

"In spite of the correct portrayal of this development [of jealous passion], we nevertheless missed, on the whole, that elementary ferocity which should break loose after *Othello's* African nature is once aroused. Edwin Booth remained simply a passionate European, reminding us of his tropical temperament only through the sad wailings of the child of nature. But when the restraints imposed by the spirit of civilization and the power of self-control are once broken down, a flood of passion must burst forth carrying everything before it, and the fierce instinct of the race must have full scope."

This certainly means, if it mean anything, that the critic desires to see a real live African savage on the stage. "The murder scene also appeared to us to be given with too great moderation. . . . Edwin Booth seemed too much like a sacrificial priest." Please imagine the critic's savage let loose to do murder: a very slight degree of reflection will suffice to convince one that *such* a murder would be not merely horrible and revolting—the murder of *Desdemona*, even with Booth's careful treatment, remains that in any case—but *disgusting*. Could such a murder produce the desired effect of the tragedy? Even our critic admits that, on purely technical grounds, this moderation on Booth's part was deserving of praise, inasmuch as the last scene, which might otherwise appear tame, gains largely in tragic effect and deep meaning.

From the *Börsenzeitung*, a Berlin paper whose criticisms may be considered as fairly representing the tone of the press of the German capital, is taken the following notice of Booth's appearance in the rôle of *Othello*, on February 28:

"On Tuesday last Edwin Booth appeared in the Residenztheater as *Othello*, and excited a storm of enthusiasm among the large audience there assembled. The 'Moor of Venice' is by far the grandest rôle in the répertoire which the American tragedian has as yet performed in Berlin [it was preceded by *Hamlet*, *King Lear*, and *Iago*]—admirable in its unity of conception, of wonderfully soulful depth, of fascinating originality in delineation of character, and of an unaffected nobility of bearing which gained and moved every heart. In this *Othello* was personified, not the wild African, the negro, but the noble Moor, reminding us of the sheikhs and emirs of the desert—those wonderful personages of whose knightly traits and greatness of soul so many legendary tales are told. Edwin Booth was probably influenced in his adoption of this most attractive conception not alone by his eminently artistic inclination to mould all his characters in accordance with his inmost feeling, and to divest them as far as possible of mere theatrical accessories, but also by that dislike of the negro in which the American is brought up. The fact that the black coloring conceals to a great extent the play of the features, this most potent means of expression at the player's command, may also have been of weight. And the color is, after all, of but secondary and outward importance; the main point is the representation of *Othello's* flaming temperament, and passionate, tempest-tossed soul. And in those scenes in which Edwin Booth saw fit to sink the 'noble Moor' in the ferocity of the jaguar, he solved this problem with overpowering grandeur. He foregoes from the very beginning any attempt to depict a series of elementary outbursts of fury, such as ripen under an equatorial sun; he delineates the lofty spirit of the Venetian general in its conflicts with the innate propensities of the beast of prey, the mastery of an exalted mind over blood boiling up volcanically, a man of iron self-control. In the first two acts he preserved the imposing calm of the Oriental; only now and then a lightning-flash of passion passed over his countenance, and one felt why the Doge calls him the 'noble' Moor. In the third act he presented, with a grandeur which has scarcely ever been equalled, the wonderfully affecting spectacle of a magnanimous and lofty mind contending against the most impetuous outbreaks of the blood and all the demons of passion—and conquering them. The scene with *Iago* is unique in histrionic art. As in *Othello's* breast, at the thought that his ancient might be deceiving him, and himself be doing *Desdemona* wrong, the inborn jaguar-nature is awakened; as it gradually takes possession of him, for an instant overpowers him, and he, with lightning-like rapidity, hurls *Iago* to the ground, draws his dagger, and then, abruptly recovering himself, struggles with the thirst for vengeance and blood which had seized him with demoniac might—that is a moment which cannot be described, but must be seen. . . . With the third act the height of the outward effect is reached. According to Booth's conception of the part, *Othello's* self is unhinged so long as he is tortured by uncertainty; but as soon as he believes himself assured of *Desdemona's* guilt, he gains the mastery over his raging blood. We no longer see the flames devouring his heart and soul—we witness only the immensity of his pain and of his love. His soul is troubled unto death, and he carries out the smothering of *Desdemona* not, like other actors, at an instant when the brute is aroused in him, but with a breaking heart. The numerous foreign traits by means of which he characterizes the Moor, the heathen, lend to this conception of *Othello* a peculiar charm. His gestures, his manner of handling his weapons, his salutations and commands, all his movements, betray the Oriental, the warrior of the desert. We see before us a being from another zone. One feature only made a somewhat disturbing impression upon our taste—that Booth too frequently employs inarticulate wailings and whimpering tones. We of Central Europe are accustomed to the dumb rather than to the audible expression of pain."

That the judgment of the audience coincided with the spirit of this latter criticism rather than with the other was evident, Booth being enthusiastically recalled five times at the close of the tragedy. The support was here far above the average of that usually offered to the American public when a "star" condescends to shine upon it; *Iago* (Herr Grube) and *Emilia* (Frau Senger) left but little to be desired, and the *ensemble*, despite the disturbing influence of the foreign tongue, was a good one. The opinion as to the unpleasant or disturbing effect produced by the mingling of English and German appears to vary according to the facility with which the several critics comprehend the former language as spoken on the stage—*e. g.*, our Leipzig reporter considers that such a "confusion of languages" does not permit of any entirety of impression, whereas the Berlin critic found that it neither embarrassed his comprehension nor lessened his enjoyment of the drama.

Respecting the total impression made by Booth's acting, it is interesting to notice the change which took place in the Berlin critic's views. Booth's remarkable powers of endurance (while playing in "Hamlet" every evening till eleven o'clock he punctually attended rehearsals of four hours' duration each morning) had excited his admiration. In seeking an explanation for such extraordinary energy, he compared Booth with Ludwig, the Berlin *Hamlet*, a man whose fresh and vigorous appearance presents a striking contrast to the nervous-looking American, and from this comparison draws the following conclusions: "We have here a noteworthy instance of the difference between these two *Hamlet* performers in point of nationality. . . . Ludwig feels more deeply, in conformity with his German nature and descent, therefore the rôle of *Hamlet* exhausts him: Booth has a more complete mastery of dramatic routine and method, and, standing outside of and above himself, pulls the wires of the puppets, to which his outward expressions of emotion are degraded, with critical repose, in order to attain the desired end." And this same critic writes, at the close of Booth's representations in Berlin: "He is adapted like but few to be held up as a model for imitation, for he moulds his characters, not in his head, but in the depths of his soul." He frankly admits having been prejudiced against English and American actors, and in these closing remarks as frankly avows his unqualified admiration of Booth's genius.

All criticisms agree in praising Booth's consistency in the delineation of character; his perfect command of dramatic routine, united with a grand simplicity which despises mere outward effect; and the remarkable power with which the true effect is increased from act to act up to the final catastrophe. In general they wisely refrain from analyzing his pronunciation and mode of delivery. His conception of some parts, on the other hand, has given rise to unfavorable comment, of which our Leipzig critic furnishes a fair specimen, he taking special exception to Booth's rendering of *King Lear*. While granting that this representation, like those preceding it, was thoroughly consistent, every detail being subordinated to the total effect and elaborated with a masterly finish but rarely met with among German actors, he found this *King Lear*,

"from the very beginning, too infirm with age, too broken. Even though his behavior toward his daughters be childish, as proceeding from senile caprice, still this *King Lear*, according to the poet's intention, is at first a robust old man, heroic, defiant, with mighty outbursts of wrath, a majestic mythical figure. The others refer to his natural air of command; he himself, in his insanity, cries out: 'Ay, every inch a king!' From that Jupiter by whom he so often swears a reflection of imperious grandeur should fall upon him, . . . and this we missed in Edwin Booth. Shakspere has clothed the speech of this king, in the thunder-storm on the heath, with the sublimest poetical pathos; here we de-

mand a grander power of expression—the full sublimity of the tragedy must here be revealed. As in the throne scene and in the scenes with *Goneril* and *Regan*, the outbreaks of passion must be more fulminant, more imposing. In Booth's *Lear* the imperial deportment was wanting; he was the grieved *pater-familias* of the domestic drama, done, with some slight nuances, into tragedy; moving and affecting in a high degree, worked out in each detail with a complete mastery of dramatic technicalities, but not the kingly *Lear* who appears like a lion shaking his mane before his daughters."

This is decidedly the sharpest criticism of Booth's power of conception or manner of rendering that I have seen, and is perhaps not entirely unreasonable as far as the *manner* is concerned in this individual case. However, it being a well-known fact that there are nearly as many diverse opinions in Germany concerning the conception of Shakspere's principal characters as there are commentators on the same (and their name is legion), it is not very surprising that Booth could not suit them all. That precisely in the rôle of *Hamlet* he should have met with universal approval, is a fact worthy of note; and, in view of the genuine and overwhelming success which is attending his tour in Germany, Edwin Booth can afford to snap his fingers at those who are "nothing if not critical." T. B.

Correspondence.

PROTECTION AND LOW WAGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The tariff in Italy is the highest in Europe, if not in the world. There is no country in the civilized world in which wages are so low and the terms of labor so hard as in Italy. In an Italian town in which I am staying, masons are at work at a church opposite to my hotel. The masons are excellent and skilful workmen. They receive, on an average, 90 cents a day, and they work from 6 A. M. to 7 P. M., with one hour's intermission. Yet the tariff is so high that cotton cloth which we make and sell in Massachusetts at 5 cents a yard costs here 10 cents a yard, and wheat flour is so highly taxed as to place white bread out of the reach of the laboring classes. W.

San Remo, Italy, April 6, 1883.

UNIVERSITY HONOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I believe that Mr. Plimpton is probably right in saying, in your last issue, that there is more cheating in Northern than in Southern colleges. But I cannot concur in the extraordinary statement that "in the North the prevalence of cheating is such that one might say that there exists hardly any sentiment against it." I am sure that in the Northern college in which Mr. Plimpton and I pursued our undergraduate studies, this was not the case. On the contrary, the sentiment of the majority was strongly against such practices, though "personal violence" was of course never threatened or inflicted by them, either for that or for any other cause. It seems to Mr. Plimpton most extraordinary that either professors or students should leave the room during an examination. But I can now distinctly recall, at the Northern college which we both attended, at least two occasions on which the professor left the examination-room, and, so far as I know, in neither case did any one of the 80 or 100 students present take advantage of his absence. And, on the other hand, I never was refused permission to leave the room. Of an absence of several hours, indeed, I do not remember any instance; I imagine that the colleges are few in which such antediluvian leisure prevails at examination-time as this would imply.

Mr. Plimpton forgets that the greater part of the watching and of the cheating in Northern colleges takes place at the entrance examinations, when no *esprit de corps* has yet come into existence, while at the University of Virginia there are, if I remember, no entrance examinations. Very respectfully yours,

J. F. Jameson.

Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, April 22, 1883.

"CONVICT INDEXING" AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Probably Mr. Poole will accept the rôle of the elephant which Mr. Browne assigns him in your last issue, as in *that* little story the laugh is on the tailor rather than on the elephant. But, leaving aside the interesting question whether it is in Baltimore or in Chicago that the elephant is to be seen, I wish to beg the favor of a few lines in which to assure Mr. Browne that his former communication was not so "inoffensive" as he would like it to appear. Of course it's the galled jades that wince. Should the *Nation* print a "facetious" note, averring that the work of librarians is "fit only for old maids or decayed parsons," it is to be presumed that Mr. Browne's withers would not be altogether unwrung. No more can we, who have made indexing the field for the exercise of our best energies and efforts, and found in it ample scope for all our powers and all possible culture and scholarship, consider inoffensive the suggestion that it is mere hack-work, drudgery, convict labor.

But it is not the offensiveness to us indexers of such a suggestion that I would make most prominent, or ask your space to point out. It is rather the fact that it voices one of the rankest literary heresies of the age—namely, the idea that anybody can make an index, if he only knows the alphabet. The *Nation* could nowise better serve the book-users of this day and generation than by doing its best to root out this heresy, by exposing the results of "convict indexing" as shown in the many published indexes made on the hack-work plan. May I add three instances lately noticed? The index to *Scribner's Monthly* (vols. i.-x.) contains no reference to engraving, simply because the article in volume iv. is *called* "The Graphic Art." An important article in *Harper's Magazine* on Mexico is not cited in the index (vols. i.-xl.) under Mexico, but only under Aztecs, because it is called "Land of the Aztecs." And, to cap the climax, an illustrated article on the East River Bridge, in *Appleton's Journal*, appears in the alphabetical index of the volume only under "Spiders, Up among the"!

The index to the *Popular Science Monthly* just issued by the publishers of that journal is from one end to the other a good example of "convict-indexing." Shall we, who rejoice in the character of professional indexes, take it kindly if we are asked to let the "convicts" take *all* indexing into their own hands? Rather shall we not magnify our office, and insist that such first-class literary work be no longer butchered by being put into the hands of hacks and drudges? W. I. F.

Hartford, Ct., April 23, 1883.

Notes.

Robert Clarke & Co. will publish in June the second volume of Dr. Brinton's "Library of Aboriginal American Literature," viz., 'The Iroquois Book of Rites,' original text and translation, edited with an introduction and notes by Horatio Hale. A map will accompany it, showing the location of the United Nations and the surrounding tribes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. will issue immediately an edition of the dramatic works of Richard Brinsley Sheridan, complete in three volumes, and limited to 350 copies, printed, 30 on Imperial Japanese paper, and the remainder on Holland paper; the size, post octavo. Mr. Richard Grant White will furnish a prefatory sketch of the author. Three portraits have been etched for this edition.

The limited *édition de luxe* of Emerson's works now in progress (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is reported by the publishers as mostly all subscribed for.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready 'Authors and Publishers,' a manual of practical suggestions for literary novices. It will contain chapters on the human relation between authors and publishers, on their business approaches and bargains, on the law of copyright, on the openings in journalism, on advertising and placing, on the manufacture of books (beginning with the preparation of MS.), etc. The book will be illustrated.

Cupples, Upham & Co., successors to A. Williams & Co., Boston, announce for immediate publication an album of yacht pictures and sea-views, the work of Mr. David Mason Little, well known for his success in instantaneous photography. The volume will be a handsome quarto, bound in new and artistic style. The same house will issue shortly 'Mr. and Mrs. Morton,' a society novel, by a well-known Bostonian, and a new illustrated novel, 'The Priest and the Man.'

Ginn, Heath & Co. announce a "Library of Anglo-Saxon Poetry," edited by Prof. James A. Harrison in conjunction with Professor March and other scholars, and beginning with 'Beówulf'; a "Pedagogical Library," edited by Mr. G. Stanley Hall, and promising in the first volume a translation of Diesterweg's monograph on historiology, followed by independent contributions by six eminent American university teachers, with a bibliography by Prof. W. F. Allen; 'Extracts from Rousseau's Émile,' containing the principal elements of pedagogy found in the first three books, selected by Jules Steeg, and translated by Eleanor Worthington; 'Two Shakspere Examinations'—viz., at the Hollins Institute (Va.) for the annual prize offered by the New Shakspere Society of England—together with remarks on the class-room study of the poet, by Prof. Wm. Taylor Thom; 'History Topics,' and a supplement to the 'Reader's Guide to English History,' by Prof. W. F. Allen; and 'The Essentials of Latin Grammar,' by F. A. Blackburn.

According to the *Library*, of Cornell University, President White has in his possession the MS. of the protocol in the famous witchcraft trial, at Trier, of Dr. Dietrich Flade (1589), which ended in the burning of that magistrate. It is intended to publish this protocol in the original text, with critical and bibliographical notes.

The *Monthly Reference Lists* for April (New York: F. Leypoldt) has three topics: Washington Irving, in view of his centenary, Gustave Doré, and Washington's Administrations. This last begins a series "designed to facilitate the study of the successive volumes in the 'American Statesmen' series."

Apropos of the Note in the *Nation* for April 5, in regard to librarians and instruction to be given by them in the use of books, a correspondent at Ann Arbor writes that "at the University of Michigan the librarian has been in the habit, for

three years past, of giving stated lectures on bibliography to students that chose to attend, and, by special vote of the Board of Regents in June last, a regular elective course in bibliography was added to the list of studies open to candidates for the several literary degrees. Thirty six students are now pursuing this course under the instruction of the librarian."

Mr. James M. Hubbard, of Boston, whose efforts to purge the Public Library of that city of indecent literature—or, at all events, to keep it from being lent out to children—commanded the sympathy of all parents, has returned to the charge in "A Second Appeal." Mr. Hubbard here examines what has been done, or rather undone, by the trustees to weed out obnoxious fiction from the South End Branch—a branch officially pronounced a quite needless part of the system. His method is, as before, to cite the judgment of the best reviews upon the works he selects for condemnation. In doing this he conceals both titles and authors—a necessary manœuvre if children were directly addressed by the appeal, but rather calculated to weaken the effect of the exposure upon adults. However, this little pamphlet is sure to do good wherever circulated.

The Q. P. Index Annual for 1882 (Bangor, Maine) embraces twenty-two periodicals instead of nine, as last year, one being the *Deutsche Rundschau*. New features are a "necrology" (of *Potter's American Monthly* and the *Penn Monthly*), and two additions to the signs—a † to indicate an obituary notice, and BIBLIOG., which explains itself, except that the bibliographies referred to are chiefly those compiled by the Boston, Cornell, Harvard, and Providence libraries. The proprietors of the defunct magazines above named relate the history of their respective enterprises. Mr. Griswold can now survey no less than twelve of his indexes, each one of which is an apostle of the higher learning.

We have already noticed (*Nation*, No. 868) Bishop Thirlwall's 'Letters to a Friend' as edited by the late Dean Stanley. A neat American reprint of this interesting work has now been made by Roberts Bros., Boston. The letters run from 1864 to 1874, inclusive, and it is curious to observe their scanty reference to American affairs at a time when the world's eyes were fixed upon our great struggle.

Dr. O. W. Holmes's 'Medical Essays—1842–1882' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) opens with two lectures, of the former date, on "Homœopathy and its Kindred Delusions," which, like his views on eternal damnation, must still be unpalatable to a large and respectable class of the author's townsmen. In his new preface he would have done a good service by comparing the status of homœopathy now and forty years ago as accurately as may be: adding, perhaps, a comparison of the practices of the orthodox school at the two periods. The famous "Currents and Counter-Currents" is also to be found in this volume; and so are the "Border Lines of Knowledge in Some Provinces of Medical Science," with a notable autobiographic passage on phrenology, "The Contagiousness of Puerperal Fever," "The Medical Profession in Massachusetts," "Medical Libraries," "The Young Practitioner," etc.

Volumes vii. and viii. of the Riverside Edition of Hawthorne's Works embrace 'Our Old Home' and 'English Note-books,' or the finished product and the quarry of transatlantic observation. Perhaps as typical a piece of writing as can be found in these two volumes is Hawthorne's recollections of the monomaniac author of the Baconian theory of Shakspere. They read like a fragment of one of his novels, in which a character like Miss Bacon would have been entirely at home; and doubtless his consciousness of this heightened his interest in her, utter sceptic though he was.

This is the season of guide-books, and the three which have come first to hand are among the best of their kind. Mr. Loomis's 'Index Guide' (Chas. Scribner's Sons), which might explain itself better if it were called a Dictionary Guide, has been enlarged by a few pages to take in a new route, viz., to Spain and the South of France. Other differences between the first and the present edition can doubtless be found by seeking, and we have noticed timely changes in minor details; but the scheme of this book was well and carefully wrought out in the beginning, and calls for very gradual and infrequent improvements. Its maps, plans, and cuts and handiness of reference are its striking features. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s 'Satchel Guide to Europe,' now in its twelfth edition, also needs no fresh praise. For the first time a folded map is given, and there are a few additions to the appendix. The old addenda to the index ought, we think, to have been incorporated with the main alphabet, instead of being repeated by themselves from last year. Osgood's 'Pocket-Guide to Europe' contains probably quite as much matter as that last named—more pages (nearly 500), in smaller type, making up for the difference in size. A whole tour in the North, embracing Norway, Sweden, and Russia, has been added, as the result of the editor's recent travel. New, also, are a list of U. S. diplomatic and consular agents in Europe, and a telegraphic code for travellers expressly prepared for the present edition.

With the foregoing may be mentioned, if not classed, C. L. Eastlake's 'Notes on the Principal Pictures in the Louvre Gallery at Paris, and in the Brera Gallery at Milan' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The arrangement is first alphabetical by artists, and then numerical (by gallery numbers), where more pictures than one by the same painter are mentioned. The life dates of the artists and the room in which each painting is to be found complete the regular information. Mr. Eastlake's descriptions are more than literal, though to call them critical would be misleading. The cuts are singularly antiquated (the book is a reprint).

Prof. J. B. Greenough's text-book, containing the Eclogues of Virgil and the first six books of the 'Æneid' (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.), borrows a certain amount of matter from Allen and Greenough's 'Virgil,' but gives for the first time a special vocabulary covering the Latin poet's complete works — really a separate volume bound up with the text and notes. This vocabulary and the notes taken together certainly fulfil Professor Greenough's aim "to give or suggest a suitable English expression for every passage." Use in the schoolroom alone can determine whether this has been carried too far. The notes are very copious, and are illustrated with cuts, for the most part very helpfully. The typography has the customary excellence we expect from the imprint of this book.

The April number of *Appalachia* (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth) exhibits well the various phases of the admirable organization of which it is the organ. Prof. Edward C. Pickering advocates experiments, with the aid of the Appalachian Club, to solve the problem of the superiority of mountain observatories to those of the lowlands, and describes the simple apparatus available for the purpose. Mr. A. E. Scott reports a rough climb with ladies over the Twin Mountain range in New Hampshire; Mr. J. W. Chickering tells of a trip to Roan Mountain, North Carolina, an easy matter and a cheap, when Washington is the base of the excursion; Mr. E. G. Chamberlain furnishes a chart of the Blue Hills near Boston, and enumerates the whole round of localities visible from the summit. Mr. W. O. Crosby, in a paper on the mountains of Eastern Cuba, concludes that the elevated coral reefs of that island confirm Mr. Darwin's theory of the formation of coral islands, against which these same reefs have been adduced by Mr. Alexander Agassiz. Finally, Mr. John Tatlock, jr., discusses the important subject of the variation of barometric measurements of altitude with the season. The usual reports of officers follow. The Club, now more than 500 strong, is prosperous, active, enthusiastic, and in a high degree public-spirited.

No. 24 of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* has been delayed by reason of the negotiations which have ended in the purchase of a new home for the Historical Society, the residence of the late General Robert Patterson. Mr. Townsend Ward's minute chronicle of "The Germantown Road and its Associations" now reaches its eighth part, and should, when completed, make a book of very great value and readability. It has from the first been very skilfully illustrated. What is still a nut for the Quakers, James Logan's communication to his fellow-sectaries in 1741 on defensive war, is printed apparently for the first time since the author had a few copies struck off for his own use. In printing some inedited documents relating to the settlement of the boundary dispute between Pennsylvania and Maryland, the editor apologizes for not following certain contractions in the MS., which were impracticable for his types. We agree, however, with Mr. C. F. Adams, jr., in a late communication to the Massachusetts Historical Society, that much of this facsimile printing had better be dispensed with altogether, or reserved for special occasions. There is, in fact, no more sense in reproducing the commoner abbreviations of our early ancestors than there would be in so treating those which are in vogue to-day in private correspondence, etc.

An interesting account of the progress of the Brazilian province of Rio Grande do Sul is given in an article by Mr. Herbert H. Smith in the May *Naturalist*. The German element now forms more than one-eighth of the population, and is the hope of the province. Since emigration from the mother country was checked some years ago, the increase in the labor supply has come chiefly from Italy. The confusion of tongues is thus already considerable.

The first of what we are disposed to believe will prove a valuable series of English texts of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries has just appeared in the play of "Gorboduc, or Ferrex and Porrex," edited by L. Toulmin Smith. The text is a reprint of the edition of 1570, preserving the original spelling and even punctuation; but it has been carefully collated with the editions of 1565 and 1590, and the variations noted at the bottom of the page. An ample introduction and a sufficient number of footnotes make this a very satisfactory edition of the first English tragedy for either the student or the general reader. This series is published by the German house of Henninger, at Heilbronn, but the annotations as well as the texts are in English.

The last number of the St. Petersburg *Vestnik Evropi* contains a spirited translation of Cable's story 'Belles Demoiselles Plantation.' The editor regrets that Bret Harte and Mark Twain, admirable as their humor may be, give but a one-sided impression of American literature, and presents Cable to his readers as a man of fore most rank—"a close student of the instinctive hostility between two worlds, the one feudal-European and the other New American democratic." The same magazine contains the first eight chapters of 'Marion Fay.' The translation is smooth and in the main faithful, though the irrepres-

sible Crocker is perforce much reduced in space. "A little tiff" or "taking a rise" could be as easily rendered in Ciceronian Latin as in Russian.

—Mr. W. M. Griswold writes us from Washington:

"Will you allow me to say that I may not claim the honor of writing various articles signed 'Arthur Penn'? I trouble you only because I find myself credited with them in a work likely to be largely read—viz., Mr. W. E. Foster's 'Libraries and Readers.'"

—The May number of *Harper's Magazine* is the first issue of that popular monthly, so far as we can recall, without an instalment of a serial story by an English novelist. Even after the American novelist had begun to come to the front, *Harper's* held fast to the established British favorites. The *Atlantic*, if we remember aright, has published but two English serials —Mr. Charles Reade's 'Griffith Gaunt' and Mr. Thomas Hardy's 'Two on a Tower.' The *Century* gave up imported fiction very early in its career. Of late, *Lippincott's* also has relied on the native novelist. Now *Harper's* follows suit. The transatlantic story, driven from the monthlies, still lingers in certain of the weeklies—in *Harper's Bazar* and *Weekly* and in the *Continent*—and even here it is elbowed and crowded by the native tale. It is a little curious that this discarding of English authors in American magazines is almost simultaneous with the invasion of England by these very monthlies. Perhaps the moral for American magazines in England is the same as that for American women in England, who succeed best when they are aggressively American, if we may credit Mr. James's 'Siege of London.'

—"San Francisco," by Mr. W. H. Bishop, and "The Brooklyn Bridge," by Mr. W. C. Conant, are the principal illustrated articles in *Harper's*. In the "Easy Chair" Mr. Curtis takes up the woman question—which, thanks to Dr. Dix, has received a new impulse—and endeavors to show that if fashionable women are vain, frivolous, and silly, it is because men keep them so; or, in other words, they refuse to recognize in women "the same liberty of choice in the conduct of life which men assert and maintain for themselves." But the peculiarity of the case is that in no time or country did women ever have as much liberty of choice as they have now. The force of masculine opinion to keep them in "subjection" or to make them "playthings" was never so weak. A woman's sphere to-day, as compared with what it was fifty years ago, is practically what she desires to make it; and it is by a perversion of this fact that Dr. Dix seems to make out his assumption that there is a connection between fashionable frivolity and the "higher education." The drollest part of the thing is, that the fashionable, silly woman is the last person in the world to bother her head about education. The enlargement of woman's sphere, which has been going on for fifty years, has had the effect of drawing off from the ranks of "society" a number of women who adopt careers of their own. Their desertion is one of the things that make society seem more silly and frivolous than ever; but the true thing for social reformers to do must be to stop this process toward general social vapidity by making women put their minds to as much use as they will stand.

—The *Century* for May has an entertaining and instructive article on Du Maurier and London society, by Mr. Henry James, who analyzes with great acuteness the change which has come over London, as exhibited in the pages of *Punch*, since Leech's day. The article is accompanied by some excellent illustrations reëngraved from Du Maurier's original drawings. It opens with some reminiscences of boyish interest in *Punch* on the part of Mr. James himself, which are the more interesting since thirty years ago the American boys who knew enough about England and English life to be much impressed by the adventures of Mr. Briggs, or by the humor of London domestic life, were few and far between. We believe it could be shown out of the mouth of the American press that one distinctly American view of *Punch*, and a widespread view, is, that it is not really funny at all. We have over and over again seen complaints of its dulness made by our own comic journalists, loud and sincere enough to help a good deal to make us understand why it is that we have no American *Punch*. Even Maudle, Postlethwaite, the Cimabue Browns, and the æsthetic world were made really intelligible here, not so much by *Punch* as by Mr. Oscar Wilde's appearance among us in person and Messrs. Gilbert and Sullivan's operatic satire upon the new school. Sir Georgius Midas and Mrs. Ponsonby de Tompkyns are hardly known in this country at all, except in a restricted portion of society which has relations more or less close with London. One of the facts of interest brought out by Mr. James is that the present reading generation in England cares very little for the superficial humor that gets enjoyment out of physical misadventures, practical jokes, and farcical contrasts, and insists on going much deeper for its humor. Du Maurier's satire, delicate as it is—sometimes so delicate that it hardly amounts to more than refined observation—often goes to the lower deeps of social folly and pretension, which Leech never attempted to reach, and could not if he had tried. Certainly the educated humor of our day is not the humor of high spirits that we remember in the *Punch* of Leech, or in Hood, or in Dickens, or in the old-fashioned farce, now driven off the stage. Loud laughter, perhaps, in a country as in an individual, betrays, if not a vacant, at least an uncivilized, condition of mind. At any rate, there can be small doubt that while Du Maurier may have created his market to a certain extent, he also found society prepared for him, and ready to welcome him, not with the broad grin it put on for Leech, but with a quiet, well-bred smile. Mr. Cushing continues his adventures in Zuñi-land, and tells some strange stories of the doings of the priests.

—Mr. J. Brander Matthews, whose knowledge of the stage—English, French, and American—is very full, has an article in *Lippincott's* on "Charles Lamb's Dramatic Attempts," in which a curious American sequel to the failure in England of Lamb's farce, "Mr. H.," is mentioned. Though few people ever read "Mr. H.," everybody has heard of it as the play which its own author helped to hiss off the stage. It appears, however, that this same thoroughly damned "Mr. H." was produced in this country, both in this city and in Philadelphia; and in the latter place, for ten years or more, it was one of the stock-pieces acted at the Chestnut Street Theatre. When it was first brought out, it met with "extraordinary success." Not only this, but Elliston wanted to act it again in England. Mr. Matthews makes the following remarks on the play, which suggest a view of the laws of dramatic composition, and the nature of the interest to which the humorous drama appeals, often overlooked:

"Before the play was done, Lamb wrote to Manning (then in China) that 'the whole depends on the manner in which the name is brought out.' Here was the mistake. It did not depend on the way the name was brought out. If the audience that night had been slyly let into the secret in an early scene, they would have had double enjoyment in watching the futile endeavors of the *dramatis personæ* to divine it, and they would not have been disappointed when *Mr. Hogsflesh* let slip his full patronymic. Kept in ignorance, the spectators joined the actors in speculation; and when the word was revealed, they were not amused by the disgust of the actors, so annoyed were they that they had been puzzled by a vulgar name. Perhaps, too, there was a certain reaction after the undue expectancy raised by the prologue. Lamb wrote to Wordsworth that the number of friends they 'had in the house . . . was astonishing.' Now, nothing is so dangerous on the first night of a new play as a large number of friends in the audience. . . . If it had had a second chance, the injudicious friends would have been absent, and the name of the hero would have been noised abroad, and, once in the possession of this secret, the audience might well have laughed long and heartily at the hero's misadventures."

"Great Minds and Matrimony," by L. D. Morgan, is a collection of facts connected with the matrimonial careers of noted people, which altogether present a very grotesque picture of the institution.

—The May *Atlantic* contains an article by Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge on what he considers the survival of the old colonial spirit in the America of to-day. This at least is the most important and novel part of the essay, the rest of it—which traces the early manifestations of the colonial spirit of dependence on England in politics, literature, society, and art—being introduced mainly as a groundwork for the suggestion that the Anglomania of our time is merely a new development and evidence of the colonial spirit, or want of true American independence.

"These groups," he says, "are for the most part made up of young men who despise everything American and admire everything English. They talk and dress and walk and ride in certain ways, because the English do these things in those ways. They hold their own country in contempt, and lament the hard fate of their birth. They try to think that they form an aristocracy, and become at once ludicrous and despicable. The virtues which have made the upper classes in England what they are, and which take them into public affairs, into literature and politics, are forgotten. Anglo-Americans imitate the vices or the follies of their models, and stop there. If all this were merely a passing fashion, an attack of Anglomania or of Gallomania, of which there have been instances enough everywhere, it would be of no consequence. But it is a recurrence of the old and deep-seated malady of colonialism. It is a lineal descendant of the old colonial family. The features are somewhat dim now and the vitality is low, but there is no mistaking the hereditary qualities. The people who thus despise their own land and ape English manners flatter themselves with being cosmopolitans, when in truth they are genuine colonists, petty and provincial to the last degree."

He also connects with this the fact that "some of our cleverest and best fiction"—*i. e.*, Mr. James's international studies and novels—is largely devoted to showing "how foreigners regard us," and consequently, though intended to be cosmopolitan, are "steeped in colonialism." Mr. Lodge, it should be said, uses the word "colonial" where most people would say "provincial"; but this is a small matter. We must confess that we are unable to discover anything either colonial or provincial in the cosmopolite school of writing which Mr. James has invented. He has introduced English and French types as well as American in his stories, and in one of his most amusing sketches, 'The Europeans,' he exhibits Europeanized Americans against a New England background, and surely there is nothing colonial in this. The discovery that there are such things as American types, and the use of them in fiction, seems to be really a very American and proper thing. Nor can we agree with Mr. Lodge that there is any distinctly traceable connection between the spirit which led Cooper to lay the scene of his first novel in England and represent it as writ-

ten by an Englishman, and the spirit which directs the proceedings of the Anglomaniacs of our day. Anglomania is a foreign fashion adopted in a capital which is not yet great enough to set fashions of its own, and which must get its fashions somewhere. There has been, however, a great deal of Anglomania in France (where the word comes from, in fact), and France certainly does not occupy a colonial relation to England. The survival of the true old colonial spirit may be most distinctly traced, it seems to us, in the extraordinary interest we still take and express in the opinions about us pronounced by any foreigner who runs over here on a vacation. The moment he lands we are all agog to know what he thinks of us, or at any rate the press thinks we are, for it stimulates the inquiry into his generally valueless opinions in every way in its power, and the whole thing always ends ridiculously by our finding out that he thinks very much what the last foreigner did. In no other great country in the world is this curious sort of vanity displayed. The English are profoundly and proverbially callous to all such criticism, and undoubtedly a similar indifference here will be one of the surest signs of the permanent disappearance of the colonial—or, as we should prefer to say, provincial—spirit.

—It is not a little surprising that with all the improved appliances that have for years past been in use by surveyors and travellers, and the improved methods which have been adopted for fitting these appliances to the purposes of geographical exploration, so much uncertainty should still prevail relative to one of the most salient of a country's features—its orography. Over but a comparatively insignificant portion of the earth's surface has there ever been effected what might be considered to be a complete mountain survey, or anything approaching one—a lack deplorably illustrated by the numerous discrepancies that are presented in the drawing of mountain contours, even as exhibited on what are generally supposed to be the most accurate of maps. Nor does there appear to exist any greater harmony concerning the heights of the more prominent elevations; indeed, so greatly do these vary, and so often have the figures adopted at one time been exchanged for different ones at another, that it frequently becomes a matter of great difficulty, if not, in fact, impossibility, to ascertain even approximately what is currently recognized as being the loftiest elevation of a given land area. This is notably the case with the continents of North and South America. Sorata, Illimani, and Aconcagua are still severally claimed to represent the greatest elevation on the South American continent, and consequently of the western hemisphere, although the divergence between the "authentic" figures indicating this elevation amounts to fully 3,000 feet. Nor are we much better off as regards the continent of North America, or, for that matter, the United States. It is only a few years ago that the altitude of Mount Hood, in Oregon, was reduced from 17,000 feet to a little over 11,000, bringing down what was then supposed to be the loftiest peak in our domain to the dimensions of a third-class elevation. Mount Shasta, in California (14,442 feet), was gradually superseded by Mount Whitney (14,887), but this last still yielded supremacy to Mount St. Elias, in Alaska, whose estimated height, according to American geographers, was placed at from 16,000 to nearly 18,000 feet, although credited (and still so credited) on the British Admiralty charts with only 14,800 feet. According to the more recent measurements of the national survey, this peak has been elevated to 19,500 feet, thereby considerably overtopping (as hitherto received) the peaks of Orizaba and Popocatépetl (17,800 feet), on the Mexican plateau, its only rivals on the North American continent. We now learn through Mr. T. U. Brocklehurst ('Mexico To-day'), who appears to have ascended the peak, that the generally accepted altitude for Popocatépetl is erroneous, the rim of the crater itself, which is still depressed 1,000 feet beneath the summit, being elevated about 19,000 feet above the level of the sea! To Mexico, therefore—at least for the present—belongs the honor of having the loftiest elevation on the continent.

—The married life of no German writer has been so persistently and malignantly scrutinized as that of Heine. For forty years his relations to Mathilde Mirat have been a constant source of gossip, and he has never been forgiven for having found happiness in the union with one so much his inferior in intellect. Yet even Goethe found in Christiane Vulpius all he looked for in a wife—"health, freshness, youth, devotion, and common sense, no matter what her station in society," as his biographer, Herman Grimm says; and Heine's "sweet, fat child" possessed in addition a uniform gayety of spirits which shed its radiance over the agony of his "mattress tomb." Her very inability to understand and appreciate his genius afforded him genuine amusement, while it lent a touch of pathos to his affection. He considered and loved her to the last as his "child"; he trembled for the "poor lamb" he should no longer be able to protect; and she repaid his love as she best knew how, with much unconcern for his literary greatness and not a little pious dread of his heathen sentiments, but certainly with all the affection of her guileless heart, which adored only two objects—Henri and "Cocotte," her parrot. Now that she has joined him on the Montmartre, the question so often asked in German periodicals, Has Heine left any memoirs, and if so, in whose hands are they? is discussed with renewed interest. Herr Gustav Karpeles, who contributes to the Berlin *Gegenwart* of March 31 a pleasant essay on "Mathilde Heine," and who is in a position to speak with authority, states that Baron Gustav Heine, the proprietor of the Vienna *Fremdenblatt*, is undoubtedly the possessor of his brother's memoirs, which, Herr Karpeles thinks, were the work of at least twenty years. The small manuscript in Mathilde's possession, entitled "Meine Memoiren," the genuineness of which Heine's niece, Frau Marie Embden, denied, is likewise unquestionably authentic, although, in the opinion of Herr Karpeles, of no literary value, inasmuch as it contains at best rough drafts of single chapters of the memoirs, together with matter that has already found its way into print. In a foot-note Herr Karpeles corrects several erroneous statements concerning Heine's connection with Karl Marx, which, since the latter's death, have gone the rounds of the press. Heine was not concerned in the publication of the bi-lingual *Annales Franco-Allemandes* edited by Marx and Arnold Ruge, although he contributed two or three articles to it; neither did he edit the *Vorwärts*, conjointly with Marx. Altogether, Heine was only for six months editorially interested in a periodical, the *Politische Annalen*, which he and Dr. Lindner published at Munich. But if Heine never was at the head of a large paper, like most literary men he often wished to be. It may not be generally known that he once seriously thought of establishing in Paris a German political daily. In a long letter to August Lewald, of March 1, 1838, he speaks with enthusiasm of his project. "As regards the value of the new journal, I flatter myself to have hit upon a combination which will surpass all existing papers, and may prove a grand success. For ten years I have studied the organism of the press in all countries, and I may say that no one knows its secrets better than I." His self-confidence becomes very amusing when he dwells on his business qualifications, his intimate acquaintance with the advertising department of the daily papers. In subsequent letters to Lewald he recurs to the subject, although in a less confident tone, in spite of the unexpected permission of the Prussian and Austrian authorities to circulate the journal in those countries. Sanguine as he seemed of success, he trembled at the mere possibility of failure. He had an honorable dread of risking the money of strangers in his enterprise, and his great project came to nothing.

—In the *Nation* of January 30, 1879 (No. 709), we noticed briefly the first volume of Prof. A. De Gubernatis's 'La Mythologie des Plantes,' devoted to general botany, and containing an account of the myths, etc., relating to classes of plants. This interesting work is now completed by a second volume (Paris: Reinwald, 1882) devoted to special botany, and giving the legends of individual plants. Although this does not possess the general interest of the first, it is full of curious learning. The author has ransacked the older treatises on herbs, and added much information of his own in the shape of popular legends and superstitions not before printed. Some of the articles assume the proportions of essays, as, for example, those on the oak, wheat, walnut, etc. The last tells of the famous walnut-tree of Benevento around which was held the Sabbath of the Witches (*ludos nucis Beneventanæ*). In the article on the *quercus ilex* the author mentions a Russian superstition in accordance with which sick children were carried into the woods and thrice passed through the trunk of an oak split open. The child was afterward carried around the tree thrice nine times (the number of the days in the lunar month), and his shirt hung upon the branches of the oak. It is interesting to find this superstition in the South of France during the Middle Ages. Étienne de Bourbon, an Inquisitor of the thirteenth century, tells us in his 'Tractatus de diversis materiis prædicabilibus' (extracts from which were published by the Société de l'Histoire de France in 1877) that sick children in the diocese of Lyons were similarly treated. The child was afterward left naked at the foot of the tree, while two candles as long as one's thumb burnt out. If the child survived this heroic treatment, he was dipped nine times in the Chalaronne. Étienne pithily remarks: "Qui valde dura viscera habebat si evadebat nec tunc vel cito post moreretur." Whether one agrees or not with Professor De Gubernatis, who naturally sees a solar myth in every legend, one cannot but thank him for a work which worthily takes its place by the side of the same author's 'Zoölogical Mythology.'

—The two-volume 'Handbuch der Politischen Oekonomie,' edited by Professor Gustav Schönberg, of the University of Tübingen (New York: B. Westermann & Co.) is not a succinct manual of political economy in the ordinary sense, but a collection of elaborate treatises on the various branches of the science by twenty-three authors, mostly university professors, among them some of the best-known writers on these subjects in Germany. Its avowed object is to represent "the present state of the science." The treatises it contains cover the following subjects: A definition of the science of political economy and its development down to our day, by G. Schönberg; the history of political economy, by H. von Scheel; Socialism and Communism, their development and present status, by the same author; Fundamental Principles of Political

Economy, with definitions of its various subject matters, by Fr. I. Neumann; Economic Production in General, by Fr. Kleinwächter; Prices, by Fr. I. Neumann; Money and Coinage, by E. Nasse; Credit and Banking, by A. Wagner; Transportation and Communication, by E. Sax; Weights and Measures, by L. Jolly; Economic Distribution, Rents, etc., by Th. Mithoff; Economic Consumption, by W. Lexis; Agriculture—its objects, historical development, requirements of production, organization of production and returns, by Baron von der Goltz; Agrarian Policy in the Modern State, by A. Meitzen; Forestry, by Joh. A. R. Helferich; Fishery, by B. Benecke; Mining, by R. Klostermann; Trades—their definition, organization, and development, by G. Schönberg; the same, with reference to the labor question, by L. Brentano; the same, with reference to legal protection, patents, trademarks, etc., by R. Klostermann; Commerce, by W. Lexis; Insurance, by A. Wagner; Personal Service, by G. Schönberg and L. Jolly; Population, by G. Rümelin. Then follows, in the second volume, The Science of Finance, with the following subdivisions: The Definition, Objects, and History of Financial Science, by F. H. Geffken; State Expenditures, by the same author; State Revenues, from Real Estate, from Mining, Industrial, and Commercial Enterprises, and from Means of Transportation, by H. von Scheel; Fees and Special Taxes, by K. Fr. Schall; The Science of Taxation, by Joh. A. R. Helferich; Direct Taxes, by A. Wagner; Indirect Taxes, by K. Fr. Schall; Tariff Duties, by K. V. Riecke; Financial Regulations and the Public Credit, by A. Wagner. Finally, the Science of Administration, subdivided as follows: Statistical Science, its History and Theory, by G. Rümelin; Governmental Organization of the Administrative Machinery in France, in England, in Germany, by G. Meyer; Sanitary Regulation and Police, by L. Jolly; Game Laws, by L. Jolly; Poor Laws and Police Regulations, by E. Löning; Police Regulation as to Private and Social Morals. This 'Handbook' is the most comprehensive work on its subject ever presented to the public. It contains an immense variety of information, digested with philosophical thoroughness. But its comprehensiveness and its size—it fills over 1,900 large octavo pages—unfit it for the ordinary use of a manual. It is rather an encyclopædia, and as such will be of very great value to the student.

—The programme of the fourth and last concert of the Oratorio Society was remarkably old-fashioned. This statement may seem paradoxical in view of the fact that it comprised, besides Haydn's "Creation," two compositions by Herr Max Bruch, who personally conducted them. But Max Bruch is almost as old-fashioned as Haydn, with this tremendous difference, that whereas Haydn in his day was epoch-making, Bruch is anything but that. In fact, Bruch's compositions very seldom even betray the influence of the modern movement in music. He is a clever Kapellmeister, who thoroughly understands the art of writing for a chorus in combination with the orchestra, but who seldom has an original idea on which to expend his skilful workmanship. The two principal directions in which music has advanced since the days of Haydn are in the development of the resources of the orchestra, and in the multiplication of the means of expressing definite emotions by means of new modulations and the suspended resolution of discords. In both of these features Bruch's compositions are deficient. He often chooses pictorial subjects for his cantatas, but his music is neither descriptive nor even characteristic; it is simply absolute music in disguise. His instrumentation is monotonously gray, often turbid or opaque, although always correct. His shrewdness in composing chiefly works in which the modern repertory is somewhat deficient—violin concertos and short, easy cantatas—has given his name greater prominence than it deserves, in comparison with several more gifted but less fortunate composers in Germany and elsewhere. Nevertheless, Herr Bruch is an able musician, and as he is understood to be a good organizer of musical societies, he must be heartily welcomed in this country, if he does not insist on giving us too much of his own work to hear. Obviously he has experience and natural aptitude as a conductor. He seldom uses his left arm to suggest a crescendo, accelerando, or other dynamic or rhythmic change, but indicates his meaning by a glance, or a greater sweep of the bâton. He has very sensibly adopted the custom of turning his back on the audience instead of facing it, as is generally done in Germany. But to return to the Oratorio Society: the performance of the prelude from Bruch's "Loreley," and of the "Jubilate Amen" by the chorus and orchestra of the society, as well as that of the "Creation," was generally good, and in some numbers really excellent. The soprano solos were intrusted to Miss Emma Juch, who is specially qualified as an oratorio singer by reason of the great volume and sonority of her well-trained voice. Herr Max Heinrich rendered the bass solos and recitatives in a very impressive manner, and Mr. Woodruff proved a satisfactory tenor. The audience was large, and the performance seemed to give them considerable pleasure. It is to be hoped that the Society will next year produce Bach's "Passion Music," which was announced for this season, but had to be withdrawn for unavoidable reasons. There is more good music in that work than in a hundred programmes like that offered on the 19th instant.

LESLIE STEPHEN'S SCIENCE OF ETHICS.

The Science of Ethics. By Leslie Stephen. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Mr. Leslie Stephen's "attempt to lay down an ethical doctrine in harmony with the doctrine of evolution" has a charm rarely found in essays on morals. The charm of the book, moreover, is also the secret of its power. This attractive quality, which gives a flavor to every line in the 'Science of Ethics,' is a sense of reality. Mr. Stephen is a rigorous thinker: no one can accuse him of indifference to the coherence of his argument; no sentiment ever tempts him to deny the legitimate results of his premises. But for all this he is—and this is, in our judgment, his great merit—primarily an observer, and, so to speak, only secondarily a dialectician. Hence he has an eye for facts, a habit of referring to the actual experience of daily life, a distrust in verbal formulas; a sense, in short, of reality, often wanting to men of great argumentative power. He is in feeling rather a man of science than a logician. We can well understand his fervent admiration for Darwin, and can well believe that Mr. Darwin would in turn have appreciated the merits of an ethical treatise written in what may be called, in the best sense of the words, a "Darwinian" spirit.

It is curious, from a merely literary point of view, to note how much grace and interest is given to Mr. Stephen's style by his habit of dealing with real things rather than with words. Nothing shows this better than a contrast which lies near to hand. Prof. Bain, in an interesting article, which is in reality a review of the 'Science of Ethics,' writes as follows:

"A Hedonistic introduction would force on the discrimination between ethical and non-ethical Hedonism, and might thus save the main subject from the evils of confusing the two. The preliminary sociology would probably confirm the distinction in a way of its own while serving many other purposes. Indeed, the sociology would be necessary to complete the Hedonistic survey, although not necessary for the commencement of it."

With the sentiments expressed, or meant to be expressed, in this passage we have no concern. We do not doubt that the Professor intends to convey to his readers some profound and important meaning. We may even go further, and admit that the language used probably does convey to those acquainted with Mr. Bain's style ideas of importance. What we are concerned to point out is that such modes of expression as those used by Prof. Bain, or anything like them, could not by any possibility occur in Mr. Stephen's treatise. This is much more than a mere criticism on style; it is much more than saying that Prof. Bain writes nearly the worst, and Mr. Leslie Stephen nearly the best, style of any of the living authors of eminence who discuss moral problems. The difference lies very deep. The Professor is looking at ethics logically, and as a dialectician, and hence uses to excess technical terms and formulas. Mr. Stephen has his eye constantly fixed on real life—we may perhaps conjecture, on personal experience. He, therefore, writes about morality in the clear, untechnical language in which he would write about the affairs or literature of the day. Thus, we hear nothing from him as to the necessity for a "Hedonistic survey," but we have constant references to homely facts as a solid basis for weighty inferences. Thus, the "theorem," that "most mothers love their children," whether it be as important and astonishing a phenomenon as Mr. Stephen apparently holds it, is a principle which we can all understand, and which rests upon constant experience. When we read: "I act as confidently upon the assumption that mothers love their children as upon the assumption that London Bridge will bear the weight of the passing crowds," we know that we are in the hands of a teacher who, whatever may be the defects of his theory, expresses himself in the plain language of ordinary life, and who deals with things, not with formulas. The truth is, that in style Mr. Stephen has many of the merits of an author with whom he has little otherwise in common. There are a hundred points of contrast between the 'Science of Ethics' and the 'Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy,' by William Paley, D.D.; but as regards simplicity and what one may term reality of style, Mr. Stephen may well compare with the writer who influenced the opinions of our fathers far more deeply than any single moralist influences the English or American opinion of to-day.

The quality which gives the literary charm to Mr. Stephen's work is also, as we have intimated, the source of its power. This is exactly one of the cases in which it is impossible to keep apart style and thought—the mode of expression and the worth of the thing expressed. Mr. Stephen talks the language not of the lecture-room or the study, but of ordinary life, and hence his work charms readers who could scarcely force themselves through the pages of Prof. Bain or of Herbert Spencer. But he uses the language of ordinary life because he is writing about the habits, the convictions, the morality of living men and women. The result is that, though many of his views are open to criticism and dissent, he entirely avoids the error of overlooking the obvious features of human nature. In this respect Mr. Stephen compares favorably with a writer to whom he admits his great obligations, and of whom no one ought to speak without the deepest respect. Whoever has studied Mr. Henry

Sidgwick's 'Methods of Ethics' will, as he reads the 'Science of Ethics,' be constantly struck with the points both of similarity and of difference between the modes in which two authors of equal honesty and talent treat the same topic. As regards logical acuteness, clearness of style, copiousness and variety of argument, Mr. Sidgwick can hardly be rivalled—he certainly cannot be surpassed. Look at ethical problems from his point of view, and you may almost say that the subject is exhausted. If, however, you begin to consider what is the right point of view from which to look at ethics, you may well doubt whether Mr. Stephen's sense of reality is not more likely to put one on the right path than Mr. Sidgwick's astounding dialectical subtlety. The 'Methods of Ethics' rests on the doctrine that man is a rational being, and that the one desideratum of a sound ethical theory is that it should be rational. Mr. Sidgwick's love of reasoning leads him into the error of thinking that men care far more than in fact they do that their conduct should be "reasonable." Mr. Stephen, whose views are based quite as much on observation of men and women as on any theoretical dogmas, never has absent from his mind the extent to which feeling rather than reason of any kind is the power which rules men's actions. Nothing, in fact, in his whole work is more impressive than the mode in which he even demonstrates the absolute and inseparable connection between reason and feeling:

"No theory can be tenable which virtually asserts reason and feeling to be two separate and independent faculties, one of which can properly be said to govern the other. The reason is not something superinduced upon the emotions, as something entirely new. There is no absolute gap between the lower and the higher organisms. The animal instinct may be regarded as implicit reason, or the reason as highly developed instinct. . . . The increased range of thought due to the power of forming abstract conceptions and reasoning by symbols is associated with an equal growth in the complexity and variety of the corresponding emotions. That we may have a nature capable of being stirred by such words as patriotism, philosophy, and religion, we must have an intellect capable of operations utterly beyond the reach of the lower being, but we must also have sensibility capable of a vast variety of equally new sensibilities."

This passage—or rather the whole chapter on "The Reason as Determining Conduct," from which these fragments are taken—contains important truths which lie very near the basis of all Mr. Stephen's doctrine. They also afford a most admirable specimen of that sense of reality which directs the course of his speculations.

For it is clear that Mr. Stephen's governing idea is to base morality upon a knowledge of human nature as it is known to us from experience and from history. The fact on which his conclusions are rested is the doctrine, at least as old as Aristotle, that man is a "political" (or, as we should say in modern times, a "social") being, and that you therefore make a false start if you attempt to analyze human nature without reference to the connection between men and the society in which all men live and by which they are influenced. "A man not dependent upon a race, is as meaningless a phrase as an apple that does not grow upon a tree. The words have no sense, or a purely arbitrary sense." Look upon man as essentially the member or the part of a society, and you must "consider the race as forming what is called a social organism, or, as I have preferred to say, as forming social tissue." This "tissue is built up of men as the tissue of physiology is said to be built up of cells. Every society is composed of such tissue, and the social tissue can no more exist apart from such associations than the physiological tissue exist apart from the organs of living animals." The "associations" referred to are the political, ecclesiastical, industrial, and other organs of social life. Now, in every society, if we understand Mr. Stephen rightly, you must distinguish properties implied in the particular organization of the society—*e. g.*, the arrangements of the English Constitution—and fundamental properties, in virtue of which the society may be said to belong to a certain kind of social tissue. Now, the moral law, following out our author's view, is, under one aspect at least, a statement of the

"conditions essential to the vitality of the social tissue. It may be more than this in various ways; but it must be this, whatever else it is. The process by which society has been developed implies that the most important characteristics developed in the individual by the social pressure correspond to the conditions of existence of the society. The moral law defines some of the most important characteristics so developed, and is therefore a statement of part of the qualities in virtue of which the society is possible. It is not an exhaustive statement, for other qualities may be essential; nor an absolutely accurate statement, for societies exist in which morality varies within wide limits. But, so far as it goes, it must be an approximate statement of part of the conditions."

This definition or statement of the moral law is meant to give the "cause," not the "reason," of our moral sentiments.

"Our moral judgment must condemn instincts and modes of conduct which are pernicious to the social vitality, and must approve the opposite; but it does not necessarily follow that it must condemn or approve them because they are perceived to be pernicious or beneficial. . . . Here I will only observe that there is no absurdity in supposing that the cause of our likes and dislikes may in some sense be the fact that they are useful to us, though we may not be conscious of their utility."

We have purposely kept to Mr. Stephen's phraseology. The term "tissue" is perhaps the only technical term, if we may so call it, used throughout his treatise, and we frankly confess to regretting his constant employment of a metaphorical expression where his meaning would certainly gain in clearness if he varied the metaphor under which it is expressed. Still, his general meaning is not obscure. The moral law is the mass of fundamental rules—*e. g.*, that men ought to be courageous, that temperance is a virtue, that we must practise justice, and the like—which have been gradually developed in all societies which have continued to exist, because such fundamental rules have been found to be conditions of existence.

"Society, I have said, may be considered as an organism, implying what I have called social tissue modified in various ways so as to form the organs adapted to various specific purposes. The existence of the social tissue at any stage of development, and its power of maintaining itself either as a part of the special order or as against other societies, depends essentially upon the fulfilment of certain conditions. . . . Morality is a statement of the conditions of social welfare; morality, as distinguished from prudence, refers to those conditions which imply a direct action upon the social union."

Hence, as Mr. Stephen points out, we can explain and justify the various qualities generally attributed to the moral law. It is natural, because it affects all men in so far as they have reached a certain stage of development, and because it cannot be affected by the mere will of the legislature or the sovereign. It can be varied only through great periods of time, and hence may well be called immutable or eternal. It tends to be transformed from the external rule, Do this, into the internal principle, Be this. It is, therefore, in a true sense, internal. To this may be added that the view of morality as being the expression of the conditions of social health or existence explains at once the essential permanence and universality, and also the exceptional mutability and variation, of moral principles. You can see, in short, on the theory of evolution, both why moral rules are not conventional, and why at the same time they are not, in the strict sense, immutable. Of the singular skill with which Mr. Stephen has worked out the theory of evolution as applied to morals, no fair idea can be derived from any mere abstract of his views. The book itself must be read by any one who wishes to understand the strength of the case in favor of Mr. Leslie Stephen's general theory, and any candid reader who takes the pains to study the 'Science of Ethics' will, even though he may not admit all Mr. Stephen's conclusions, probably concede that in the domain of morality, as in other spheres of speculation, the doctrine of evolution affords a real explanation of many perplexing phenomena. The question which still remains to be answered is, whether a theory which explains many things can fairly claim to explain everything.

Mr. Stephen's general theory of morals is, as our readers may see from the very inadequate outline we have given of it, both important and suggestive; we hope on some future day to recur to some of the controversies which it raises. But it is no disparagement to a very ingenious writer to say that his isolated observations are often of more weight and better samples of his powers than his whole theory. The same thing holds good of almost every eminent moralist. No human being nowadays, in reality, follows the ethical or the political systems of Plato or of Aristotle. But the 'Republic' and the 'Nicomachean Ethics' contain observations on character or life which will never grow old. Few persons now adopt the philosophy of Paley, but such remarks as the following—"in discoursing to young minds upon topics of morality, it requires much more pains to make them see the difficulty than to understand the solution"; or that "a system of morality built upon instincts will only find out reasons and excuses for opinions and practices already established: will seldom correct or reform either"—still give ground for useful thought to persons who entirely reject their author's form of utilitarianism. The 'Science of Ethics' positively abounds in reflections which have a worth quite independently of the theories in which they are embodied.

"It is more accurate to say that my conduct is determined by *the pleasantest judgment than that it is determined by my judgment what is pleasantest*. . . . A man, for example, acts in a given way under the influence of vanity. Although he knows he will be happier in the long run if he abandon some burdensome honor, his self-esteem nails him to the post. He is governed by the instantaneous feeling, by the immediate sense that his resignation would expose him to ridicule or contempt; and though this generally includes a foretaste of future suffering, he is determined by the actual painfulness of the choice, not by the belief that he is choosing something which will produce pain."

Can any one accustomed to reflect at all on moral puzzles doubt that the words we have underlined contain in the very neatest form a subtle distinction which solves many difficulties, and that a happy illustration, the fruit of acute observation, makes a rather fine point perfectly clear? Take, again, as a sample of fruitful suggestion, this exposure of a current fallacy which underlies half the movements of the day:

"That the proposition, 'This habit is a bad one,' may have any real meaning, we must assume that the organism can exist without the habit. . . . We must compare the whole man as he exists with a certain quality, to the whole man as he exists without it. To suppose that any given characteristic can be simply subtracted, is to *argue as though cutting off a leg had no other consequence than removing a*

crutch. . . . We are always tempted to assume that we can take off a habit as we can take off a coat, and to suppose that some social evil can be remedied by simply removing the most obvious source of the mischief, without troubling ourselves to ask what other organic changes will be set up. This error . . . is . . . almost the master error of crude sociology, and it may be described as a virtual confusion between organic and merely mechanical wholes."

If our author here exposes the errors of uneducated enthusiasm, he cuts at least equally deep at the fundamental mistake of jurisprudential ethics. "Lawyers are apt to speak as though the legislature were omnipotent, as they do not require to go beyond its decisions. It is of course omnipotent in the sense that it can make whatever laws it pleases, inasmuch as a law means any rule which has been made by the legislature; but from a scientific point of view it is strictly limited." It is limited from within, because the legislature itself is the product of social conditions; it is limited from without, because the power of imposing laws is dependent upon the instinct of subordination, which is itself limited by social conditions. "If a legislature decided that all blue-eyed babies should be murdered, the preservation of blue-eyed babies would be illegal; but legislators must go mad before they could pass such a law, and subjects would be idiotic before they could submit to it." Here we have a refutation of half the fallacies of the Austinian pedants, who try to apply their master's analysis of the nature of law to spheres certainly not within his contemplation when he defined the province of jurisprudence.

The matter is the better worth notice because Mr. Leslie Stephen, by using at one part of his book a common but very misleading metaphor, runs the risk of leaving on his readers' minds a totally false impression of the general drift of the work. "The law of nature," he writes, "has but one precept, Be strong; nature has but one punishment, decay culminating in death and extirpation, and takes cognizance of but one evil, the weakness which leads to decay." This isolated and ill-considered piece of rhetoric certainly suggests that Mr. Stephen is one of those who make a sort of deity of force and strength. No conception could be more erroneous. As you read his analysis of Sympathy and Altruism, you soon perceive that feeling, sympathy, affection in all its forms, and especially the family affections, are to our author the true source of social strength and health, and thus a treatise of which the nominal text is "Be strong," exhibits something which might almost be termed a mystical tendency to insist on the precept, "Love one another." In this, in short, as in every other part of the 'Science of Ethics,' we see that Mr. Leslie Stephen bases his theories not on any abstract dogma, but on a sense of what is real, and that nothing in human nature seems to him so real as the sympathy which links man to man, husband to wife, mother to child. Whatever be our doubts, such sympathy is a real fact, and Mr. Stephen seizes upon it with the firm grasp of a man full of a sense of reality.

WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.

A Biography of William Cullen Bryant, with Extracts from his Private Correspondence. By Parke Godwin. In two volumes.

The Poetical Works of William Cullen Bryant. Edited by Parke Godwin. In two volumes. D. Appleton & Co. 1883.

MR. GODWIN would have made his life of Mr. Bryant more interesting if he had made it shorter. How to make a biography without incident attractive to the reader is always a serious problem; but in Mr. Bryant's case the end can hardly be attained by the elaboration of details, or by resort to his correspondence, for the routine of his life is only made the more apparent by the first, while his letters are as a rule rather dry reading. There is in them little play of fancy, not often many touches of humor; such criticism of public men and events as they contain has mostly lost its interest. Mr. Bryant's career as a poet was but slightly connected with his life as a journalist, and one throws very little light upon the other. Though as a boy he attempted political satire in verse, not without success according to the taste of the times, the verses which brought him most reputation have an atmosphere as far removed from that of the newspaper or political world as if he had remained all his life among the quiet hills of western Massachusetts. He appears to have gone into journalism not because it attracted him as an occupation, or because he had ideas or beliefs which he wished to preach and spread, but because poetry did not furnish him a means of livelihood, and law, for which he seems to have been in some respects well qualified, did not attract him. Of the uncertainties and dangers of a literary career he always had a just estimate. Nobody was ever less of a Bohemian than Mr. Bryant. Indeed, we may say, if he had been a little more of one, if he had had a dash of recklessness, if he had made a mistake now and then, if he had not had all his passions and appetites and desires under such perfect control, Mr. Godwin would have found the task of interesting the reader in him far easier. Few poets in the history of literature have managed their lives with so much business sagacity and shrewdness as Mr. Bryant; and the consequence of this is that in Mr. Godwin's volumes we get a more vivid picture of this shrewd management and the success with which it met than of the poetical reverse of the career. For all practical purposes, indeed, Mr. Bryant's life was that of a man of business. His toil was constant and related chiefly to practical matters. He spent his life in building up a newspaper. Poetry was his relaxation.

His journalistic career was very different from any that is possible at the present time. It must of course be judged with reference to the condition not only of New York, but of the whole country in his day. It is not too much to say that in the early part of this century, and down, in fact, to the war, the tone of society and literature, of the press and politics in the United States, was that of a distinctly rural democracy. Our fathers lived, to a far greater extent than is now the case, in villages, or on farms, or in small towns. Instead of city life giving its tone to the country, as it does so much now, the healthy but somewhat dull rural atmosphere invaded the towns. It must be admitted that looking back at this period of our existence, we were dull. It was one of the results of this dulness that every event and incident and person assumed an unreasonable and unnatural importance. A local election, a controversy over some fresh "lie" of Cheetham or Duane, the arrival of a popular European author, or an unpopular actor, filled the whole community with excitement, passion, or delight—feelings which were heightened by a keen perception of the fact that these were events in the history of a new republic for which we were all responsible, and that "the eyes of Europe were upon us." City civilization necessarily produces a different tone from this—it may be a more cynical and selfish tone, but at any rate one which does not lend itself to the magnification of events and persons so readily.

Mr. Bryant enjoyed all the possible advantages of this early rural atmosphere. He wrote poetry, and in an instant he had the attention of the entire country. He took up a newspaper, and became the "great American editor." It is with no intention of belittling the value of Mr. Bryant's services in literature or politics that we mention this fact; it is rather in his interest that it should be recalled, for the habitual exaggeration of the period should not be allowed to drive us to the opposite extreme of indifference to such solid claims to attention as his career actually presents. It is the fashion to call the atmosphere which made this exaggeration possible "provincial" and "colonial," and so it was; but the rural "note" is as distinctly marked in these volumes. In the New York of Mr. Bryant's early days, we always feel the presence of "the neighbors," and notwithstanding the ferocity of politics, there was something almost village-like in the tone of life.

Mr. Godwin begins with a few pages of autobiography, written by Mr. Bryant in 1874-5, only three or four years before his death. This contains an account of his family and childhood, and a very good picture of the surroundings of his early days. His father was a Federalist. Mr. Bryant, taught as a boy to regard Jefferson and his party with a holy horror, came later to be a Democrat, and in the end a Republican. The reasons for the latter change are easily understood. Mr. Bryant's case was the common one of an anti-slavery Democrat forced slowly out of the party by its gradual retrogression on the slavery question. But the first change was a more interesting one. It seems to have taken place when Mr. Bryant was a man of twenty-eight or thirty years of age, and the causes which led to his conversion would probably present, if they were known, a picture of the growth of the feelings, ideas, beliefs, and hopes which gave the Democratic party so firm a hold upon the educated public opinion of the country in the second quarter of the century. We get, however, little or no light upon these.

Coming to New York, Mr. Bryant began his work as an editor, and continued it down to the time of his death in 1878, with interruptions caused by trips to Europe, Mexico, and the East. During all this period he occupied a prominent position in this city, of a kind which no journalist is ever likely to occupy again. The period of what we may call hortatory journalism has been succeeded all over the country by a more critical system. When Mr. Bryant began to write, the newspapers of New York were too often edited by low adventurers, who played the part of literary puffers and bravos in the politics of the day, extolling the virtues and magnifying the fame of the great men on one side, and spreading the necessary falsehoods and slanders about the great men on the other. Mr. Bryant was the first editor of any note to perceive that the party press might be used for better purposes than these; that an editor might use his newspaper as a pulpit for exhortation and argument. His introduction of this system was a great public benefit, and was immediately recognized as such. The Democratic wave which was then sweeping over the country made the undertaking easier in one way, for it enabled an editor to identify himself the more readily with "the people," and to attribute to "the people" ideas and arguments which were really his own and make them the groundwork for earnest appeals to the party. A vast amount of Mr. Bryant's editorial writing consisted of exhortation of this kind, and most of his writing has a hortatory color, which sounds rather strange and uncritical in our ears. In his day, however, it was the best of its kind, and its kind is by no means extinct—though it is now kept alive by the rural rather than the city press. It is always necessary in considering the

journalism of that time to remember that for a purely critical editorial career the atmosphere of a great capital is necessary, and not only that New York was, as we have said, a small town, but that the whole country enjoyed a sort of pre-urban civilization.

It was on his poetry, however, and not on his editorial career, that Mr. Bryant preferred to rest his claim to permanent fame; and in this he was clearly right. He was early recognized at home and abroad, through such poems as "Thanatopsis" and "The Waterfowl," as having something to say in verse which had an inspiration of its own. The praise and exultant admiration at once lavished upon him were undoubtedly exaggerated, but at the same time unaffected. A long line of American poets have succeeded him whose merits have been such as to alter our perspective seriously. We are less inclined to liken him, as his contemporaries did, to Wordsworth, than to inquire in what sort of a relation he stands to Longfellow, Lowell, Whittier, and Emerson. He must be regarded as distinctly an American poet, for there is in his verses an atmosphere, moral and material, which distinctively belongs to this country. The melancholy which pervades his poems is the melancholy of the vast American landscape, unpeopled yet, and impressive, but sadly impressive, to the imagination. It is not the poetry of rapid, active, passionate life. It is lonely poetry, in which we hear the moaning of the bleak winds among the desolate hill-tops of western Massachusetts, feel the silence and cold of the long winters, and the death in life which solitary nature is so apt to suggest. In a certain sense Mr. Bryant might be said to be the poet of loneliness, tempered by morality and religion. In "Thanatopsis" the charm is the charm of death—the soothing feeling produced in the weary mind that, after all, life must end and the ineffable peace of eternity be ours too. But the poem is given a moral, just as "The Waterfowl" is, and a moral of that somewhat elementary kind which has since Mr. Bryant's day characterized so much of American poetry. Mr. Bryant's fondness for moralizing on life and duty, in a manner which suggests the pulpit, or sometimes what is known in the newspaper world as the "sanctum," is the only connection that can be traced between his editorial and his poetical life. In this vein, however, Longfellow was destined to surpass him.

Mr. Godwin's volumes contain copious extracts from Mr. Bryant's correspondence, the most valuable part of which consists of the letters which passed between himself and his friend Mr. R. H. Dana, himself a poet, whose suggestions and criticisms were always listened to by Mr. Bryant with respect, and often adopted. His letters from abroad are generally of little permanent value, owing apparently to the lack of any genuine critical interest. He saw all the distinguished men of his time, and was on terms of friendly intercourse with many of them, but to our knowledge of them he contributes almost nothing. His acquaintance with European modes of life and thought was, indeed, very superficial, and there is in his letters curiously little of the citizen of the world.

DOYLE'S ENGLISH COLONIES IN AMERICA.

English Colonies in America: Virginia, Maryland, and the Carolinas. By J. A. Doyle, Fellow of All Souls' College, Oxford. Henry Holt & Co. 1882. 8vo, 420 pages.

MR. JOHN ANDREW DOYLE is a graduate of Balliol College, Oxford, where he won a "first class" in *litteris humanioribus* in 1867. He became a Fellow of All Souls', the endowments of which college are now specially applied to the fostering of studies in law and history. Mr. Doyle held for several years the Vinerian Readership of Civil and English Law, but he has specially devoted himself since graduation to the study of American history. In 1869 he won the Arnold Prize for an essay upon 'The American Colonies previous to the Declaration of Independence,' which was published that year in an octavo volume of 219 pages. This work was undoubtedly the basis of Mr. Doyle's 'History of the United States' (in "Freeman's Historical Course for Schools"), and is evidently the rudimental essay from which the present larger work upon the 'English Colonies in America' has evolved by a scholarly process of natural selection. The author himself says that he has in some measure incorporated into his new book the substance of his two smaller works.

Although written from an English point of view, all of Mr. Doyle's writings are characterized by a remarkably fair-minded, impartial spirit. His last work is superior in many ways to those which have preceded it, more especially, it might be said, in point of original research, amplitude of detail, philosophic grasp, and literary finish. He has not had access to the full range of colonial sources, or even of written history upon the colonial period, but from all the materials within his reach he has extracted the very quintessence of fact, and has given us valuable results in his own style—at once clear, compressed, and uniformly good. The reader of Mr. Doyle's work may wish, perhaps, that there were more picturesqueness of description, more life and color in his writing; but this can be attained only by a closer observation of American society in its historical development. Moreover, Mr. Doyle's standpoint is not that of a sociologist, but of a student of institutional history. For such an observer matters of government, laws, and constitutions have more interest than manners and customs.

Mr. Doyle proposes in three volumes to "describe and explain the process by which a few scattered colonies along the Atlantic seaboard grew into that vast Confederate Republic, the United States of America." The present, or first, volume is tolerably complete in itself, and treats of the history of Virginia, Maryland, and the Carolinas, down to the close of the seventeenth century. The next volume in the series will be devoted to the New England colonies, within the same chronological limit; and the last of the three will embrace the early history of the other English colonies in America, and continue with the entire group down to the time of its separation from the mother country. The close of the first period, as Mr. Doyle says, "marks a distinct break in the administrative system adopted toward the colonies and in their relations to the English Government." The groundwork for colonial independence and self-government was laid, during the seventeenth century, under the proprietary and chartered governments, and in certain provinces enjoying royal favor; but the eighteenth century marks the up-building of colonial unity under a strengthening and centralizing royal authority, manifested not alone in royal governors in various colonies, but more generally in economic administration and in the conduct of wars with the French and Indians. The Declaration of Independence, caused by an increasing economic pressure, resulted in the shifting of sovereignty from the English crown to the English people in America, who already in many ways had discovered their unity of interest, and who had long been locally organized in old English ways.

The chief excellence of Mr. Doyle's work lies in his clear and detailed exposition of the continuity of English institutions in the New World. He regards "the history of the United States as the transplantation of English ideas and institutions to a distant soil, and the adaptation of them to new wants and altered modes of life." He does not hold to his English theory in any servile, pedantic way, but endeavors to point out, in the very lines of English continuity, a certain developmental process in American institutions. He makes proper allowance for new conditions, changing circumstances, and varying needs in the American colonies, but withal he does not fail to show how closely they approximated to the parliamentary system of the mother country. The colony of Virginia, beginning in a joint-stock enterprise and a group of farms or plantations, very early evolves a system of representation and a House of Burgesses. Soon the patent of the trading company is revoked, and Virginia becomes a royal province, reproducing the parliamentary and county types of old-English government in the most striking manner. "To the Virginian colonists the difficulty would have lain, not in copying the institutions of England, but in deviating from them." Maryland, too, began like Virginia as an economic venture, although under the authority of a sovereign proprietor. Soon by his special writ were summoned to a miniature parliament at St. Mary's the lords of manors and two burgesses from every "hundred." This body, representing aristocratic and popular elements, was divided in 1647 into an Upper Council and a Lower House, thus bringing "the constitution of Maryland into conformity with that of the mother country and of Virginia." Most interesting is Mr. Doyle's account of the way in which the people of the Carolinas worked out an English constitution for themselves underneath the artificial system which Locke and the proprietary tried to impose upon them. A general view of colonial government is thus stated in few words:

> "As a rule, the constitutions of our American colonies were distinguished by simplicity and by their definite and practical character. We find in them no spirit of ingenuity or contrivance, no trace of any craving for ideal perfection, hardly even adequate respect for definiteness and precision. They were, in fact, direct offshoots from the constitution of the mother country, and, like the parent stock, they had all the characteristics of a system which is the growth of many generations, not the handiwork of one" (p. 355).

It is somewhat remarkable that Mr. Lodge's 'Short History of the English Colonies in America,' published in 1881, should have been so closely followed by two other books upon the same general subject—the one an American work, by Eben Greenough Scott, upon 'The Development of Constitutional Liberty in the English Colonies in America,' the other by Mr. Doyle, representing English scientific interest in the colonial beginnings of the United States. The favorable reception accorded to all three of these works indicates, perhaps, that there is room for all, and that each has a peculiar merit of its own. Mr. Doyle's work, as we have already implied, is most valuable as a constitutional history of the colonies. Mr. Scott is more felicitous in his description of colonial manners, particularly those of the South. Mr. Lodge is strong in his characterization of the economic and social condition of all the colonies at the period immediately preceding the Revolution.

In attempting to write the colonial history of this country from an English point of view, Mr. Doyle has had certain scientific advantages, which partly compensate for the greater wealth of materials and for the power of local coloring enjoyed by his associates upon this side of the Atlantic. He has been enabled by his very remoteness to treat American history with a greater degree of objectivity than could most

American writers, however tempered their judgment. He has enjoyed remarkable facilities for examining colonial documents preserved in the State Paper Office in London. He has been able, as it were, to go behind the scenes and to observe all the interesting arts and appliances by which English stock companies, royal favorites, and business agents of honest men brought English colonies upon the stage of history. Mr. Doyle has viewed the English side of America, and he is consequently better able than most Americans to appreciate the principle of English continuity in our colonial constitution. Men like Doyle, Gardiner, and Freeman perceive clearly, and almost instinctively, the inner connection of things, the relation of events, the ramifications of English liberty, and withal its symmetry and true proportions. Just as Mr. Bryce's study of the "Holy Roman Empire" of the German nation made English students realize the eternal unity of old Rome and modern Europe, so "the continuation of English history" in America by men like Mr. Doyle will develop a stronger sense of historical unity between old England and the United States.

While commending the spirit and general character of Mr. Doyle's work, we may indicate one or two errors of detail, excusable, perhaps, as typographical blunders, or as natural oversights by an author viewing American history from such a distance. Virginians will reprove Mr. Doyle for persistently spelling Lord Culpeper's name with three p's, when not only Culpeper County in Old Virginia, but the Patent itself to Lord Culpeper and others, in the 21 Car. II., as reprinted in Virginia Laws, preserves the true form. Marylanders will not appreciate the reference to "Henry *Clay*, an independent squatter on an outlying portion of the Virginian territory," who aided Calvert in finding a site for his colony. Henry *Fleet* was the man. On pages 289 and 294, the author speaks of Secretary "Sawyer," when obviously *Lewger* is meant, who, by the way, was an Oxford man and a distinguished scholar, converted by the preaching of Chillingworth.

Emerson as a Poet. By Joel Benton. M. L. Holbrook & Co. 1883.

THIS brief essay, which records the personal impression made by Emerson's poetry upon a sympathetic and sensitive mind, aims to obtain a wider recognition and higher estimate for Emerson's poetic faculty. The author does not employ for this purpose any criticism, properly speaking; he dispenses with all academic canons, and pleads as positively as did Emerson for the poet's self-abandonment to the spiritual powers over him. In this way he practically dismisses the usual objections, very pertinently urged by many, that Emerson's poems are rendered more or less ineffective, and so far fail, by their frequent obscurities, their inconsecutiveness of thought, and their crudities in art. It is easy to silence the critic thus, by telling him that his rules are inapplicable; but the reader's difficulties are not thereby removed, and it might have been wiser for one who writes, as Mr. Benton avowedly does, in order to inspire others with his own enthusiasm, to acknowledge at once and clearly the undoubted limitations of Emerson's genius, out of which the initial difficulties in understanding him arise. Mr. Benton does this only incidentally and with evident dislike; for the most part, he simply eulogizes the poems in the choicest words at his command, and even says of his idol that "we must go back to Shakspere and Milton, among English names, to find an equally enormous endowment."

It would not be desirable to notice such an extravagance but for the clearness with which the comparison marks Emerson's failure to be popular. Few poets in the last three centuries have shown so continuous an intimacy and pure a communion with nature as beauty, or so complete and impressive a conception of nature as law; few have been so original, spontaneous, and exact. But a man may be gifted in all these ways and fail of that constant certainty of expression that won for Shakspere and Milton the world for their audience. There are a few unique poems, and many brief passages, of Emerson's which have this power to make themselves known to all; clear as crystal and enduring as adamant, they hold his immortality. But in general he requires in his readers capacities for exaltations purely of the intellect that belong to few men; at his level, he asks unusual powers of attention, because his principal gift as an artist was the condensing faculty—he could put an essay into a couplet without any loss to the mind. Most of his admirers, we fancy, read him fragmentarily, as they would Thomas à Kempis, and so escape the mental confusion that harasses a new reader, who, of course, reads continuously. In brief, Emerson needs an usher to proclaim his titles and give the cue for his proper reception, and an essayist who would perform this service would be gratefully appreciated by the many who do not know what to make of so nondescript a poet at first sight or afterward. In other words, a good preface would be more serviceable to his fame than a thousand eulogies.

This essay, while it shows what Emerson may be worth to a man whose poetic sense has been highly cultivated, does not point out, as such a preface would, the road for common travellers. Its principal value as a guide lies in the quotations, which may captivate anew the discouraged and urge them on to a last attempt. Besides the old well-worn lines, familiar to many who perhaps never opened Emerson's volumes, there are a few new ones, which, if not of the best, were worth rescuing from the winds. One couplet illustrates the hardness of Emerson's workmanship in comparison with Campbell's:

> "A score of airy miles will smooth
> Rough Monadnock to a gem";

and the following quatrain exhibits the startling rhetoric which so often leads the reader to exert some patience to get at the obscure thought it contains:

> "The beggar begs by God's command,
> And gifts awake when givers sleep;
> Swords cannot cut the giving hand,
> Nor stab the love that orphans keep."

These lines have the royal stamp that only the poetic mind imprints; but the value is, as usual, dubious at first, depending much on the hand to which they come. The other new verses had better have been left in oblivion. The concordance to the poems prepared by Mr. Kennedy, and Mr. Poole's list of magazine articles on Emerson, are valuable additions to the volume.

Epochs of the Papacy, from its Rise to the Death of Pope Pius IX. in 1878. By the Rev. Arthur Robert Pennington, M. A., Canon Non-residentiary of Lincoln Cathedral. London: George Bell & Sons. 1882. 8vo, pp. 496.

MR. PENNINGTON'S history is written from the point of view of a pronounced and ardent adherent of the Church of England. When we have said this, we have sufficiently indicated its tone; it should be added, however, that it is not, in any bad sense of the term, partisan, but is as fair and impartial as a man of positive opinions could be expected to make it. For the rest, it is a book of decided merit, the product of careful scholarship, and written in a very interesting style. There is probably no better brief account of this important institution.

Of course this is not an *ecclesiastical* history in the full sense of the term, nor even a history of the See of Rome. While it is impossible to avoid questions of theology and church discipline, the idea associated with the word *Papacy* is nevertheless that of dominion rather than doctrine or place in the hierarchy. A history of the Bishops of Rome must have narrated the interesting series of events connected with that bishopric in the four first centuries; a history of the Papacy may perhaps properly be said to commence with Leo the Great, for he, although not bearing the title of Pope in the exclusive sense in which it is familiar to us, may fairly be called the founder of the Papal power. The period before his pontificate is therefore dismissed in a few pages of very general character. Indeed, the six hundred years which followed are passed over with very brief mention, and the career of Hildebrand forms the real starting-point in the history. From this date, the middle of the eleventh century, to the Reformation, the history is very full and detailed; these five hundred years receiving about 350 pages out of the 500 which compose the volume. The centuries since the Reformation, as might be expected, are less full, but still sufficiently detailed for the needs of most readers.

The growth and decline of the Papal power, which is the most important event of the five hundred years in question, is treated exceedingly well. We question whether the judgment expressed as to Gregory VII. is not too severe. He was no doubt ambitious, but it was, we think, an unselfish ambition, so far as ambition can be unselfish—that is, in the first place, ambition for his order rather than for himself; in the second place, an ambition resting upon a sincere conviction that what he wished to accomplish was what the world most needed. For the rest of the great men who took part in this long contest on both sides, it seems to us that essential justice is done them, and also to the questions at issue from time to time. The temporal power in another sense—the establishment of the Popes as temporal monarchs over the States of the Church—is not so satisfactorily treated. The first step is narrated with such fulness, in an excellent analysis of the fraudulent donation of Constantine, occupying four pages, that we looked to find the subsequent steps in the process described with the same care. But the reader who attempts to trace the formation of the Papal States, and the establishment of an effective power in them, will be greatly disappointed. Mention is made, for example, of certain acquisitions of territory by Alexander VI. and Julius II., but none of the fact that these popes first succeeded in asserting an effective authority over their states which practically made them into kings—a policy of the same character as that of the nearly contemporary sovereigns, Louis XI., Henry VII., and Ferdinand the Catholic.

Mr. Pennington comments with severity and justice upon the intolerance of the Church at various epochs, and upon the iniquity of the persecutions. It is, therefore, somewhat inconsistent when (p. 83), after describing the views of Abelard, he adds: "We have reason to be grateful to St. Bernard that he wielded all the power of the Papacy for the suppression of these and similar opinions; for otherwise, aided by the corrupt passions and propensities of human nature, and by the extraordinary popularity of Abelard's writings, they would have been propagated silently and gradually seven centuries ago through the length and breadth of the Continent of Europe." Is persecution to be condemned only when directed against opinions which Mr. Pennington approves, and not also when directed against those which he considers heresies?

We find a few misprints. Charlemagne was

made Patrician (p. 24), not Patriarch. It was not the Pope (p. 33), but the Emperor who had a veto upon Papal elections. Nicholas III. became Pope in 1277 (p. 142), not 1272. The Pope who approved of the massacre of St. Bartholomew (p. 377) was Gregory XIII., not Gregory IX.

Hygiene for Girls. By Irenæus P. Davis, M.D. D. Appleton & Co. 1883. Small 8vo, pp. 210.

THIS little volume deserves a warm welcome from all who desire to save young girls from the suffering which so often arises from "ignorance that is criminal because unnecessary." The author dedicates his work to Dr. Sims, "in the hope that it may aid in some measure to avert from the women of to-morrow the suffering that it is his gracious mission to alleviate for the women of to-day." The general scope of the work may, perhaps, be best understood from the following enumeration of the headings of the chapters: I. Nerves and Nervousness; II. Habit and Association; III. Sympathy and Imagination; IV. Organs peculiar to Women; V. Feminine Employments; VI. Amusements; VII. Social Customs; VIII. Harmony and Elements of Beauty; IX. Hygienic Morals.

In the first chapter, the author endeavors to correct popular misapprehensions in regard to the functions of the nerves, and the real meaning of the word "nervous." We find here also an excellent discussion of the extent to which victims of so-called nervous irritability are really responsible for their actions. In the chapter on amusements, the author lays down the principle, "that while some amusements, of a nature very different from one's occupation, are useful and necessary, still, when their object is mere recreation to the wearied powers, without reference to the discipline and development of other powers, there is special advantage in such as are somewhat allied in character to the occupation, provided they are not identified with it too closely. . . . Thus it is that scholars are apt to find their principal amusements in affairs which involve mental exercise, and those who are not scholars naturally seek theirs in exercises more purely physical." The most suitable age for marriage is discussed in the chapter on social customs, and the conclusion is reached that "in this country no girl ought to marry under twenty years of age, and few are fit for it under twenty-two or twenty-three," the reason being that "maturity of strength and endurance do not come till some time after maturity of form and of organization has been reached."

In the fourth, and also in the ninth chapter, the author conveys a great deal of useful information of a sort which is too often, from a false feeling of delicacy, withheld from girls by their parents and teachers, and for the want of which they often go out into the world poorly prepared for its duties and responsibilities. The language in which these subjects are discussed is unexceptionable, and the book is in every respect one which those who are responsible for the education of young girls need not hesitate to place in their hands as soon as they are old enough to understand the matters of which it treats.

L'Italie qu'on voit et l'Italie qu'on ne voit pas. Par Auguste Brachet. Paris. 1882.

FROM a psychological point of view, this is a very curious book. The author starts with a proposition which we are by no means disposed to admit—namely, that the doctrine of nationalities has already caused, and will cause, more wars than the religious quarrels of the earlier days, or the dynastic quarrels of the later; that the passions excited are more terrible, and the resentments more bitter and durable. What we object to is not so much the assertion of facts, which for the present, and it is to be feared for the future, unfortunately do not admit of dispute, but the assignment of cause. What country was ever more peaceably disposed toward its neighbors than the United States? Our civil war, instead of being caused by nationality, sprang from a disease which threatened nationality, and the triumph of the principle saved this continent from unspeakable woes. If by "nationality" we mean the voice and will of the nation, what was it but the mass of the working people of Great Britain which preserved us from foreign intervention during that war? Certainly, it was not the "court circles" or "cultured intelligence" which refused to join Louis Napoleon in lending substantial aid to the Southern Confederacy. In the Russo-Turkish war of 1878 it was the nation standing behind Mr. Bright, Mr. Gladstone, and others of their class which kept the aristocracy from plunging into the fray, as they would have done and did do thirty years ago. It is their responsibility to the nation which makes the Government so anxious to avoid the appearance of conquest in Egypt, and to get out of it as soon as they can provide any stable administration.

If the state of things is different on the Continent, there is a cause amply sufficient to explain it without having recourse to nationality—namely, that most terrible of modern political engines, the conscription. The armies of Louis XIV. and Frederick II. were no doubt recruited in very lawless fashion, and the "crimp" was a very important Government official. But it was reserved for the state in the nineteenth century to lay its grasp upon every able-bodied citizen, to impress it upon him that readiness to fight is the first duty of man, and that he must not only give his body for that purpose, but largely of his substance for procuring the most costly and elaborate instruments of offence and defence. Moreover, this system, by its very nature, must be strained to its utmost, because the emulation which is justified by the necessities of defence compels each nation not only to exhaust all its resources, but to stimulate its citizens to a consciousness of, and even an eagerness for, the sacrifices which may be required of them. But the system is strongest precisely where dynastic and royal traditions of divine right are in full force, as in the German Empire. As soon as the people have any real voice in the matter, the fabric begins to totter. It is hardly too much to say that there is no danger that France will engage in an aggressive European war as long as the Republic lasts. An attack from the outside, or a military leader seizing despotic power (the latter, indeed, as a very probable consequence of the former), might again lead the nation to organized slaughter, but it will be no movement of the people.

M. Brachet complains that in both Germany and Italy the Governments, in the organizing of national festivals and of instruction in schools, studiously impress upon their peoples a spirit of hostility to France. His special subject being Italy, he goes into an elaborate examination of the text-books used in the primary and secondary, the military and papal schools. There are many advantages in a supervision of education by the state, but it must be admitted that the book-agents who make life a burden to our school committees at least do not use their publications as a means of propagating hostility to our neighbors. It seems to us that M Brachet furnishes herein the argument for his own refutation—namely, that the fault is not with the peoples, but that which fills every page of history—the abuse of popular passions by rulers and demagogues for their own purposes. It is the education of the people to the point of refusing to submit to such abuse which may be reasonably looked to for putting an end to wars.

If there was ever in the world a case of justifiable national antipathy, it might seem to be that of the Italians for the French. From the first invasion of Charles VIII. down to the fall of Louis Napoleon at Sedan, the connection between the nations is a history of insult, humiliation, and misery for the weaker. The hand of Austria has been indeed hard and heavy for a century past; but it was in the support of tyrannies to a considerable degree local, native, and peaceful. The Spanish government of Naples was one of the most disgraceful in European history, but it was confined to a small part of the peninsula. Neither involved, as was the case with the French, whole centuries of stirring up of purposeless civil wars. One cannot help a feeling of sympathy on reading the anecdote told by M. Brachet of Alexander of Este. That prince was in alliance with the French when, through a false manœuvre, a body of the latter came between his troops and the enemy: "Fire just the same," he said; "they are all foreigners."

M. Brachet takes offence because the Italians, in their joy at getting rid of the stranger, celebrate the centennial of the Sicilian Vespers of 1282. Imagine the London *Times* making it a serious international grievance that the Americans celebrate the centennial of the battle of Lexington or the surrender at Yorktown. It may be rather trying to read in Italian geographies that Nice and Corsica are parts of Italy "temporarily in the possession of France," or that the Minghetti ministry in 1876 obtained the concession of a commercial treaty from the French by a feint of concentrating troops in the neighborhood of Nice; but we think M. Brachet hardly gives the Italians sufficient credit for the fact that in the tempting period of 1870-71 they did abstain from the attempt at recovering Nice and Savoy. We wonder if he has asked himself whether, supposing the circumstances had been reversed, his countrymen would have exercised a similar self-control.

We sincerely regret that the Italians have thought it necessary to incur such heavy expenditure upon their army and navy, and that they have not devoted themselves more exclusively to internal reforms, though we believe that their descendants will in this respect have no reason to be ashamed of the history of the last ten years. We have also a certain sympathy for the bitterness with which a Frenchman feels that his country, like a reigning beauty upon whom the ravages of time begin to tell, is losing the place of first importance in Europe. But it is not to a spirit like that displayed in this book that the best friends of France must look for the principles of enlightened and peaceful popular government under a Republic.

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Marked "In Haste." A Story of To-day. Trow's Printing and Bookbinding Co.
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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 3, 1883.

The Week.

INLAND navigation on the lakes and rivers has been practically reopened within the past week, and may be expected to impart increased activity to business. Foreign immigration is increasing, and, in connection with it, there is a larger immigration than was ever known before from Canada to the new Northwest, passing through Chicago and other Western points. The condition of the winter wheat crop has been greatly improved during the past fortnight, and the progress of seeding for the spring wheat crop has been very satisfactory. On the whole, the prospect for a full average crop of wheat has improved at least 5 to 8 per cent. The troubles between owners and employees in the Western iron mills have not been settled, but there are indications of concessions on the part of manufacturers which may possibly yet avert a strike. There is, however, still so wide a difference of view that it is doubtful if it can be overcome. Financially, the past week has presented no special feature except the increasing demand, both in this country and in Europe, for first-class railroad bonds. Within the past ten days several of the most important loans ever put out by railroad corporations (including some which have been in process of negotiation for several years) have been either finally absorbed by the public, or bid for by syndicates of bankers who desire them to supply the public demand. Among these may be mentioned the last $10,000,000 of the Northern Pacific bonds; $3,000,000 of Union Pacific bonds; $5,000,000 of proposed New York, New Haven and Hartford bonds; and $3,000,000 of the Oregon and California bonds. Altogether there have been at least $25,000,000 of railroad bonds taken by syndicates of bankers in ten days. The money market has continued well supplied, both here and in Europe, but the demand for either investment or speculation does not seem to extend to the stock market yet, and prices of railway stocks are lower than a week ago.

The following very extraordinary resolution has passed the Massachusetts Senate and is now before the Lower House of the Legislature:

"In view of the great services of Oakes Ames—representative from the Massachusetts Second Congressional District for ten years ending March 4, 1873—in achieving the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad, the most vital contribution to the integrity and growth of the national Union since the war; in view of his unflinching truthfulness and honesty, which refused to suppress in his own or any other interest any fact, and so made him the victim of an intense and misdirected public excitement, and of a vote of censure by the Forty-second Congress at the close of its session; and in view of the later deliberate public sentiment, which, upon a review of all the facts (and especially since the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States vindicating him and the Crédit Mobilier of America of any fraud on the Government), holds him in an esteem irreconcilable with his condemnation, and which, throughout the whole country, recognizes the value and patriotism of his achievement and his innocence of corrupt motive or conduct; therefore, the Legislature of Massachusetts hereby expresses its gratitude for his work and its faith in his integrity of purpose and character, and asks for a like recognition thereof on the part of the national Congress."

The Crédit Mobilier scandals of 1873 are no longer quite as fresh in the memory of men as they once were, but they are fresh enough not to permit anybody, not even the Legislature of so respectable a State as Massachusetts, to confuse people's minds about their character. The resolution above quoted tries to persuade us that those who were censured for their participation in the Crédit Mobilier affair were the "victims of an intense and misdirected public excitement." But when it is remembered that the excitement was directed against the practice of influencing the votes of Congressmen by distributing valuable securities among them, "where they would do the most good," it will also be remembered that the public excitement was not misdirected at all, and that it would do the country an immense deal of good if we could have such an excitement in every similar case.

The resolution is undoubtedly intended to soothe the feelings and to burnish over the escutcheon of the family of a man who did many good and useful things, and who possessed many excellent traits of character, but who, in order to carry his ends, used means calculated to demoralize our public life in a very dangerous manner. The resolution extols Oakes Ames for having "achieved the construction of the Union Pacific Railroad, the most vital contribution to the integrity and growth of the national Union since the war." Nobody denies that Oakes Ames did very much toward that end. Nobody censured him for having carried out a great public work, but he was censured for the means he used in doing it. The resolution extols his "unflinching truthfulness and honesty, which refused to suppress, in his own or any other interest, any fact." Everybody respects that unflinching truthfulness, and nobody denies that he possessed it. But he has been censured because that truthfulness compelled him to admit that he had used corrupt means to create certain prepossessions in the Congressional mind. Oakes Ames was a business man of great enterprise and energy, who, in his eagerness to accomplish great results, occasionally failed to remember that the moral tone of our public life is a matter of much higher consequence than even a great railroad. Nobody will find fault with his family and his friends who, in view of his many excellent qualities, take a charitable view of his failings, and commend that charitable view to the general public. But they make a mistake if they treat this as a mere family affair, and at the same time challenge public sentiment all over the country with regard to it.

General Crook's expedition against the hostile Apaches seems to have come to a dead halt at the Mexican border. Some time ago we were informed that an understanding had been arrived at between the Government of the United States and that of the Mexican Republic, in pursuance of which, in case of hostile Indians passing the line between the two countries, our troops might cross into Mexico or Mexican troops into the United States, in pursuit of them. As is their custom, the hostile Apaches who recently committed so many murders in Arizona sought shelter on Mexican territory as soon as our troops moved upon them. General Crook then organized an expedition with a view to following them across the Mexican line and destroying them in their places of refuge, in accordance with the understanding above mentioned. But at the frontier he is arrested by an order from Washington which bids him stop. And now we learn that Señor Romero, the Mexican Minister, has "put himself in telegraphic communication with his Government with reference to the representations made to him by Secretary Frelinghuysen, on the subject of obtaining consent for United States troops to cross the Mexican border in pursuit of raiding Indians." From this it would appear that, if there is any understanding, as above mentioned, at all, it is worthless in effect as to the present emergency. The Apaches are in the habit of moving about briskly, and if a campaign against them is to be subject in its progress to diplomatic negotiations with the Mexican Government, the savages may laugh at their pursuers. Mr. Romero does not seem to be in any hurry about the matter, since he expresses himself in favor of correspondence by letter with his Government in preference to using the telegraph more than he has done already. And inasmuch as his letters will not reach the city of Mexico for two or three weeks, and the Mexican Senate, upon whose consent the arrangement seems to depend, will then be ready to adjourn, he sees no prospect of doing anything this season. It is not clear, however, why under such circumstances General Crook was permitted to start on his expedition at all.

In the meantime another phase of the "Indian trouble" is illustrated by another kind of savages. While General Crook is on the Mexican border, the "Tombstone Rangers," an organization of white ruffians, seem to have resumed their scheme of "wiping out" the peaceable Apaches on the San Carlos reservation. United States troops have been placed there to protect the Indians, and the Indians have also been organized and armed to defend themselves. It is expected that, if the "Tombstone Rangers" really venture to make an attack upon the reservation Indians, the latter, with the aid of United States troops, will "make it hot" for them. Thus we have the singular spectacle of an expedition of soldiers, reinforced by Indian scouts, organized for the pursuit of Indian marauders, and at the same time another defensive organization of peaceable Indians, reinforced by United States soldiers, against an attack by white ruffians.

Dr. George M. Beard, who died in this city, was, it was well known, an agnostic, or, as he called himself, a "scientist," and was generally supposed to have remained so till his death. He had, however, a Moravian woman for a nurse in his last illness, who seems to have since fallen into the way of Mr. Joseph Cook, the Boston "Monday Lectureship," just as he was getting his facts and illustrations ready for a "prelude." She told him that Dr. Beard had died a believer; that in his last moments she had said to him, "Trust in Jesus!" and that he had answered promptly, "I do—I am"; and that subsequently he had risen up in bed, and exclaimed "Higher, higher," which the nurse reported as a pious ejaculation. This was enough for Mr. Cook, who is always as receptive as a little child when he is preparing a prelude, and it is right to add that it was probably as good evidence as that on which nine-tenths of his discourses are based. He accordingly dressed up the Moravian woman's story in the following characteristic fashion, apparently without the slightest inquiry or verification:

"When Dr. George M. Beard lay dying in New York city, a devout Moravian said to him: 'Trust in Jesus.' With unimpaired faculties, he answered: 'I DO. I AM.' Immediately after this he rose up in bed and lifted up his hand, his face brightened and he said with great emphasis: '*Higher!* HIGHER!' and, in a few seconds, passed into that trance from which no man or angel could waken him."

Now come the family of the deceased gentleman, who were around his bedside at the last moment, as well as a friend, and testify that he was then almost completely deaf, and had been so for some time, as the result of his disease. He could only be made to hear through an ear-trumpet, if at all. No such exhortation to him as the Moravian nurse reports herself as having made was heard by any one else in the room, or could have been heard by him. His last words were, "Higher, higher," which were taken to mean, as he was suffering from difficulty of breathing, that he should be raised up in bed, and he was so raised, and he confirmed the interpretation put upon them by adding "That will do," when he had got into the right position. In that position he died without another word, so that the Moravian nurse seems to have drawn on her imagination. Dr. Beard continued, as long as he was able to converse, an agnostic, and, all his friends say, so died.

The *Independent*, which made an article out of Mr. Cook's story, now withdraws it, and adds:

"If the collapse of this story of death-bed conversion shall do anything to prevent the abuse of the great truth, that so long as moral power exists there is the theoretical possibility of conversion and salvation—whether in health, or sickness, or death, whether on earth, or in purgatory, or in hell—we shall be glad."

This is all very good, as far as it goes, but it does not go far enough. What "the collapse of this story of death-bed conversion" ought to check is not simply "the abuse of a great truth," but plain falsehood, and the reckless conversion of signs and wonders into moral pabulum. Truthfulness, strict truthfulness, and careful examination of facts, are the lesson of this collapse for all preludemongers, lectureships, and other moral and religious teachers. The value of truth, its supreme, overwhelming importance, is the lesson of every death-bed, and is furnished by that of an agnostic or scientist, as well as by that of a Christian. On this point Mr. Cook's teaching is of vastly more consequence, to himself at all events, than his opinion as to the exact limits of probation.

The Rev. Anna Oliver, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, informed her congregation in Willoughby Avenue, Brooklyn, on Sunday, that, owing to the steady refusal of the denomination to recognize her or her church on account of her sex, she was going to give up her ministrations. The occasion seems, however, to have been by no means a sorrowful one, for she was able to make an excellent statement of her affairs from a purely mundane point of view. She had bought the church from the mortgagees for $13,000 in 1879, and had made it pay its expenses ever since "without fairs, raffles, or worldly entertainments," but owing to this difficulty about her sex it was now determined to sell it. The trustees told her that she might keep whatever she could get over and above the mortgage of $13,000. So, being apparently an able business woman, she has sold for $18,000, which gives her $5,000 in cash, and it is not surprising to hear, under these circumstances, that her only plan as yet for the future "is to take a vacation." We need hardly say that she is going to Europe, therefore, after a "month's rest and literary work," seeing and "studying" England on her way, and then going straight to Jerusalem by way of Florence.

The Irish National League completed its organization on Friday and adopted a platform. This document consists, as was natural, in what is called at political conventions an "arraignment" of England, embodied in language of extreme violence and exaggeration, so that on a moderate computation only about half of its charges are true, and some of the worst of them—such as having practised on the Irish "every form of cruelty known to the lowest savage"—must refer to a very early period in modern history, when Irishmen themselves had not by any means acquired that gentleness and magnanimity in their treatment of enemies for which they are now distinguished. It is needless to say that a calmer and more accurate statement of the Irish case against Englishmen—the terrible strength of which the best Englishmen acknowledge with much penitence—would have been more effective with the world at large. But this was not drawn up for the world at large. It was drawn up for the 2,000,000 Irishmen and Irishwomen now in this country, who are to furnish the new League with its funds and support, and who like their rhetoric both hot and strong, and, in fact, would have been much disgusted if their representatives had denounced the oppressor in moderate language. As it is, the platform is, however, not much more violent, if any, than an old-fashioned Democratic arraignment of the Republican party during the war, or a Republican rehearsal of Democratic doings at the South during the "outrage" period. The fifth plank, which purports to give some account of the anomalies in the present government of Ireland, is the only one which makes any approach to sobriety or accuracy, or which a foreigner can read with any profit.

The objects of the new League, as described in the constitution, are as near being practical as those of such an organization established on foreign soil, three thousand miles from the country it is intended to benefit, can be expected to be—the instruction of the American public about Irish grievances, the encouragement of Irish manufactures, and of the cultivation of the Irish language and music, the "boycotting" of English manufactures, and the "abolition of sectional feeling" among Irishmen. The thing which would perhaps have done most to conciliate or win over American opinion about Ireland, was some formal and emphatic repudiation of the policy of murder and outrage, but this was, we are sorry to say, omitted. The only allusion to the murder cases now pending in Ireland consisted simply in the old-fashioned denunciations of the judge, jury, witnesses, and police which Americans read with so much pain. The dynamite men were kept in the background, but apparently only as a matter of too thinly-disguised policy.

The puzzle to which we have more than once referred, presented by the attitude of the Irish Catholic conscience towards murder and murderers, was increased considerably, recently, by the statement of Father Walsh, a priest who has acted as Treasurer of the Land League in this country. He reported that he had transmitted $376 to the Widow Walsh, one of whose sons was hanged and the other sentenced to penal servitude for life for murder, under Mr. Parnell's advice, who believed in their innocence. Father Walsh then added that Mrs. Walsh not only knew her boys to be innocent, but knew who committed the murder for which they suffered, but would not tell, preferring to let her children be hanged to turning informer, as "some ignoble villains" were now doing. What we should like to know is, whether a Catholic clergyman can really approve of a mother's allowing her son to go to the gallows for a crime he did not commit, sooner than point out the real perpetrators to the officers of the law—no matter whose law; and whether he thinks no bloodguiltiness rests on that mother's head. If this woman is a good Catholic, and her conduct in this matter be in accordance with what Irish Catholics consider the duties of good citizenship, we imagine there are very few persons outside the Land League who would care to live in a state in which Mrs. Walsh's style of patriotism was at all common.

The last deliverance of the London *Times* on the Irish question is both melancholy and instructive reading. In fact, it explains in a few words how there ever came to be an Irish question. It says, apropos of the Irish Convention:

"The only practical suggestion made by the Convention for injuring Great Britain is the advice to the people of Ireland to buy nothing from

England unless they are obliged to. It is a confession of impotence when Irish malice is driven to such a paltry expedient, which, if tried, would only injure its adopters. The lesson for Great Britain is to ignore Irishmen, and abandon the hope of bringing them to a better frame of mind by a continuance of unmerited favors. They have already convinced the rest of the world that they are unfit to have national independence, and they must be made to feel the strong hand of the law."

It is talk like this on the part of Englishmen, begun two hundred years ago, and used in reply to every Irish demand, beginning with the demand for the commonest civil rights, which has produced the Ireland of to-day, and which has begotten that passionate hatred of English rule which every race that has ever lived under it, even when it was wisest and most humane, has felt—the Dutch of the Cape of Good Hope, Protestant and Teutonic though they be, just as deeply as the Connaught peasantry. It is the kind of talk which every man of every such race, when he can do no better, feels inclined to answer with the bullet and the knife and the bomb. It is the kind of talk, too, which the *Times* contributes to nearly every controversy in which England happens to be engaged with a people from whom it thinks she has nothing to fear. It is not more insulting or exasperating than most of the articles on American affairs in the years 1861–3, but it is less statesmanlike, because the American trouble was very near solution, while the Irish one, we fear, is not.

Mr. Thompson, a Congressman from Kentucky, has been killing a man named Davis. His wife has been given to drunkenness, and hearing that she had been behaving improperly with Davis, at a hotel where he had left her, the opportunity of doing a little killing seemed to him to be too tempting to be lost. So he prepared to shoot Davis "on sight," and, seeing him in the train, he shot him accordingly, and the body rolled off on the track. He then returned and surrendered himself to the court, with a beautiful and pathetic speech. This little affair recalls to the local press the tragedy of six years ago, when Thompson was Prosecuting Attorney at Harrodsburg. The Thompsons had had a long family feud with the Davieses over a lawsuit. So, being all in court together at the trial of the case, they fell to, and old Philip Thompson, young Philip (the present slayer), and another son, killed old Davies and his two sons—so to speak, *coram judice*.

But the Kentucky papers begin to doubt whether Thompson was justified in shooting Davis under any code, or, in other words, whether Davis had done him any injury. The evidence in Thompson's possession, at all events, seems to have been of the flimsiest sort, and he commited the murder some days after he had heard of the offence. In short, taking the best view, he acted in cold blood as judge, jury, and executioner in his own case, without hearing the accused. It is no answer to this to say that "his manners are easy, and in walk and conversation he is as gentle as a woman," or that "he is the gamest little man that ever trod in shoe-leather," or that "he rode into the thickest of the fight in Morgan's cavalry" when only seventeen, or that "Phil Thompson would not have done this deed if he did not sincerely believe that he was an outraged man." That may be, but things would come to a pretty pass in a civilized country if everybody who "sincerely believed" that you had outraged him in some way was allowed to kill you on sight. Even if Phil Thompson is to be allowed to do his own killing, he ought at least to take testimony first, and hear the prisoner. We suspect that the remark of the old Scotch Judge, Lord Braxton, to the culprit who made a very fine speech in his own defence, is not wholly inapplicable to Phil Thompson's case: "You're a vera clever chiel, mon, but ye'll be nane the waur of a wee bit hangin."

The unexpectedly large vote in the House of Commons in opposition to the grants to Lord Wolseley and Lord Alcester, for their services in the Egyptian campaign, shows that the hostility to Jingoism has by no means died out, and that, in fact, it gains ground. However justifiable the war in Egypt may have been, the victory over Arabi was not a remarkable one, either by sea or land. His defence was of the most feeble kind, and yet the rewards bestowed on the General and Admiral who overcame it are almost as great as Wellington received for driving the French out of Spain when Napoleon was in the height of his power. As a matter of fact Wellington was not raised to the peerage till many years after his wonderfully brilliant campaign against the Mahrattas, including the battle of Assaye, in which, on open ground, with a force of 4,500 men, of which only half were British, he drove 50,000 Mahrattas, with 100 guns, from the field; nor till after he had opened the Peninsular campaign by defeating Laborde at Rolica, and Junot at Vimeiro and Talavera. The *Spectator* defends the large grant of money in these cases—the equivalent, in an annuity for two lives, of $150,000—on the ground mainly that the ordinary compensation given to soldiers and sailors is small, and that men could not be induced to endure the monotony and poverty of the military service in time of peace if the war prizes were not large. But on the other hand large war prizes furnish a powerful stimulus to Jingoism among the very influential class in England from which naval and military officers are still drawn, and account in a considerable degree for the ridiculous worship which the Tories are now offering to the memory of Lord Beaconsfield.

It is now reported from Berlin that the attack upon our Minister, Mr. Sargent, by the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* will probably not result in Mr. Sargent's resignation or his withdrawal from Germany by this Government. We do not see why it should, for Mr. Sargent did no more than what would be expected of every faithful diplomatic representative. The difficulty arose not from the fact that he had written a despatch displeasing to Prince Bismarck, but from the publication of that despatch. This occurrence should, therefore, serve as another reminder to the State Department of the necessity of carefully examining the despatches of our ministers before they are printed, for the purpose of striking out from them passages which might embarrass our diplomatic agents in their relations with the governments to which they are accredited. Unless this be done our ministers will not only get into all sorts of disagreeable situations without any necessity, but—and this will be a far more serious evil—they will, in order to avoid being thrown out of their places, be naturally inclined carefully to abstain from writing to the Secretary of State anything the publication of which might result in unpleasant feelings, and therefore not be as truthful and outspoken as they ought to be. In other words, their principal usefulness, which consists in giving correct information to their Government, will be very materially impaired. It is evident that ministers who report only what it would be pleasant for the foreign governments to hear will be of no use. They must therefore be assured that they can count upon the discretion of the State Department, so as not to be put in danger of losing their places by indiscreet publications if they report what is not pleasant for the foreign governments to hear.

After much bargaining and haggling, the Porte has finally consented to the demand of Austria-Hungary that Vranya, at the southern extremity of Servia, should become the point of junction for the Servian railway to be built under Austrian auspices and a branch of the Turkish railway now running from Salonica, on the Ægean Sea, in a straight line to Mitrovitza, in the Sanjak of Novi-Bazar. The Servian railway is to begin at Belgrade, on the Danube, where it will connect with the Austro-Hungarian lines of communication, and run through the valley of the Morava to the aforesaid extremity of the kingdom, where this borders on both Turkey proper and Bulgaria. Austria-Hungary was anxious to have a connecting branch leading from Vranya to Uskup, on the Varder, which would have been the shortest and least expensive link; but the Porte insisted on making the connection further north, between Mitrovitza or Prishtina in Turkey, and Alexinatz or Leskovatz in Servia. Such a northern line would leave the strategically important pass at the Kara Mountain unpenetrated by Austro-Servian locomotives. The negotiations threatened to become interminable, but the Austro-Hungarian Minister to the Porte succeeded in making the latter accept a proposition which saves her military scruples, but also half satisfies the other contracting parties. The connecting line is to be carried from Vranya, but, instead of to Uskup, to Prishtina, north of the strategic pass and of the battle-field of Kosovo Polye, famous in Turkish history. This arrangement makes the future great railway line between the Danube and the Ægean about sixty miles longer than it ought to be, but it gives Servia a commercial artery extending throughout the entire length of the country, and carries the direct influence of Austria-Hungary to a point in the Balkan Peninsula more southerly even than the south frontier of Bosnia, and situated on the flank of Bulgaria, where Russia's influence predominates.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 25, to TUESDAY, May 1, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

AT Horticultural Hall, in Philadelphia, on Wednesday, the long-talked-of Land League Convention was called to order. About 800 delegates were present, and gave enthusiastic attention to the day's proceedings. Frank Byrne, Patrick Egan, and Mrs. Parnell were among those present. President James A. Mooney, of Buffalo, delivered the opening address, in which he strongly endorsed the course of Charles Stewart Parnell, expressed extreme confidence in Patrick Egan's disposal of the League funds, and stated the object of the proposed reorganization of the League. The address was well received. After a long debate, which was at times disorderly, a committee was appointed to furnish a plan for the merging of the Land League with the National League, and after their report a resolution was passed providing for an adjournment of the Land League *sine die* if the National Convention should agree to their plan of reorganization.

On Thursday the Irish-American National Convention assembled in the same hall, about twice as many delegates being present. At 12 o'clock Alexander Sullivan, a young Chicago lawyer, delivered the opening address, which consisted mainly in appeals to Irish sentiment and passion. The Rev. Maurice J. Dorney, of Chicago, was made temporary Chairman. There was considerable disorder during the time when the organization was being perfected, and there were objections to the methods by which the nominations were made and carried. At the afternoon session a telegram from Mr. Parnell was read, in which he said: "I would respectfully advise that your platform should be so framed as to enable us to continue to accept help from America, and at the same time avoid affording a pretext to the British Government for entirely suppressing the national movement in Ireland. In this way only can unity of movement be preserved, both in Ireland and America." On Friday afternoon the Committee on Resolutions made a report, which was adopted with few dissenting votes. The platform arraigns the British Government for misrule; pledges the unqualified support of the League to their countrymen in Ireland in their efforts to recover national self-government; urges upon Irish farmers the cause of the laborers; recommends that Irishmen purchase nothing from England which they can produce at home or buy from America or France; condemns the English Liberal Ministry; and approves Patrick Egan's course as Treasurer of the Land League. A plan of organization was adopted which stated the objects of the Irish National League of America to be, to sustain the League in Ireland; to procure a clearer understanding by the American people of the Irish question; to promote the development of Irish manufactures by encouraging their import into the United States; to encourage the study of the Irish language, music, and art; to "boycott" English manufactures, and to abolish all sectional feeling of province and creed. Alexander Sullivan was elected permanent President. (He killed Francis Hanford in Chicago in 1876 for slandering his wife, and was acquitted on a second trial.) A national committee, which elected an executive committee, was appointed, and the Convention adjourned.

Upon the recommendation of the Civil-Service Commission, President Arthur on Wednesday appointed Randolph De B. Keim, of Pennsylvania, to be Chief Examiner of that Commission. Mr. Keim was selected out of a large number of applicants. He had the recommendations of a great many politicians, many of them pronounced "Stalwarts." He has been a Washington correspondent of considerable success, but has always devoted his energies to the cause of the Stalwarts, and has been an enthusiastic supporter of the Camerons and General Grant. On Tuesday a long letter from Dorman B. Eaton, one of the Commissioners, was published in defence of the appointment.

W. W. White, of Atlanta, Ga., was appointed secretary of the Civil-Service Commission on Wednesday. He is a friend of Dr. Gregory, one of the Commissioners, and a college classmate of his son. The latter had been selected to take charge of Mr. White's business while he was acting as secretary. It was immediately telegraphed to certain newspapers that Mr. White's nomination was a mere subterfuge to cover a good position for young Gregory. Mr. White thereupon telegraphed his resigna tion, asserting that he would not permit his name to embarrass the Commission or Dr. Gregory. He said that he accepted the place only for the public good, as his business in Atlanta is worth $500 a month, while the salary of secretary is $1,600 per year.

Secretary Folger on Wednesday decided that granulated rice is liable to duty only at 20 per cent. ad valorem as an article manufactured in whole or in part. He also decided the long-contested petty appointment of Gilbert against Wright to be Deputy Collector of the port of Chicago in favor of Gilbert, confirming the removal of Wright by Collector Spalding. This will be considered a personal affront by both Senators Logan and Cullom, who have made common cause in insisting that Wright should be retained.

An important band of counterfeiters was arrested in this city on Saturday, charged with making and circulating spurious trade and Bland silver dollars.

General Green B. Raum, Commissioner of Internal Revenue, tendered his resignation to the President on Saturday, to take effect on April 30. He desires to engage in a more remunerative private law practice.

Mr. Ker's speech for the Government in the Star-route trial was continued without any particular incident on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, being concluded on the last-named day. Counsel for Miner and Vaile offered to submit their cases without further argument. The offer was refused, and Mr. Bliss began to speak for the Government on Monday, continuing on Tuesday in a very caustic vein.

Ex-President Rutherford B. Hayes, and the Board of Trustees of the John F. Slater educational fund, of which Mr. Hayes is President, met in this city on Wednesday to hear the report of the Rev. A. G. Haygood, of Georgia, the general agent of the fund. The report was submitted on Thursday. It was incomplete, and no action was taken upon it. The Board decided to initiate their work by an appropriation of $20,000, to be expended under the direction of Dr. Haygood during the year 1883. The aid is to be given to such schools as are best fitted to prepare young colored men and women to become useful to their race, and it is recommended that they be taught some manual occupation simultaneously with their mental and moral instruction. The Board adjourned to meet in October.

Governor Cleveland on Friday nominated W. H. Murtha, of Brooklyn, for Emigration Commissioner, and Willis S. Paine, of New York, for Bank Superintendent. Mr. Murtha is a Democrat, and was State Senator in 1880. Mr. Paine is a lawyer of ability, and was one of the commissioners who recently compiled the Banking Laws of the State. There were three Court of Claims Commissioners nominated at the same time. All the nominations were immediately confirmed by the Senate, with the exception of the first. The Tammany men refuse to accept Mr. Murtha.

At Albany, on Wednesday, the Senate, by a vote of 15 to 7, took from the table the adverse report of the Railroad Committee on the Anti-Free-Pass Bill, and committed the bill to the Committee of the Whole. On that day Governor Cleveland returned to the Assembly, without approval, the bill for the relief of the surviving members of the First Regiment of New York Mexican Volunteers. It provides for the payment of $12 per month in quarterly payments for two years to every person who shall appear on due evidence to have been a member of the regiment referred to, and appropriated for this purpose $14,976. The Governor is by no means certain that the legislation thus proposed involves correct principles, or that the appeal upon which it rests should be answered by favorable action. A motion in the Assembly on Thursday to pass the bill over the Governor's veto was lost by a vote of 65 to 45. In the Senate on that day the bill regulating the charges of elevating grain at Buffalo and other points was lost by a vote of 15 to 13, not a constitutional majority. It was a great disappointment to the canal men who supported the free-canal amendment. The Apportionment Bill was passed in the Senate on Friday by 19 to 8. In the Assembly the bill increasing the number of Surrogates in New York city from one to three was ordered to a third reading. The Keyes General Street Railroad Bill was passed, after having been amended so as to exempt Lexington Avenue in this city from the provisions of the act, and protecting existing railroads from interference as to rates. Tuesday was an active day in both branches of the Legislature. In the Senate the Prohibitory Amendment was lost by a vote of 13 to 18; the New York Aqueduct Bill was passed, 19 to 10; the Ramapo Water Supply Bill was passed, 19 to 1; and the bill for the protection of birds, fish, and game was defeated. In the Assembly the bill for the reorganization of the Dock Department of this city was defeated by a combination of Republicans and Tammany Democrats, after it had been so amended by Republican and Anti-Tammany votes as to give the Mayor the sole power of appointing the one Commissioner. In the evening the Assembly ordered to a third reading the State Civil-Service Reform Bill, but refused by a large majority to take up the bill establishing civil-service rules for this city.

Charges of heresy were preferred on Wednesday against the Rev. R. Heber Newton, Rector of All Souls' Protestant Episcopal Church, of this city, based on his sermons delivered last winter, on "The Right and Wrong Uses of the Bible." They were presented to Bishop Potter by the Rev. Dr. Buell, the Rev. Randolph H. McKim, and the Rev. Dr. B. F. De Costa.

A dinner was given to the great Italian actor, Salvini, at the Hotel Brunswick, in this city, on Thursday evening, by more than one hundred representative citizens of New York.

A strip of territory nearly one hundred miles wide, and extending nearly across Texas from northeast to southwest, was visited by a great storm of wind, hail, and rain, assuming the severity of a cyclone, on Friday night, doing great damage to crops, buildings, and property generally, and killing and wounding many people.

Philip B. Thompson, jr., killed Walter Davis at Harrodsburg Junction, Ky., on Friday morning. Thompson is a member of the next Congress. Davis had sold out his grocery and was on his way to Chicago when Thompson saw him. A scuffle ensued. Davis started to leave the cars, when Thompson pulled out a pistol and shot him. Davis was a wealthy man, and Thompson accused him of the seduction of the latter's wife. Both lived at Harrodsburg. After the shooting, Thompson returned to Harrodsburg, and going into court made a statement of the wrongs which led to the homicide. He was bailed for $5,000. His wife says that Davis was innocent, and she only wanted opportunity to prove it.

Rear-Admiral Edward Middleton, United States Navy (retired), died at his residence in Washington on Friday evening. He was born

in South Carolina, and entered the naval service July 1, 1828.

General William Browne, professor in the Georgia State University, died in Athens, Ga., on Saturday. He had a position in the British diplomatic service, but when thirty years of age came to America, and for a time was a journalist in this city and Washington. He was Assistant Secretary of State of the Confederate Government under Robert Toombs, and afterward went on Davis's staff as General of Georgia's conscript forces. For years General Browne had been one of Jefferson Davis's most intimate friends, and he assisted in the preparation of Mr. Davis's book.

Eliza Pinkston, the famous Louisiana witness in the electoral controversy of 1876–77, has died in jail at Canton, Miss., where she was serving a term for larceny.

FOREIGN.

The second trial of Timothy Kelly, for participation in the Phœnix Park murders, was concluded in Dublin on Wednesday morning. The Judge in his charge spoke strongly against the prisoner's claim for an alibi. The jury were out only a short time, and after returning announced that they had been unable to agree on a verdict. They were sent out again and again, and after reporting the fourth time that they could not agree they were discharged. It is said that ten of the jurors were in favor of conviction.

Michael Fagan, charged with the murder of Mr. Burke, was put on trial in the same court, after the conclusion of Kelly's trial, on Wednesday. Great difficulty was experienced in forming a jury. James Carey, the informer, was the first witness for the prosecution. In the course of his testimony he declared that even now he wished to remove tyrants, and said he believed that it was no sin to kill Mr. Burke. There was some conflict between the evidence of two witnesses for the prosecution on Thursday. The trial was concluded on Friday morning, and the jury, after a short deliberation, returned a verdict of guilty. Fagan protested his innocence, but declared that he was a Fenian. He was sentenced to be hanged on May 28.

The trial of Fitzharris, known as "Skin the Goat," one of the alleged principals in the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, was begun on Monday morning in Dublin. He was acquitted on Tuesday, no evidence having been produced to show that he knew of the guilty intentions of the murderers whom he drove in his cab.

A printer named Gibney was arrested in Dublin on Friday for connection with the conspiracy to murder, and was arraigned in court together with Eugene Kingston, who was recently arrested in Liverpool. A charge of conspiracy to murder Poole, a Fenian Centre who had turned informer, was entered against them. The man Devine, who was arrested at the time of the affray in Abbey Street, when Detective Cox was murdered, and who has turned informer, was called to testify against the prisoners. Devine swore that he was a Fenian. He said that several Fenians had condemned Poole to death, and had ordered the prisoner, Kingston, to carry out the sentence. He swore that the society of which the prisoners were members had decided upon the murder of Detective Cox and Judge Lawson. The society had also sentenced Mr. Jenkinson, Director of the Irish Criminal Investigation Department, and Mr. Mallon, Chief of the detectives, to death. It had plotted to destroy by dynamite the house in which Crown witnesses were lodged, and had murdered the informers, Kenny and Bailey.

It was reported in London on Monday that documents containing charges against the dozen persons, now in America, who are accused of the murder in Ireland of Kenny and Bailey, have been forwarded to Mr. Sackville West, the British Minister at Washington. Secret negotiations, it is said, are now proceeding between the British and American Governments with a view to the extradition of the men.

It is understood in London that the evidence against Peter Tynan (Number One) from independent witnesses, as well as from informers, is such as to justify decisive action by the English Government in asking for his extradition.

Carmody and Morgan, two of the men arrested at Cork on charge of being dynamite conspirators, were discharged on Thursday, and O'Herlihy and Kennedy, *alias* Featherstone, were sent to Liverpool for trial, where they were arraigned on Friday and remanded for one week.

The seven prisoners, Doctor Gallagher, Bernard Gallagher, Whitehead, Dalton, Ansburghe, Wilson, and Curtin, who are charged with treason-felony in connection with the unlawful use of explosives, were again arraigned for examination in the Bow Street Police Court, London, on Thursday morning. The evidence produced was strong against Whitehead and Bernard Gallagher. The hearing was adjourned for one week.

Alarm was caused in London on Saturday by the receipt by the Corporation of an anonymous letter warning that body that the Guildhall would be destroyed by dynamite on the 6th of May. A force of special police was detailed to guard the building.

Mr. Parnell, in a recent interview, said: "We have nothing to hope from the present Parliament, absolutely nothing. It is resolutely set in advance against every proposal in the Irish interest, even against such legislation as humanity demands. We seem to be alone in Parliament. We are alone. We are foreigners."

In the House of Commons on Thursday evening Mr. Gladstone warmly supported the Affirmation Bill. He considered that the Bradlaugh controversy should be brought to a close. He asked what had the Liberals or the Government to gain in the struggle. Did the Opposition suppose that in every case of a contested election he did not know that the Liberals lost votes and the Tories gained them? The Liberals had suffered on this account as they had previously done on the question of Catholic emancipation and the admission of Jews to seats in Parliament. Yet he hoped the Liberals would not be deterred by temporary losses from walking in the path of equity and justice. The London press pronounces the oration one of Mr. Gladstone's greatest efforts.

The race for the Two Thousand Guineas Stakes, at Newmarket, England, on Wednesday, was won by Lord Falmouth's brown colt Galliard. Prince Batthyany, a well-known patron of the turf, died suddenly in the enclosure for members at the beginning of the race.

The French Senate on Thursday, by a vote of 200 to 71, passed the bill converting the 5 per cent. rentes into 4½ per cents.

A bill providing for an appropriation of 5,000,000 francs for the Tonquin expedition was introduced in the French Chamber of Deputies on Thursday by the Minister of Marine. The bill does not contemplate a warlike enterprise, but merely an expedition of such a scope as will support the claims of France in that country. The expedition will consist of one ironclad, six torpedo boats, two gunboats, and three transports for the conveyance of 1,500 troops, and is ready to sail. These additional troops will make the force in Tonquin 3,000 men.

An explosion of gas occurred on Wednesday evening at the Ambigu Theatre, Paris, while a performance was being given. Twenty persons were injured. The audience quietly departed, being ignorant of the catastrophe.

Jules Amigues, a well-known French journalist and man of letters, is dead at the age of fifty-four. He was an ardent supporter of the Emperor Napoleon during his life, and after his death opposed the Republic with bitterness. He was the author of several novels and romances.

The answer of Prussia to the letter of Cardinal Jacobini, Papal Secretary of State, has been submitted to Emperor William. It asserts that certain penal clauses of the objectionable laws might be abolished if the Vatican would consent to make concessions with regard to giving notice to Prussia of clerical appointments. Herr Windthorst on Wednesday made a motion in the Chamber of Deputies for the removal of the restrictions on the saying of mass. It was rejected by a vote of 229 to 138. A Conservative motion expressing the hope that the Government would, when the negotiations with the Vatican made it appear advisable, proceed to make an organic revision of the May laws, was adopted by a vote of 209 to 154, despite Herr von Gossler's (Minister of Worship) declaration that the motion tended to the prejudice of diplomatic action.

Prince Bismarck's organ, the Berlin *North German Gazette*, in a recent article, says the mass of work now before the German Ministry is beyond the power of the existing staff to perform. It dwells upon the condition of the Chancellor and other members of the Ministry, who are ill.

There has been severe criticism in several German newspapers, notably the Berlin *North German Gazette*, of United States Minister Sargent's letter to the American Secretary of State on the subject of German prohibition of the importation of American pork, in which he speaks of the advisability of retaliatory measures. No information has been received at the State Department in Washington in regard to the controversy. Mr. Sargent, in an interview published in a Berlin paper, declared that there was no truth in the statement that he had said that the prohibition of the importation of American pork was an illegal measure, and was carried despite the opposition of the Reichstag. It is considered hardly probable in Berlin that the attack of the *North German Gazette* will make the resignation of Mr. Sargent necessary. Mr. Sargent has had little direct intercourse with Prince Bismarck since his arrival in Berlin.

Hermann Schultze-Delitzsch, the celebrated German political economist, is dead. He was born in 1808. He was the originator in Germany of a new coöperative scheme for the assistance of workingmen independent of the state. So successful was he that in 1873 Germany already contained 834 loan associations, with 400,000 members and a capital of 1,340,000,000 marks: and these numbers are continually increasing. The latest report is dated 1878, and enumerates 2,896 loan associations.

The Czar of Russia and the Grand Duke Constantine, uncle of his Majesty, have become completely reconciled through the mediation of Princess Dolgoruki.

There have been dissensions in the Spanish Cabinet during the week Señor Giron, Minister of Justice, differs with his advanced colleagues. The Budget Committee of the Chamber of Deputies on Wednesday adopted a resolution reducing the increased expenditures proposed by General Martinez Campos, Minister of War, who thereupon resigned his position in the Cabinet. On Thursday he withdrew his resignation, and the crisis was temporarily averted. On Friday the Budget Committee of the Spanish Chamber of Deputies withdrew the amendment to reduce the expenditures for the War Department proposed by Marshal Martinez Campos. It resolved, however, to urge him to give his assent to measures of economy compatible with the efficiency of his Department.

The revolution in Ecuador is not yet ended. Veintimilla's terms have been rejected by one of the revolutionary party. He has made other proposals to Alfaro, a member of the triumvirate.

MR. GOSCHEN ON THE ALLEGED SCARCITY OF GOLD.

MR. GOSCHEN has been repeating, in an address before a meeting of business men in London, the substance of the speech which he delivered some months ago in London on the increased purchasing power of gold, or, in other words, what is commonly called its "appreciation." He proves this appreciation by a table of prices which includes provisions, raw materials of various manufactures, metals, and clothing, in all of which he shows a fall of from 5 to 20 per cent. between 1870 and 1880. There are in England certain prominent and at first sight puzzling exceptions to this rule, such as tobacco, beer, spirits, and meat, but these exceptions can be readily accounted for. He explains the decline in prices by the absorption for currency purposes of about $1,000,000,000 during these ten years by Germany, Italy, and the United States, which have during that period either resumed payment in gold or substituted a gold for a silver standard. The fact that during this period new and great economies in the use of gold have been introduced, by the extension of banking facilities and by the use of securities in the settlement of international balances, is acknowledged by Mr. Goschen. He believes, nevertheless, that "the economies effected do not counterbalance the strain put on gold in consequence of the increased demands of the population and the increased transactions."

The *Economist* criticises Mr. Goschen's speech upon perfectly scientific grounds, by showing that although general prices did fall, as shown, between 1870 and 1883, yet the fall did not take place in the way which Mr. Goschen's theory would seem to require. Until the year 1877 the United States had taken no steps to accumulate gold for the purposes of resumption, and Italy had not even considered the subject of resumption. The sole disturbing force in the market up to that time was Germany. Yet the fall of prices between 1873 and 1877, when the disturbing force was least, was much greater than in the later period, when the United States and Italy were drawing from the world's stock for resumption purposes. Moreover, there has been a perceptible though not a very marked rise in prices since the beginning of the year 1879, while according to Mr. Goschen's theory there ought to have been a continuous fall.

There is, perhaps, no more slippery subject in the domain of economics than the effect which a greater or less supply of gold has upon trade and upon the prices of commodities at given times. J. S. Mill thought that the only case in history where it was perfectly certain that a general rise of prices was due directly to an increased supply of the precious metals was the period following the discovery of America. This period of rising prices embraced two centuries, and, as the rise was general and pervasive, and not spasmodic, as it overlapped the alternations of good seasons and bad seasons, good trade and bad trade, speculation and panic, there was every reason to ascribe the rise to the great output of the silver mines of Mexico and Peru. Coming to more recent times, there is good, if not actually conclusive, reason to believe that the output of gold from California and Australia, during the ten or twelve years beginning with 1848, had a real and lasting effect upon prices. We all know that these great discoveries and new supplies of gold did not avail to save the world from the commercial crisis of 1857—the most widespread and disastrous, perhaps, that has ever afflicted the business community of two hemispheres.

It is not equally clear that any fresh and extraordinary demand for gold has ever caused a decline in prices. The fall of prices from 1873 to 1879 is explainable upon philosophical grounds, without any reference to the accumulations of gold by the Governments of Germany and America. There was a panic in the year 1873 resulting from a long course of speculation, which had carried prices up to a dangerous and disastrous height. Looking at former panics in the world's history, when there was no disturbing force arising from the greater or less supply of gold, and the causes and effects were commercial and not monetary, it is easy to see that the reaction of prices after 1873 might and probably would have taken place even if Germany had not adopted the single gold standard, and even if the United States had not, some five years later, begun to add to her stock of gold for resumption purposes. It should be mentioned that the United States carried nearly $100,000,000 gold in her Treasury as long ago as 1870, and that her subsequent accumulations with a view to resumption were much less than Mr. Goschen appears to imagine.

A STRANGE PROCEEDING.

IT is reported from Washington that the news of the appointment of Mr. Keim as Chief Examiner under the Civil-Service Commission "excited a universal smile in the capital." It is also reported that Mr. Eaton, when interrogated about the meaning of that appointment, appeared "very nervous." The smile, which was undoubtedly one of triumph on the part of the Machine politicians, is as intelligible as the nervousness of Mr. Eaton, when Mr. Keim's qualifications for the Chief Examinership, as well as the influences supporting him, are impartially considered. It is generally understood that the Chief Examiner will be the principal executive officer under the Civil-Service Commission, and that the practical success of the examination system will depend in a great measure on his fidelity and efficiency. It might, therefore, have been taken for granted that the appointing power, assuming it to have the cause of civil-service reform sincerely at heart, would not for a moment have thought of any man for that place who was not known as a sincere friend of this specific kind of reform, and as being well acquainted with its requirements and methods. The examinations which the Chief Examiner is to conduct are instituted for the very purpose of eliminating political influence from the exercise of the appointing power. The idea, therefore, of putting a man into that place, without conspicuous qualifications for it, merely on the strength of political influence backing him as an applicant for a "berth with a salary," should, of course, have appeared absolutely preposterous. It should have been considered essential not only that the fitness of the man selected for that post be above doubt, but that his history and his character qualify him as a man entitled to enjoy, and certain to enjoy, general confidence.

In all these respects the appointment of Mr. Keim appears at first sight almost grotesque. He is undoubtedly a good sort of man in his way, but that way is not civil-service reform. It does not even seem to be alleged that he ever sympathized with that cause, and certainly not that he ever familiarized himself with the methods it employs. Mr. Keim is, on the contrary, known as a faithful and active political aid of the Camerons in Pennsylvania, and the only ability he has shown in reference to civil-service reform has been to get a large number of politicians to push him for a berth with a salary of $3,500. And as his political associations have always been with the "Machine," and with a machine, too, of the most odious kind, it appears at first sight as if the Machine had succeeded in capturing the very instruments through which the reform of the civil service was to be effected. As Fletcher of Saltoun said: "Let me make the songs of a people, and I do not care who makes its laws," so the Machine politician may say: "Let me appoint the Chief Examiner, and I do not care who makes the civil-service rules."

Mr. Eaton has published an elaborate defence of the appointment, in which he assumes the full responsibility of it for the Commission. He sets forth that the Commission did everything they believed necessary to satisfy themselves about Mr. Keim's qualifications. If they had gone beyond the circle of those whom Mr. Keim had, in the way which is familiar to all politicians, induced to put their names on his recommendation papers, they would soon have discovered the effect which his nomination would inevitably produce. They would have satisfied themselves at once of the extreme difficulty of making the public believe that examinations conducted or superintended by Mr. Keim would be free from partisanship, or that the standards of capacity and acquirements established in them would be intelligent and judicious. They would soon have become aware that such an appointment must be a very injurious blow to civil-service reform by giving it a somewhat farcical character. The President is said to be willing to make another appointment if the Commission will recommend one, and this, it seems to us, is the best thing they can do. It will certainly not be very difficult for them to find in the departments at Washington, or in other Government offices, men who in former times have proved an intelligent devotion to the reform of the civil service, and who have also acquired the experience of civil-service examinations.

We will not assert that Mr. Keim will betray his trust, or prove as inefficient as may be feared. But surely Mr. Eaton gave an insufficient reason for taking that risk when he said that "there was no danger that Mr. Keim would not properly discharge the duties of his office, for he would be entirely within the con-

trol of the Commissioners, and any departure from the regulations adopted could be quickly rectified by a change of examiners." The Chief Examiner was to be the principal aid, the confidential executive officer, the right hand of the Commission, to carry out the regulations devised by that body; but now it turns out that an appointment has been made which adds to the duties of the Commission the peculiarly difficult task of watching the Chief Examiner. And if Mr. Eaton thinks that any departure from the regulations on the part of that officer can be quickly rectified by removing him, he will find himself egregiously mistaken, for the same political influences which were permitted to put him there will prove strong enough to keep him there.

THE REAL WEAKNESS OF AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES.

THE Alumni of Cornell University held a meeting in this city last week to discuss the cause of the decline in the number of students, as well as in other things, which, it is alleged, has taken place. There are two theories about the causes of this. One ascribes it to the failure of the labor system, the absence of President White, co-education, and the attacks of the religious press; the other to the falling off in the quality of the professors, owing to the smallness of the salaries paid them, as well as to some resultant mismanagement in matters of discipline. As the College has a good and well-managed endowment of about $7,000,000, there appears to be quite money enough for all reasonable wants.

We do not pretend to know enough of the affairs of the University to express any decided opinion on any point in the controversy but one. The failure of the scheme of uniting manual with intellectual labor has, perhaps, been injurious, because it was made a very prominent feature in the programme at the start, and had an effect on the imagination of poor youths in various parts of the country which has now passed away. But this was predestined to failure from the beginning. Whether it could succeed was never a scholastic question at all, but a physiological one, which almost any young man could have settled for himself before going to college. That only very few men can work hard with both mind and muscles at the same time has been a familiar fact almost ever since the invention of the art of writing. Everybody has only a limited amount of vital force, and if he puts it into his brain, he cannot have it for his muscles, or if he puts it into his muscles, he cannot have it for his brain. The human body is not a compound engine in which the steam can be used twice over. This is the long and short of the whole matter. It is still truer, too, of young and immature men than of older ones. The labor experiment at Cornell was therefore sure only to last a short time. It was the product of the imagination of a self-made man, who had not had a regular education, and, like all such men, underestimated the drafts which getting an education makes on the strength and energy and attention at the age when it has to be acquired if it is to be acquired at all.

The point which the Alumni made most prominent in their diagnosis—the low salaries of the professors—is, we think, the most important one, and the one about which there is least room for doubt. There is not a college in the country which is not suffering from this cause, some a little and some much; and, until a radical change has been wrought in public opinion on this subject, they will certainly continue to suffer. Most colleges have but little money compared to their needs, which is as it should be. All colleges ought in this sense to be poor. But their affairs are mostly managed by business men, more familiar with commercial than scholastic affairs. One of the best-founded maxims of business is, however, that a man's proper salary is what he can get in the labor market, unless he has some exceptional talent or capacity. But the only exceptional talent or capacity which business men find it easy to recognize is one that brings in large pecuniary returns. Judged in this way, no professor seems entitled to much pay. There is hardly any salary so low that "a professor" cannot be had for it; and the difference between professors is not very perceptible to the business eye. Moreover, the most successful and famous professor in the world seems to the business eye a very poor investment. It always seems as if what the poor youth struggling for an education gets from him could be got just as well from a very inferior man.

The general result of this state of mind on the part of college trustees is that, in founding or endowing a university, their main interest is given to buildings and material equipment. The professors are treated as subordinate accessories, on which economy can most readily be practised. When a pinch comes, for instance, the reduction of their salaries is apt to be the first way of saving that is thought of. How far astray trustees are in all this may be inferred from the fact—which we hold to be indisputable—that a university consists of the professors, that all other things are but accessories, and that you might have a great and successful university, in which the thirst for knowledge would be very eager, and the stimulus applied to those seeking it very powerful, in a barn or a large tent. Therefore any policy which saves on professors to spend on something else, is a mistake of the most injurious description.

The demand for cheap professors overlooks two important facts, one peculiar to this country, the other one of the general facts of modern society. The first is that, through force of circumstances, money is in the popular eye in America a rough standard of success. People apply it to everybody, including ministers. The successful minister is the one who is called to the rich city congregation, and gets from $10,000 to $20,000 a year. The attractive calling is the one which has the greatest number of large pecuniary prizes. The second is, that all over the world material comfort—that is, the possibility of living with a certain freedom from small cares, and with the means of a certain amount of social enjoyment and of educating children, and saving money for old age—exercises an increasingly powerful influence on men of real capacity in choosing their profession. The inferior man cannot choose his calling, as a general rule. He takes what comes to him. The superior man can; and the tendency in our time is for all such men to turn away from callings which do not promise them a respectable income. The importance of this consideration as regards the future of our colleges can hardly be overrated. The present attitude of trustees about salaries is exerting a very unfortunate effect on the teaching profession by driving away from it the young talent of each generation, and compelling colleges which wish for first-rate men to search Europe for professors willing to expatriate themselves in middle life. The tendency to the scholar's life is not very strong among our young men at best, but nothing better calculated to diminish it could well be hit on than the spectacle presented to them all over the country of professors who are either fourth-rate men, for whom their wretched salaries are full remuneration, or first-rate men toiling for what barely keeps body and soul together, and are thus placed, in an intensely mercantile community, in humiliating contrast with men of nearly every occupation above unskilled labor.

THE CONVERSION OF THE FRENCH DEBT.

THERE have been few operations with a more curious history than the conversion of the five per cents, for which the French Legislature is now at last providing. To keep them afloat for one month after they had become redeemable, and after the credit of the Government had improved sufficiently to enable it to borrow at four or four and a half per cent., seemed, from the financial point of view, plainly enough a great blunder for a heavily burdened country to make. And yet the Republic shrank from conversion for years, for the very odd reason that it was afraid of alienating the affections of the bondholders, who constituted a formidable body of voters, and who could not get the same rate of interest on any other security so good. When the loan was taken up eagerly by the peasantry and small shopkeepers throughout the country, the Government was justly proud of such a proof, both of the popular confidence and the popular thrift, but probably nobody thought that it would result in the state's being afraid to pay off its creditors. And yet this is exactly what came to pass, and it constituted a financial situation for which there has perhaps been no parallel. For at least ten years it was possible for the French Government to borrow enough at four or four and a half to pay off its fives, and it did not dare to do it. In other words, politicians of a demagogic turn, instead of crying out for a reduction of the interest on the public debt, cried out against it.

The matter, however, during all these years continued to be agitated. The more conservative financiers, like M. Leroy-Beaulieu, urged strenuously, as a measure of prudence, that the conversion should be effected while the state of the public credit and of the money market permitted it, but they were not listened to. Last year, when the scheme was for the first time taken up seriously, M. Léon Say opposed it in a now famous speech,

on the ground that the opportunity had for the present gone by, and that the condition of the money market was no longer favorable. The delay, combined with the agitation about it, had in fact had the effect of frightening the large holders of rentes, who knew enough of business to be able to change their investments profitably. They came to the conclusion that conversion would probably come soon, and that they might be paid off when it would be hard to find anything else as profitable. They, moreover, became alarmed by the colossal proportions of the floating debt, and the apparent want of forethought with which the finances were managed, and with the magnitude of the public works which the Government was undertaking, and began to sell out, and the fives have fallen till they are already, in point of fact, sixes or sevens. The money has gone into the English funds, or into the Italian fives, or come to this country for railroad securities. All the great borrowers of the world have, in fact, during the last year or two, been tempting French capitalists into new fields. Belgium, Holland, Italy, and even Hungary have been making them seductive offers of one sort or another, and, it would appear, with much success. In fact, the flight of money from the French rentes is reckoned by hundreds of millions of francs.

It is, therefore, questioned by some whether the conversion is any longer possible —that is, whether the Government can now borrow on terms that will make it profitable. But the experiment is going to be tried, and there is but little doubt that it will prove successful, because the small holders, who constitute the great majority, will probably accept the reduction sooner than be paid off. The mere reluctance of the Government to enter upon it for so many years has been a serious injury to French credit, because it was well known to be due to political reasons, and when the management of the public finances in any country is known to be affected seriously by political considerations, or, in other words, is known not to be purely financial, the effect on investors is depressing. The more conservative French financiers are now trying to cheer the Government up through the press by pointing to the example of England and America in the matter of conversion. What is oddest in these attempts is that they are careful to point out that conversion at a lower rate of interest is not an anti-democratic thing to do, because the United States do it. Into this state of mind it is a little difficult for an American, with his vivid realization that the public finances are his own, to enter. The Frenchman has so long been accustomed to look on the Government as an entity apart from the nation, with resources and means of being bountiful of its own, that even now, when the Republic is well established, he cannot quite grasp the idea that to convert fives into fours is to save money for the taxpayer. He is haunted by a vague notion that it is a simple piece of illiberality on the part of the state toward the bondholder, with which the taxpayer has nothing to do.

SENTIMENTAL QUESTIONS IN POLITICS.

London, April 19.

The absence of exciting questions in domestic politics, and the increasing part which women take in public affairs, have, during the past few years, brought what may be called sentimental questions more and more to the front in England. I use the term not in that disparaging sense which it is sometimes made to bear, and which the word sentimentalism implies. I use it merely to denote questions which are supported not so much because they involve either the political or the material advantage of any class, or because they are recommended by philosophical, or economical, or constitutional arguments, as because they appeal to some popular emotion. They are not the worse but all the better for doing so, and to call them sentimental is not to deny that they have other bases to rest on, but only to assert that their chief support comes from the feelings enlisted on their side. To this class belong all the liquor questions, of which we have so large a crop—proposals to give ratepayers the right of controlling the issue of public-house licenses within a given locality, proposals to interdict the sale of intoxicants during the whole of Sunday, proposals to close public houses at election times, and so forth. To this belong also the great group of woman questions: first and foremost, the grant of the Parliamentary franchise to women; then the admission of women to various institutions and occupations. Then there is another set relating to the protection of animals, of which two specimens have lately come before Parliament: the one a bill to put an end to the practice of shooting at pigeons suddenly released from a cage or box, the other a bill for preventing all experiments upon living animals. There are others, of course, which may be referred to the same category, but these are instances sufficient to show how many proposals of the kind are floating about. Needless to say that they receive very different measures of support, and from quite different classes of persons.

Of the three groups I have specified, the liquor-question bills excite by far the most general and active interest. Few things are more remarkable in the recent history of Great Britain than the growth of the teetotal movement. Drunkenness has long been the characteristic fault of these islands, as of the North-German and Scandinavian races generally, and it is beyond all doubt the greatest obstacle to the moral and social progress of the poorer classes. The growth of the philanthropic spirit among the middle and upper ranks of society, and the increased sense of responsibility and personal dignity among the workingmen, which have gone hand in hand during the last forty years, have given more and more momentum to efforts in the cause of temperance. Ten years ago we were in a period of great commercial prosperity; work was abundant, and very high wages were paid for it. The consumption of intoxicants had reached stupendous proportions. Social reformers felt more than ever the magnitude of the evil, and the clergy of the Established Church took up the question, as the Nonconformist ministers had done already. Associations were formed in every nook and corner of the country for stopping or restricting the sale of intoxicants, in addition to those which already consisted of persons who themselves abstained. The general election of 1874, in which the public-house interest had put forth all its strength, and been one main cause of the defeat of the Liberal Ministry, inflamed the minds of the temperance men, who saw how active and powerful their foe was. At the election of 1880 there was another trial of strength, and now the temperance men had the best of it. At present, although the liquor party is still strong and well organized, their favor in a constituency seems on the whole less effective than that of the abstainers, and accordingly the House of Commons has gone round. Up till 1880, it rejected the proposal to give the ratepayers of a district power over the grant of licenses. Since 1880 it has twice affirmed that principle, and if a bill for the purpose were to be brought in, it would be supported by a considerable majority. Your readers may ask why, that being so, bills are not brought in to carry out the temperance programme. The reason is that the forms of the House of Commons make it practically impossible for any opposed bill to pass which is not pushed through by the Government. There are so many engines of legitimate as well as illegitimate obstruction that a private member's bill has no chance. Thus the Sunday Closing Bill, which appears to command a majority, has been repeatedly stopped, and will doubtless continue to be so till a Ministry takes it up. In this state of matters, the temperance men are forced to go on agitating through the country. They hold many thousands of meetings every year, and send up thousands of petitions to Parliament, signed, as they declare, by millions of people. Public interest is kept alive, members are held to their pledges, the number of teetotallers seems to go on increasing, but the law remains unchanged.

The woman questions excite a far less general and ardent sympathy. They have indeed passed out of the stage of being ridiculed or called crotchets. Most sensible people are agreed that professions and employments ought to be opened to women, and their opportunities for getting a university education greatly enlarged. The franchise question stands on a different footing, but it is large enough to require a letter to itself. The proposals for giving additional protection to animals, which resemble the two former groups in being advocated chiefly on emotional grounds, are backed by a still smaller mass of public opinion. It is true that pigeon shooting is now condemned by nearly all, I might indeed say by all, humane men. Its defence is left to a few sportsmen, mostly belonging to the landed gentry, who are half ashamed of their odious cause. But the thing is too small to command much interest from the public, and the very fact that little can be said for such a cruel amusement makes people indifferent, because it is felt that it cannot last much longer. On the other hand, the proposal to forbid all experiments on living creatures is pressed and resisted with great warmth. The attacking force is comparatively small, the resisting force, consisting of the physiologists and those men of science or of medicine who sympathize with their physiological brethren, is still smaller. The great bulk of the public is neutral, and therefore opposed to a change in the law until it can be shown that such a change is necessary. Now, the present law, formed by an act passed in 1876, prohibits all such experiments except under a license granted by the Home Secretary, and imposes considerable restrictions on the experiments themselves, requiring anæsthetics to be used whenever the experiment is for the purpose of physiological teaching, and requiring the animal to be put to death (unless where a special license dispenses with this obligation) before it recovers from the anæstnetic administered. Licenses are sparingly granted under this act. In the year 1881, the total number of persons holding licenses was in the whole United Kingdom forty-four, and of these only twenty-eight did in fact perform experiments; the total number of experiments performed being 297.

The reports of the inspectors appointed to superintend the working of the act state that owing to the character of the experiments and the use of anæsthetics, hardly any suffering was caused to the animals operated upon, while results of considerable importance to science were obtained. The mischief does not therefore seem to those who believe these reports in itself a very serious one, and it is obviously small when compared with the suffering inflicted in pigeon, pheasant, partridge, and grouse-shooting, which are the favorite amusements of the wealthy classes ; in hare and fox-hunting, and in the coursing and shooting of hares for sport.

However, the matter has excited the hottest possible feelings among some benevolent persons. Two or three societies exist for the absolute interdiction of all vivisection (as it is called), and some leaders of the agitation insist that no discoveries in science or in practical medicine can justify the infliction of any pain upon a living creature. Here, too, the apparatus of petitions is resorted to; and in the present session a large number have been presented in support of a bill brought forward to render penal any experiment whatever on a living animal. The Government oppose this bill, and if a division is ever taken upon it, it will apparently be defeated, most people thinking that the present law sufficiently prevents any needless suffering. But the agitation is an interesting one for several reasons. In the first place, it illustrates the extreme tenderness of modern English feeling. Forty years ago cock-fighting was a common sport in England, as bull-baiting was in the days of 'Sandford and Merton' at the end of the last century. There are still cruel sports in vogue among us, but they have been put upon their defence, and in spite of the wealth and social influence of those who follow them—an influence, of course, far greater than that of scientific physiologists—they will in time decline and disappear. In most parts of the continent of Europe, and particularly in Italy and France, vivisection is carried on with no interference from the penal law, and cruelties perpetrated for which no one in England has a word to say, although they would have excited little comment in the last generation. Then, secondly, the excellent motives of those who conduct this agitation have made their language more vehement, and even fierce, than we have generally heard in any secular controversy. Matters which are argued on grounds of sentiment clearly have a peculiar power of heating men's feelings, and to destroy the capacity for weighing evidence and admitting that there can be two sides to a question. This was observed long ago in theological disputes. It is just as true of all others that enlist the feelings.

Lastly, this question, and, indeed, all these which I have called sentimental questions, are remarkable as having drawn women much more than formerly into the arena of public life. Not only on the woman questions, but in the anti-vivisection movement, and to some extent in the temperance movement, as well as in other matters to which it is needless to refer more specifically, a great part—sometimes the greatest part—of the work of agitation has devolved upon women. They have the advantage of comparative leisure, and of a tenacious patience which seems to exceed that of men. Their speaking at public meetings, which used to attract audiences, has lost the charm of novelty, but their talents for conducting a movement have been trained and developed, and they have still the advantage of being treated more respectfully by most people than male antagonists would be. They are sometimes accused of being more bitter and unfair in controversy than men are; but the charge is ill-founded. It is true that, in several of the controversies they share in, much bitterness has been displayed, but it comes just as much from men as from women, and may rather be set down to the exciting nature of the subject. They are now very influential auxiliaries in any movement which appeals to them; and the more active-minded among them are thus drawn on to be more interested in the general politics of the country than was formerly the case. Y.

RENAN'S LECTURE ON JUDAISM.

PARIS, April 13, 1883.

I REMEMBER a time when lectures were a thing unknown in Paris. Whoever wished to be instructed in some particular branch of science, of literature, or of art, had the resource of the lessons given in a vast number of establishments opened to the public ; the lecture proper, the conversation between an orator and a mixed public, was unknown. We have now on the Boulevard des Capucines a "Salle des Conférences," where you can hear a lecture every night. The lecture and the lecturer are advertised as a new play at a theatre. The Parisian public wants constant entertainment, and the railways bring so many people to the capital that every new play, even when it is mediocre, can be played a hundred, two hundred times in succession. The result of this great prosperity of the theatres is a certain monotony. The Parisian can only go a certain number of times to the play in the season, as he does not care to see a piece more than once. What shall he do the rest of the time ? Society is very stagnant ; it is divided by politics, discouraged, in a bad mood. The club is not a very great resource. We have now the exhibitions and the lectures. Every week there is some new exhibition. Every painter of any notoriety exhibits in turn his "œuvre." We had not long ago the exhibition of Baudry ; we have the yearly exhibition of the "Aquarellists"; we have just now the exhibition of old Japanese art.

The Saint-Simon Club is a new historical club, which gives a lecture to its members every Saturday evening. Among the first lecturers has been M. Renan, who chose for his subject "Judaism as a Race and as a Religion." The Saint-Simon Club aims to have lectures of a higher class than the popular lectures of the Boulevard des Capucines. The members of the Club all have some sort of notoriety, and are familiar with historical questions. It is needless to say that M. Renan, the author of so many famous works on the origin of Christianity, was particularly fit to speak of the Jewish race. As he proudly said, France has no Semitic question ; we can treat the questions concerning Judaism merely from an historical and ethnographical point of view. France has always looked on such questions from the highest standpoint of humanity. "The work of the nineteenth century consists in opening all the ghettos, and I do not make my compliments to those who wish to have them shut again."

M. Renan began by drawing a fundamental distinction between national or local religions and universal religions. Of universal religions, he knows only three : Buddhism, Christianity, and Islam. There are Buddhists, Christians, and Mussulmans of all races. We know exactly the date of the origin of these three religions : Buddhism was born four or five hundred years before Jesus Christ, though its great conquests came later. Everybody knows the date of the origin of the two other universal religions. The national religions are almost numberless : all the nations of antiquity had their own religion. These local religions were supported by patriotism, and supported it in their turn. Two national religions have survived : one is Parseeism, the other is Judaism, which, originally at least, was the religion of a country, the religion of Israel, of the land of Judah. It can be stated with certainty that Judaism in the beginning had the character of a national religion. "Jehovah protects Israel as Chamos, the Moabite god, protects Moab." What the Moabites thought of their god is well shown us by the inscription of King Mesha which is in the Louvre. The King is a sort of partner of the god ; when he gains a victory, he divides the spoils with Chamos, he thanks the god in proportion to the advantages which he has received. It is probable that the Hebrew kings did not feel much differently. How has this egotistic, interested religion become universal ? M. Renan says that the widening work, if I may so express it, was first begun by the prophets. The prophets are the proper glory of Israel. Isaiah, the most illustrious, told the Jews that all sacrifices were useless, that God must be adored with pure hands ; the true servant of Jehovah is the virtuous man. Religion becomes moral, and in this way, once penetrated with the idea of justice, it becomes perforce universal.

The founders of Christianity were, in the opinion of M. Renan, the heirs of the prophets, the last representatives of the prophetic spirit. They considered sacrifices a mere archaism. For him, the first founder of Christianity was Isaiah, who flourished about 725 B. C. He had the conception of a moral religion, and the vision of a sort of golden age, without any idols, of a perfect kingdom, of which Jerusalem would be the capital. The destruction of the temple did not destroy these hopes ; on the contrary, the century which followed this great calamity was for the Hebrew genius an age of great and marvellous expansion. As for the Jewish race, what became of it during the captivity and during the long period of the Persian domination, from the year 530 B. C. to Alexander ? M. Renan suspects that the race must have lost its purity ; the reformers Nehemiah and Ezra express a great horror of mixed marriages. The foreign element became very important during the period of the Greek and Roman domination. M. Renan calls attention to a phrase of Josephus, in his 'History of the Jews' (book vii., chap. iii). Josephus speaks of the extraordinary prosperity of the Jews of Antioch, and says : "Having brought to their worship a great number of Hellenes, they made them a part of their community." Here we see a number of Greeks converted to Judaism and going to the synagogue. It must have been the same in Alexandria, and M. Renan does not doubt that the Jewish Church of Alexandria was in a great measure recruited from the Egypto-Hellenic population. Alexandria was the place where so many propagandist books were published—sibylline books, false classics to which the Jewish writers lent their own sentiments—Pseudo-Phocylides, Pseudo-Heraclites, and others.

Were all the converted Jews complete Jews ? Did they only what was called in Rome, "vitam judaicam agere," or did they all adopt the traditional rites of the Jewish religion ? It is difficult to answer. What evidence we have is this : these men, of Greek origin, of Egyptian origin, who kept the Sabbath, were ripe for Christian ideas ; perhaps they were even more so than the old-fashioned Jews. Syria was a principal seat of Jewish propagandism. Helena, the Queen of Adiabene, made herself a Jew with all her family. In many cases these new Jews became perfect Jews—the second generation was nearly always so. At Palmyra we see the same phenomenon: many inscriptions have a pronounced Jewish character. The great dynasties of the Asmoneans and of the Herods brought

many populations perforce into Judaism. Josephus, in his treatise "against Apion," says:

"Thus arose among many multitudes a desire to adopt our worship, so that there was not a city, either Greek or barbarian, there was not a nation where you did not find the custom of the Sabbath, of fasting, of the lamps, of the distinctions in food, which we observe. They tried also to imitate our concord, our almsgiving, our love of work, our courage in suffering everything for the sake of the Law. For what is more surprising is that, without any attraction of sensual delights, the Law makes these miracles of itself; and as God penetrates the universe, so has the Law infiltrated itself among all men. If anybody doubts my affirmation, let him look at his own country and his family."

Dion Cassius, speaking of Judea, says that its inhabitants are called Jews. "I do not know," says he, "the origin of this name, but it applies also to other men who have adopted the institutions of this people, though they are of another race. And there are among the Romans many men of this sort." Nothing can be clearer than this assertion of Dion Cassius: the Jews primitively formed a separate people, but in his time they had ceased to be a race—there were Jews of various races. Judaism had become merely a doctrine, which had its orthodoxy and its shades and varieties of heterodoxy. There had grown up a mitigated Judaism; the spiritualism of the Jewish doctrine attracted many more than its rigid forms and its rites. Still, many of the converted became Jews in the complete sense of the conditions imposed on the descendants of Abraham. Juvenal (Sat. xiv., vv. 96 *et seq.*) shows clearly how the fathers began with the Sabbath, and how the sons became perfect Jews:

"Quidam sortiti metuentem sabbata patrem
Nil præter nubes et cœli numen adorant,
Nec distare putant humana carne suillam,
Qua pater abstinuit, mox et præputia ponunt.
Romanas autem soliti contemnere leges
Judaicum ediscunt et servant ac metuunt jus,
Tradidit arcano quodcumque volumine Moses,
Non monstrare vias, eadem nisi sacra colenti,
Quæsitum ad fontem solos deducere verpos.
Sed pater in causa, cui septima quæque fuit lux
Ignava, et partem vitæ non attigit ullam."

Juvenal here denounces the fanaticism of the Jews, and shows them little inclined to point the way to those who were not in it. This may be a calumny; but the first verses show well how the sons of the new converts became ardent and perfect Jews. The conversion of the Gentiles to spiritualistic and monotheistic doctrine was thus begun by Judaism before it was achieved by Christianity. Judaism stands in the history of the world as the first pure, immaterial, divine doctrine. There were distinctions among the Jewish converts—it is proved by all we have said, and the proof might be made more complete by citations from Tacitus, by distinctions established in the law of Antoninus Pius. There was no distinction in point of doctrine. All the Gentiles who adopted Judaism adopted the doctrine of the Law, the belief in a single God. The infusion of the Gentile element in Judaism became such that it alarmed the doctors, and the reaction which took place is no other than the Talmud. Judaism felt that it was at the point of being lost in Christianity. It made itself more orthodox, more narrow, and the spirit of proselytism was crushed. For centuries Judaism separated itself from the world.

It is clear, notwithstanding, that the Jews do not form an ethnographic unity. The first Jews who came to France (Gregory of Tours says that there were in his time many Jews in Paris, Orléans, Clermont) came from Marseilles. They made converts in the valley of the Rhone. M. Renan thinks that many Gauls may have made themselves Jews; but on this point we have very few data. Judaism came to Germany and to England from France; as for Russia, we know that the kingdom of the Khazars occupied nearly all southern Russia, and this kingdom adopted Judaism in the time of Charlemagne. The valley of the Danube and the south of Russia contain great masses of the Jewish population which, ethnographically, have nothing in common with the Jews of Palestine. "The Jewish race," says Renan, "which is often considered as the ideal of the pure *ethnos*, kept from century to century by the interdiction of mixed marriages, has been strongly penetrated with foreign infusions." Judaism was first a national religion, and it has become again a close religion: but during many centuries it was an open religion, and made converts in a thousand places. Ethnographically, the signification of the word has, therefore, become extremely doubtful. The main objection to this doctrine is what is called the Jewish type; but M. Renan maintains that there is not one Jewish type, but several, and he attributes the permanence of some of these types to the sequestration of the ghettos, and to the interdiction of mixed marriages.

Correspondence.

CONVICT INDEXING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I fancy all who were interested in the subject were as much astonished at the savage onslaught made, in another journal, on the author of the amusing and inoffensive (if not specially brilliant) suggestion about "convict indexes" as the unfortunate writer must have been. Mr. Browne, however, is evidently quite able to defend himself, and I wish merely to point out the flaws in "W. I. F.'s" argument.

1. He assumes that convict labor is unskilled and bungling, whereas I believe prisons turn out as good quality of such articles as they make (*e. g.*, hats, furniture, etc.) as other establishments. Convict hat-makers, of course, have to be trained, but so, also, do indexers.

2. "W. I. F." calls the index to the *Popular Science Monthly* "an example of convict indexing." It is gross injustice to the industrial prison system to think for a moment that any prison which employed its convicts in indexing would allow such work to go forth.

3. It is obvious that if the occurrence of such errors as "W. I. F." cites stamps an index as convict labor (I have remarked how unjust to convicts such nomenclature is), then certain "professional indexers" must be convicts in disguise, for errors equally singular have been pointed out in your columns as occurring in "Poole." W. M. G.

Library of Congress, Washington, April 26, 1883.

THE KANSAS "INDEX."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I fear that your notice of the little monthly which I desire to issue may be misunderstood, and may endanger my success.

The actual subscription-list will, at best, be very small, and, whatever it may be, my intention is to expend every dollar thus received in increasing the circulation. My desire is to place in the hands of every young reader in the State, *gratuitously*, this monthly suggestion and guide to good current literature. I had no thought of general circulation, nor of making the "Index" *complete*, but as complete as the recognition by the best publishers would admit. Mine is purely a local, helpful measure. It will reach those who would rarely, under any circumstances, see either Poole's or the proposed monthly index, though I welcome them, and shall be only too glad to insert in the Kansas monthly a "standing" reference to them, suggesting their purchase and use, and will do this gratuitously.

I venture to make this explanation, lest your comment and slight comparison may (unintentionally, of course) prevent some publisher from recognizing me with an "exchange," and thus limit my references.—Very truly, etc.,

James H. Canfield.

University of Kansas, Lawrence, April 25, 1883.

[Our objection did not lie against the relative incompleteness of Professor Canfield's list as shown in his prospectus, but against the vagueness of his references, not to mention other defects in his mode of indexing.—Ed. Nation.]

THE TYPOGRAPHICAL REPRODUCTION OF MSS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I say that the writer of the paragraph in the last number of the *Nation* in commendation of Mr. C. F. Adams, jr.'s, paper at a late meeting of the Massachusetts Historical Society, in which that gentleman objected to the Society's edition of Bradford's MS. 'History of Plymouth Plantations' and Doctor Green's papers on Groton, for their attempt to represent in type spelling and contractions used in the manuscript, mistakes the purpose of such editors and the requirements of historical students? It is not that printers of those days would have set up the copy differently—that is admitted—but it is that the historical student needs such books "printed as manuscript," as the phrase goes, and he only feels safe in dealing with them when such is the case. Minute but essential points may sometimes turn upon contractions and spelling, and spelling and grammar are essential to the student's accurate conception of the authority he is dealing with, as Mr. Parkman, at the meeting, emphasized in the case of the Dinwiddie papers. The reasons now urged are confined to the supplying of historical material for purposes of study. The question of the way in which contemporary printers would have presented the MS., and the needs of the ordinary reader, is quite another question, and should not be confounded with the purposes which antiquarian societies in this country and in England have in preserving manuscript material as manuscript, though conveniently put in type. Justin Winsor.

Cambridge, April 27, 1883.

[Our language was sufficiently guarded. We said: "Much of this facsimile printing had better be dispensed with altogether, or reserved for special occasions. There is, in fact, no more sense in reproducing the commoner abbreviations," etc. We had in mind y^e for the, y^t for that, the familiar sign of contraction for the prefix per-, and the like, as to which the context leaves no room for mistake. In general it may be held that we can as well trust the transcriber of a MS. for his *interpretation* of the contractions in a hand which he has studied, as for his simple reproduction of them. Such as are peculiar to the individual writer and *at the same time* obscure or ambiguous should of course be imitated in print; but, at best, recourse must still be had to the manuscript itself in case of dispute.—Ed. Nation.]

CIVIL-SERVICE EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The statement in your editorial of 26th instant, that it is feared in Washington that

persons who fail of success in the civil-service examinations may "accuse the examiners of unfair dealings as to the ratings, and harass them with criminal prosecutions," seems to indicate an inference by the persons in Washington who are suffering under such alarm that the new law simply transfers the power of appointing subordinates from the personal discretion of the politicians, in whom it is now practically vested, to the personal discretion of the Commission and its examiners. A similar want of information or density of perception has seemed to afflict a large proportion of the noisiest opponents of the reform both in and out of the various legislative bodies who have recently struggled with the subject. Hence it seems important to keep constantly before the public that the point and essence of the reform, as urged by its intelligent advocates, is not to remove discretion from one power to vest it in another, but to eliminate and destroy the dangerous element of personal discretion altogether. It was the opinion of Mr. Burt and other experts in the new system that, as reduced to practice in the public offices in New York, all personal discretion had been eliminated from the selection of officials except as regarded a residuum of about five per cent. of the determining considerations.

The systematic process by which this was accomplished, and unerring and impartial system effectually substituted for personal discretion, is too long to explain here; but, on a careful examination made some months since, I was personally satisfied that the claim to that effect had been made good. However that may be, it is certain that if the Commission adheres to the system adopted in England, and pursued by Mr. Burt in the Naval Office at New York—namely, of examining all applicants under distinguishing numbers, by which alone their identity shall be known to the examiners, referring for their names only to envelopes kept sealed till after the examination is concluded and the ratings made—there can be no ground for the fear of legal prosecutions against the examiners which seems to be disquieting the Washington politicians.—Very respectfully,

I. J. WISTAR.

PHILADELPHIA, April 27, 1883.

CATHOLIC CASUISTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 19 you raise a question on which, I think, I can throw some light. In your comments on Brady's denial of his guilt in court, you remark:

"It will be interesting, however, to see whether he denies it on the scaffold. If he does, it will heighten the public curiosity as to the nature of the arrangement with his spiritual advisers which enables him to do this. No satisfactory explanation of these solemn asseverations of innocence at the last moment by Catholic criminals who have just received the rites which the Church only gives to the penitent, has ever been made."

And again:

"There is doubtless some condition of the conscience, of which we know nothing, which enables these men to be good 'Catholics' in their own eyes, while engaged in a certain class of crime, and to deny it to the last gasp without imperilling their salvation."

Now all this, it seems to me, is the direct result of the system of moral (?) teaching at present in vogue in the Roman Catholic Church. Undoubtedly, what incites, supports, and justifies these men in their own eyes in the commission of such crimes is the Jesuitical maxim that "the end is justified by the means," and especially when an act is done "ad majorem Dei gloriam." What enables them to declare themselves innocent of such crimes, after conviction of them, after having actually committed them, and even on the scaffold itself, is that Church's authorized system of casuistry, devised for this very purpose of reconciling consciences, under certain circumstances, to certain cases of sins which otherwise seem to be condemned by broad, general laws of God.

This, I think, will appear to be the fact, on the following authority. A recent English writer, Dr. Littledale, in a small volume entitled 'Plain Reasons against Joining the Church of Rome,' in speaking of this very point in question, says (pp. 20 ff.):

"And the chief authority on morals now in the Roman Church is Saint Alfonso Liguori, whose teaching all Roman Catholic confessors are now encouraged to follow in the confessional, since he has been raised to the rank of a 'Doctor of the Church.' As a saint, according to Roman doctrine, there can be no error in his writings; but as a doctor, not only is there no error, but his teaching is to guide bishops and clergy in forming their judgment on difficult cases, and to be a standard whereby they themselves are to be judged (Leo XIV., cited by Benedict XIV., 'De Canonizatione,' iv., xi. 16). Now, he says, for example, (1) that the actual assassins of a man are not equally guilty with their instigator, whom he admits to incur excommunication ('Theol. Moral.,' iv. 364); (2) that if A murder B, in order that C may be suspected of the murder, and thereby suffer loss of any kind [is not this the case of Brady *et al.* with the Land League?], A is not bound to make C any compensation, unless he be a 'worthy' person (iv. 587); . . . (4) that an adulteress may deny her sin on oath, either by saying that she has not broken the marriage tie (since adultery does not void it), *or, if she has gone to confession, that she is innocent of the sin, because it has been washed away in confession* (italics are ours); or, again, that she has not committed it—*i. e.*, so as to be bound to acknowledge it (iv. 162); (5) that a man may swear aloud to any false statement, provided he add some true circumstances in an undertone, unheard by the bystanders (v. 168); (6) *that it is lawful to swear to a quibble or to perjure one's self before a judge, if any great loss or inconvenience would follow to a witness from speaking the truth* (iv. 151-6); etc., etc."

Now, I am not able to verify Dr. Littledale's references, as I have no copy of Liguori's writings by me. I do not even know whether there exists an English translation of them, as the only copy I ever saw was in the original (French?) Still, the reverend doctor plainly courts the most thorough investigation of the truth of his statements and of the correctness of his quotations; and it would be "interesting" to know, if you can get at the original, whether such asserted teaching by such an authority does not fully explain the strange obliquity of moral vision which seems to characterize such men as Brady in contemplating their horrible crimes against law, human and divine.

Truly yours, BOYD VINCENT.

PITTSBURGH, April 25, 1883.

UNIVERSITY HONOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last issue there appeared an article on "University Honor—North and South," in which conclusions were drawn unfavorable to the former. The basis of the writer's belief seemed to be, first, the fact that scarcely any supervision was exercised over the students in Southern colleges during examinations; and, second, the report of two instances where a student who had been detected by his fellows in the act of consulting books during an examination was compelled by them to leave college.

I think the conclusions are rather far-fetched. All that the writer relates as the ground of his belief is consistent with any amount of cheating on the part of the students. It was regarded as a virtue among the Spartans to be able to steal without being detected; but if the perpetrator of a theft had the misfortune to be caught thereat, he was severely punished. It is preposterous to assert that any large body of young men of such remarkable morality as this writer imputes to Southern college students can be found either North or South. Not long since, in a neighboring State, a county superintendent of public schools introduced examinations of the scholars on the plan of allowing each teacher to examine his own pupils on a set of questions furnished by the superintendent. Diplomas were to be publicly presented to the pupils who successfully passed the examination. The teachers in most instances were men and women of experience and ability, and of as high morality as is usually incident to human nature, and there was every reason to believe that the examinations would be fair and impartial. The results proved otherwise. Each teacher desired to have as many as possible of his pupils pass the examination, and in many instances the rules of morality and honor were grossly ignored. In their eagerness to have their pupils succeed, they actually assisted them in answering the questions.

This shows that even teachers are simply human, and require supervision. To maintain that college students can be allowed such liberties in the matter of examinations as your correspondent suggests, and to believe that frauds are not perpetrated under such circumstances, belies all human experience, and suggests a degree of gullibility quite extraordinary. To hold that Southern honor is superior to Northern honor implies that one is unaware of the origin of the word repudiation. When every day's paper brings us news from all parts of our country of bank, railroad, insurance, and Government defalcations, it is the height of "freshness" to bring forward the Southern-college student as a model wherein there is naught but purity and ingenuousness. Each class has its peculiar failings, and "cribbing" and "skinning" are the failings of college students. X.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At the close of Mr. Jameson's reply to Mr. Plimpton, published in your last issue, occurs the following language:

"Mr. Plimpton forgets that the greater part of the watching and of the cheating in Northern colleges takes place at the entrance examinations, when no *esprit de corps* has yet come into existence, while at the University of Virginia there are, if I remember, no entrance examinations."

Mr. Jameson is mistaken on this last point, as he will see on consulting a catalogue of the University. However, the error is pardonable, as it has been only during the past seven or eight years that such examinations (outside a general examination in spelling and English composition) have been required.

The point upon which I wish to give my testimony is, that the lads who enter the University of Virginia stand in no need of the "*esprit de corps*" of college life to develop in them a proper sense of the baseness of cheating. They carry up with them from the preparatory schools an utter scorn for any fellow who will lie or cheat, and, back of all this, a fixed determination that, whenever such fellow be found, he shall at once be kicked out of honest company.

During the eighteen years that I have been head master of this school I have found the sentiment universal among the boys as to the *meanness* of cheating or lying. A boy's word is never questioned here, and there is no watching. In this time, five boys have been sent off for lying or cheating (there are over one hundred boys in the school), and in every case they have virtually been sent off by the boys themselves, and this

notwithstanding the fact that they were all popular fellows. The cases were such as no master could ever have detected himself. The boys have the feeling that they are responsible for the honor of the school, and guard it jealously. It may interest some of your readers to know the method of procedure in such cases. It is as follows: Whenever a boy has lied or cheated, the two highest classes in the school (of their own accord) hold a meeting and appoint a committee to investigate the matter. This committee first gives the accused a hearing, and then reports. If the report is unfavorable to the accused, the committee waits on the head master and informs him that a case of cheating or lying has occurred in the school. The accused does not wait for the report to be read out before the whole school, but at once comes forward and gives his name. The head master then appoints a "jury" of twelve boys to consider the case, in his presence, reserving to himself explicitly the right to veto their decision. The accused is allowed absolute right of "challenge" as to members of the "jury," and may, without assigning any reason, throw off any member of it. He then makes his statement, and may call his witnesses. I have never had but two cases in which this has been necessary. The whole matter is then canvassed, and the head master, after discussion, asks the decision of each member, beginning with the youngest. It would astonish, I fancy, many older people to see the intelligence and fairness with which boys canvass such matters. I have presided at all of these trials, and have never seen cause to use my right of veto. The cases have been fairly tried, and of seven cases the unanimous verdict in five has been expulsion. In the other two the verdict was "not proven." I find that the committee appointed by the boys to investigate the matter uses the utmost caution before presenting the case. As I do not watch my boys or doubt their word, I have never had even a suspicion of the cases, save in one instance, until presented to me. Of course a boy expelled is never allowed to return. This sense of truth and fair-dealing speedily communicates itself to new boys who come in, and I have never seen a boy of any manliness who was not delighted with it.

The examinations here consist entirely of "paper work." The numerical value of the questions set amounts to 100, and the value of the answers must amount to 80 (four-fifths) for a pass into the "first division." The papers are corrected and handed back to the boys (in February and June), that they may see where and how they have failed. On three occasions I have had papers returned to me by boys who were rated at 80 exactly (just a pass), with the explanation that the instructor had overlooked in his addition marks taken off, and that, according to the papers, they were "pitched"—*i. e.*, had failed to attain the "first division." I have always felt bound to "pitch" them, but I have always applauded their fine sense of honor in the presence of the school, and confirmed them in the feeling that there are things in life worth a great deal more than the distinction of being rated in the "first division."

Cheating will never be stopped in any school or college until espionage is given up, and public opinion educated up to the point of regarding a cheat or a liar as a miserable "sneak-thief" (as Mr. Plimpton aptly phrases it). It won't do simply for "a majority" to be against it; the feeling against it, and the determination to put it down relentlessly, must permeate the whole mass of students.

I was six years in a great school preparatory to the University of Virginia, and afterward a student in the University, and I am satisfied that if any one were set to watch the students the feeling would be one of the utmost indignation, and that they would at once leave the examination-room. For years I have had no case of either lying or cheating here; and when I make this declaration, I do so, not because I am "green," but because my school and college experience, and my close companionship with boys and knowledge of their ways of thinking about such matters, assure me that I speak but simple truth.—Very respectfully,

W. Gordon McCabe,
Head Master Univ. School.

Petersburg, Va., April 28, 1883.

COLLEGE HONOR AND COLLEGE HONORS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Geo. A. Plimpton, in his communication in the *Nation* of April 19 on "University Honor—North and South," seems struck with the fact that, at an examination in the University of Virginia, a student from Indiana "was detected consulting his books while out, not by members of the Faculty, but by his fellow-students," and that "the sentiment among his classmates was so strong at what they considered an outrage that they immediately warned him that, unless he left within so many hours, violence might be done to his person"; and with the further fact that, in a similar case at the University of Georgia, "the accused was detected and expelled, not by the Faculty, but by his own associates."

Is not a natural explanation of these facts suggested by the title I have given this communication? If not—if the action in these cases proceeded purely from unselfish indignation—how happens it that these same students in a case of "outrageous" violation of college law, *not* threatening their relative rank in scholarship, not only would not have taken the discipline into their own hands, but would, to a man, have refused to aid the Faculty in it, even by so much as testifying to what their own eyes had seen; and that, too, when suspicion might fall, perhaps had, to their own knowledge, already fallen, on the innocent? College honor is a queer compound, North or South.

Yours respectfully, E. J. Stearns.

St. John's School, Brandywine Springs,
Faulkland, Del., April 28, 1883.

WOMEN AND POLITICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the issue of April 12 your correspondent signing herself "D.," and writing of "woman's interest in politics," has attracted me by the statement, "I would take a much deeper interest in all subjects, if I knew what to do with my knowledge." My object in writing is twofold: to bring myself in communication with "D." (as this is my only place of reaching her), and to add my testimony to hers, that women do take deep interest in politics, and to a far greater extent than most men know.

The slurs, cuts, and hostility the press of the nation everywhere has indulged in concerning those women bold enough to study politics, and who dare be called "strong-minded," has been the cause of many women doing precisely as "D." has done—veiling their knowledge, even from their own male relatives often, fearing the same scorn which these women have met from the public. Mrs. Elizabeth Cady Stanton declared once, in a company of ladies, that the Southern women she met in Washington with their husbands, who were members of Congress before the war, were all of them generally well posted on political questions. Few men were ever more deeply interested in all political questions than many women I can name—among them Mrs. Caroline E. M., of New Orleans, wife of a former Chief Justice of that State. Nor is there in the United States a man more thoroughly conversant with both State and national jurisprudence than Mrs. Myra Clark Gaines, of Louisiana; and she is always thoroughly posted on the political and financial questions of the day. One might naturally infer that it is because these two women have some special motive in being informed concerning politics. It would require greater space than the *Nation* would allow merely to enumerate the names of women thus interested in the three States of Louisiana, Texas, and Tennessee alone.

Bartle Massey, the schoolmaster in 'Adam Bede,' declares: "Women have no headpiece; it runs either to fat or to brats." Granting with the satirical Bartle, that much of woman's brain power is lost on "fat and brats," I think that in local politics men are better informed, because they participate in it; but on the great questions of the science of government, women are, if well educated, at the present day as really profound in their knowledge as men are. "D." says "my education has been desultory," and adds: "I assure you, in all frankness, that I rarely meet a man, either at home or in the North, who is as well 'up' in general politics as myself." Until within the last twenty years, or less, women's education and information were of the same nature as "D.'s," and it is this fact we should do well to consider while discussing this question. The versatility of talent in women is something to be remarked, and, if trained as men are, in some special line, we can readily believe they would succeed where now they fail.

During the three past years my life has been spent in travelling through the United States, and in a way that brought me in close personal acquaintance with many women; and I was delighted and surprised to find how widespread was the interest felt on political questions among women. We need not look far for the reason. Temperance in the last few years has become a political question, and women have perfected organizations all over the Union, and they watch the proceedings of the political world with painful attention. Add to this the large number of women who are advocates of the universal enfranchisement of women, with State and county organizations, and we must see the need of woman's interesting herself in politics. Increased facilities for good education, and the manner in which newspapers are now edited, induce many women who care nothing for either of these movements, to read concerning the political conduct of the marked men of the day, and they gain, as do many men, a superficial knowledge of current political events.

I think "D." will agree with me that nothing will tend toward the intellectual development of the South, the opening of its schools and universities to women, and the general advancement of our people, more than bringing our cultivated and thinking women into communication with each other, as our Northern sisters have done. I was in active correspondence with people all over America for years before my family cares admitted of my having them at my home, and when we did finally meet, we met as old friends. Only yesterday I sent to the Memphis *Appeal* a letter from Thomas Jefferson to Mrs. Katharine Duane Morgan, a daughter of William J. Duane, Secretary of the Treasury under Jackson, and wife of General Morgan who informed against Aaron Burr's scheme. The letter plainly shows that Mrs. Morgan was striving to advance an object of a political nature, and Jefferson heartily approved it. Her granddaughter, Sarah C. Atchison, is as profoundly interested in politics in her quiet home in Denison, Texas, as if she was an active participant in national affairs.

I select the following extract from a letter

bearing on this subject from among a lot of others, written to a Southern lady by the late Dr. John W. Draper. They corresponded for many years:

"DEAR MRS. S.: That the 'Intellectual Development' has been of some help to the cause of progress I am certain. It has passed, as you are aware, through several editions, and has been translated into almost every European language, even Russian. Send me a picture of your young friend who has read it through twice. I should like to see her counterfeit presentment. . . . I quite agree with you that the future of women will be one of the great problems of the day, in a *political* and social point of view. I think there is much cause of hope in the mere fact that public attention is now called to the subject, and that means will be found to bring about a great amelioration in female life. In 1839 I invented the process of taking portraits from the life by photography, and I can assure you, my friend, that it is one of my most pleasant reflections, that that process has been the means of giving a suitable and honorable employment o many thousands of women all over the world.

"In reply to your kind urging 'that I write more on this subject,' I can only say that I am very weary of authorship, and must leave its pains and pleasures to others; and among the rising generation of writers among women and men are some who I know will handle this noble subject far better than their predecessors have done. JOHN W. DRAPER.

"Washington Square, New York, August 12, 1873."

My father taught me that the possession of talent was in itself a forcible command to use it. He held that the parable of the ten talents had a deeper meaning than was generally given it, and regarded disused power on the part of its possessor as a grievous sin against the less fortunate of humanity. Then let "D." see that there is work for her, and all like her, in the South, if we would see our land, of which we hope so much, filled with an intelligent and prosperous people, both white and black.

ELIZABETH L. SAXON.

16 ORLEANS STREET, MEMPHIS, TENN., April 23, 1883.

Notes.

'DR. CLAUDIUS,' a novel, by F. Marion Crawford, author of 'Mr. Isaacs,' is in the press of Macmillan & Co.

A third and enlarged edition of Mr. Wm. H. Hills's 'Students' Songs' is nearly ready for publication by Moses King, Cambridge, Mass.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. make the following announcements as regards the authorship of the forthcoming volumes of their 'American Men of Letters' series: Emerson, by Dr. O.W. Holmes; Bayard Taylor, by his colleague, J. R. G. Hassard, of the *Tribune;* Benjamin Franklin, by J. B. McMaster; Margaret Fuller, by T. W. Higginson; Edmund Quincy, by S. H. Gay; Bryant, by John Bigelow; and Poe, by George E. Woodberry. Mr. Aldrich's sketches of travel published in the *Atlantic* for some years past will be gathered into a volume called 'From Ponkapog to Pesth.'

Prof. W. G. Sumner's articles on industrial and social topics which have been appearing in *Harper's Weekly*, will be shortly made into a book called 'What our Social Classes owe to each other,' and published by Harper & Bros.

The Messrs. Harper report that their tempting offer of $3,000 for the best illustration of Alfred Domett's "Christmas Hymn" has resulted in more than 1,700 applications for the text of the poem and the terms of the competition. This will not embarrass the examiners so much as might appear. We think it a matter of regret that the subject is one on which if the last word has not been said pictorially, it is not reasonable to expect a genuine or powerful or very original expression from a youthful designer.

J. W. Bouton will be the American publisher of M. Louis Gonse's 'L'Art Japonais,' announced by Quantin in Paris. This important work, undertaken in conjunction with a native expert, promises to relate the history of Japanese art in all its branches as it has never been told before, with fulness and accuracy, abundant biography, and some thousand illustrations of a high order, produced by a great variety of processes, including etching, heliogravure, and chromolithography. The prospectus shows a quarto volume elegantly printed on fine paper. The edition will be limited to 1,400 numbered copies, in two grades.

Bernard Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly, London, has in preparation facsimile illustrations, in photo-intaglio, of the works of the Italian engravers of the 15th century, by Alfred Dawson, under the direction of the keeper of the prints in the British Museum. These will embrace Botticelli's designs for 'Il Monte Sancto di Dio' (1477), and to the 'Divine Comedy' (1481), and Fillippo Lippi's supposed designs for the 'Triumphs' of Petrarch, and much else that is rare and beautiful. The publication will be in parts to subscribers, and the edition very limited. Mr. Quaritch will also have ready in May a small quarto illustrated volume on 'The Fisheries of the Adriatic and the Fish Thereof,' by George L. Faber, British Consul at Fiume.

Mr. Christern has received the prospectus of the 'Allgemeines Historisches Porträtwerk' projected by the Munich house of Friedrich Bruckmann, already noticed by us. The twelve series will occupy about six years in publication. Princes and Popes lead off.

The Supplement to the March-April *Library Journal* contains the first instalment of the Co-operative Index we described a fortnight ago, edited by W. I. Fletcher. It fills 13 pages in double columns. Bookbuyers and students everywhere ought to subscribe to the *Journal*, if only for the sake of this new feature.

President Noah Porter prints in the May number of the *New Englander* his entertaining paper on "The New England Meeting-House," read in December last before the New England Society of Brooklyn. Some portions would bear amplification—*e. g.*, that on the secular uses of the meeting-house, and on the division of seats according to "quality." For instance, the negro pew, which was a common department in the meeting-houses of President Porter's State, goes unmentioned by him.

In the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. ii., No. 2) Senator Hoar indicates the wealth of material for history in the Government archives and the National Library at Washington, and gives a list of prize appeals during the Revolution, whose records are now in the office of the Clerk of the Supreme Court. The same number contains important notes on the history of witchcraft in Massachusetts, by Mr. George H. Moore. These, pointing out certain errors of the best historians, partake of the nature of a vindication of the colony, but now and again one seems to hear a laughing in the sleeve on the part of the writer. Dr. Valentini contributes a learned paper on "The Olmecas and Tultecas" of Mexico; and Mr. Edward G. Porter quotes the earliest known document bearing the name of Washington—a parchment indenture in the Cathedral library at Durham, England. It is referred to the time of King John, about 1200. One of the parties to the agreement is Walter of Weissington. An engraving of the MS. and seal attached is given.

The ruins district of Babylon is the subject of a paper by H. Kiepert in the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society, No. 103. A large colored map, reduced from the British survey of 1861-65, accompanies the text.

Those who have felt the charm of the Tanagra figurines will be interested in the illustrations to the series of articles on the Necropolis of Myrina (Sandarlik), in Mysia, in the current issues of the Bulletin of the French School at Athens. Thus there are seven plates in the February and March-April numbers, representing nearly three times as many objects, some of which have perfectly caught the Bœotian style, while others are like nothing which can be studied in this country. These terracottas possess many points of interest, especially in being more or less free copies of Greek masterpieces, and on account of their inscriptions. The latter probably either preserve the makers' names, or serve as directions in compounding the parts of the cast, or again as conventional trade-marks. As connected with the art of printing, it is interesting to find here, also, as in other relics of the ancient world, evidence of the use of stamps for impressing names upon the clay.

Mr. Hamerton discourses of Notre Dame and the Sainte Chapelle in the newest of his Paris series printed in the April number of the *Portfolio*. It is indirectly a plea for the "restorer," and a vindication of our time as the only one that respects the art of former generations.

Parts 71–76 of the chromo edition of 'Brehm's Thierleben' (B. Westermann & Co.) still linger among the mammals, arriving at the ungulates, of which the colored plates are very taking. Still, commend us to the admirable woodcuts for permanent wear.

Three numbers of Mr. Otto Kempner's *Student and Statesman* lie before us. The form of this new journal is that of the *Nation*, which it also recalls by its general make-up. Its avowed object is to organize the young men of the country, without regard to politics, in behalf of a change in the machinery of our Government. The editor's dependence is perhaps mainly placed upon the educated youth, the students at and graduates from our colleges, and he offers his columns as their special medium. He is already aiming to unite them in district societies for the study of political economy in harmony with the efforts of the Society for Political Education. His labors will command the sympathy of the thoughtful. The publication office of the *Student and Statesman* is at 5 Clinton Place, New York city.

A new magazine, possessing a painful and well-nigh universal interest, is the quarterly *American Psychological Journal*, which began with the April number. It is the organ of the National Association for the Protection of the Insane and Prevention of Insanity, is edited by Dr. Joseph Parrish, of Burlington, N. J., and published in Philadelphia by P. Blakiston, Son & Co.

The *Biographer* is the title of a new monthly serial just begun in this city, consisting entirely of short sketches of contemporary notabilities, generally with crude portraits on wood. The medley—which embraces princes and potentates, doctors, artists, revolutionists, journalists, pisciculturists, weather prophets, clergymen, senators, college presidents, prime donne, and new-school pirates—reminds one of nothing so much as the window of the photographic dealer with its strange juxtapositions.

The State of New Jersey paid last year nearly $9,000 in bounties for the growing of sorghum cane and the manufacture of sugar from it. An interesting account of this "infant industry" is given in the fifth annual report of the State Bureau of Statistics of Labor and Industries, just published. The chapter on the oyster interests concludes with "An Oysterman's Dictionary," largely taken from Ingersoll's "Glossary." The volume is replete with information of more than local value.

The Smithsonian Institution has issued for its Sixteenth Bulletin a "Synopsis of the Fishes of North America," by David S. Jordan and Charles H. Gilbert, of Indiana University. A small portion of this valuable catalogue was prepared in the spring of 1879. As now completed, it occupies, with the index, more than a thousand pages 8vo. The editors make liberal acknowledgment to a large number of scientists for friendly assistance, and state their aim to have been to do for American ichthyology what Dr. Elliott Coues has done for ornithology in his 'Key to North American Birds.' They announce as nearly ready for publication a 'Bibliography of American Ichthyology,' by Professor Goode.

No. 25 of the Professional Papers of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. A., is a report on the "Practice in Europe with the Heavy Armstrong, Woolwich, and Krupp Rifled Guns," with diagrams.

"Planting Trees in School Grounds" is made the subject of an excellent letter, full of sound advice in regard to ornamenting the grounds of rural school-houses, addressed by Dr. Franklin B. Hough to Commissioner Eaton, and published by the National Bureau of Education. The value of school-house grounds as places of recreation may, in nine cases out of ten, be greatly improved by a judicious planting of trees; and these, if properly selected, can be made to play an important part in increasing throughout the community a much-needed love and knowledge of our native trees. Dr. Hough well explains what trees should be chosen for this purpose and how they may be best planted. His letter should be widely read by the members of school boards and other town officials.

George Bell & Sons, London, have added to the Bohn Standard Library a volume containing 'Goethe's Miscellaneous Travels' (New York: Scribner & Welford). It contains a reprint of the 'Swiss Journey,' a revised translation of the 'Campaign in France in 1792 and the Siege of Metz,' originally made by Mr. Farie, and the 'Tour on the Rhine, Main, and Neckar' in 1814 and 1815, now first translated into English by Miss L. Dora Schmitz. This volume forms a valuable continuation of the series. Goethe's wonderful power of minute observation, and the happy objectivity which characterized his life, are admirably illustrated in this volume. It is not easy to see, however, why Goethe's 'Swiss Journey' in 1797, with his interesting visits to Frankfort, Heidelberg, and the South German cities, should have been omitted from the present work. Its insertion would have given completeness to this record of his minor travels. It would have been well, also, to prefix to the 'Tour on the Rhine' Goethe's own account of the occasion of that trip, with his description of the cities visited and the various art collections, which he published in the *Morgenblatt*, and which properly forms an introduction to 'Kunst und Alterthum.' The notes which the translator has added are taken from Dr. Strehlke's edition of the Travels, and will be found useful.

Julius Eckardt, the well-known author of 'Aus der Petersburger Gesellschaft' and other valuable works on Russian subjects, has been falsely credited with so many anonymous books on Russia that he has felt compelled to disclaim publicly the authorship of 'Livland und Irland,' a work just published by Duncker & Humblot in Leipzig. He takes occasion to say at the same time, in his letter to a German paper, that he has had no hand in other books on Russian and Baltic affairs, announced by the same firm as in press, which have in advance been attributed to him by various newspapers.

Berthold Auerbach's correspondence with his cousin, Jacob Auerbach, a scholar residing at Frankfort-on-the-Main, is shortly to be published by Cotta. The letters extend over a period of forty years, and will in a measure possess the interest of a diary, touching as they do upon personal as well as literary incidents in the novelist's life. The posthumous works of Auerbach are said to be considerable. Westermann's *Monats-Hefte* for April contains a short fragment of his, entitled "Ingenieuse oder die Cyklopenbäuerin," which in its conception is a most original literary production. It is in the form of letters to himself written by a young woman, who criticises his literary characteristics and poetic creations, more especially his peasants, whom, from personal experience, she pronounces altogether unreal. The fragment is in its author's best manner, and reveals a rich fund of humorous self-criticism, but it possesses a fatal defect—its criticism is too just; much of it may be seriously applied to Auerbach's best work. One cannot help reflecting what would have been the effect on the 'Dorfgeschichten'—on which, after all, his fame mainly rests—if his criticism on them had been expanded into a work of greater dimensions. We suspect, therefore, that few of his admirers will regret that he abandoned his scheme. Some disappointment seems to be inseparable from every posthumous publication.

Almost contemporaneous with the beginning in *Harper's* of James de Mille's posthumous 'Castle in Spain,' comes the republication in Paris, in the cheap "Collection Michel Lévy," of the French adaptation of his 'American Baron,' made by M. Louis Ulbach.

'L'Expédition de la *Jeanette* au Pole Nord, racontée par tous les membres de l'expédition,' is the title of a recent French work in two volumes, translated by M. Jules Geslin from the various letters and journals published in the New York *Herald* (Paris: Dreyfous; New York: F. W. Christern).

—"Œuvre de Saint-Jérôme" is the name of a French organization recently established for the purpose of preserving and publishing the linguistic productions of missionaries inhabiting foreign lands. Since many of these become irreparably lost after the decease of their authors, not a few missionaries have been discouraged from writing anything in or upon the languages spoken by their pagan proselytes as long as there was no certainty of ever seeing their productions printed in a correct and adequate shape. The Society also proposes to supply the schools of the natives with text-books, provided the manuscripts be sent in by the missionaries. The Minister of Public Instruction and the French Institute regard this undertaking as worthy of their aid; the administrator of the French missions in Central Polynesia, Mgr. Lamaze, has declared his readiness to contribute by literary work. One of the founders, Rev. Mr. Grézel, has published a dictionary of the language spoken on Futuna Island; another founder, Rev. Violette, is the author of a Samoan grammar and dictionary (Paris, 1879, 8vo, 92 and 468 pages), and of some religious texts in the same language. Before us is a volume published by the Society itself, of which the Abbé Bouche is the author: 'Les Noirs peints par eux-mêmes' (Paris: Poussielgue Frères, 1883, 8vo, 144 pages). The learned missionary of the Slave Coast, Western Africa, has concealed under this queer superscription a very attractive collection of proverbs, riddles, conundrums, and other folk-lore in the Nago language spoken around Abbeokuta. It is accompanied by a French translation with copious notes.

—M. Renan's last publication, a stenographic reproduction of a lecture on Jews and Judaism—'Le Judaïsme comme race et comme religion'—delivered on January 27, 1883, before the Cercle Saint-Simon in Paris, is very small in compass, but highly attractive. Its style, less finished and poetically ornate than that of most of his writings, is exceedingly pleasing from its chaste simplicity. A stronger and more unalloyed sympathy for its subject, the people and faith of Israel, breathes through its pages than we have ever met with in his former writings on kindred topics. They unmistakably reflect an admixture with his warm love for the Scriptures and their authors, and with his general philanthropy, of a feeling of regret at having formerly propounded race notions not entirely dissimilar to those which color the present anti-Semitic literature on the other side of the Rhine. He now not only sees the Hebrew nation of old in a more favorable light than when he wrote his 'Origins of Christianity' or his 'History of the Semitic Languages,' but he has also reached the conclusion—and this is the main point of his dissertation—that the modern Jews are far from being as purely Semitic by descent as is generally believed. Our Paris letter, on another page, dispenses us from following his argument in detail. Renan's conclusion is that the modern Jews are more strictly a denomination than a race. Were this proved, it would be a terrible truth to such Israelites as are still proud of their direct descent from Abraham and Sarah, and also to that branch of the anti-Semitic crusaders who found their gospel of persecution not on the old beliefs of the Jews, which so many of them disavow, but on the indelible blood taint of Semitism. Fortunately for both these classes, however, M. Renan's arguments are far from convincing. The positive evidences in their favor which he pointed out in the ancient writers are too scanty, and in some instances prove but little. The converted Khazars, Arabs, and Abyssinians have remained without influence upon the great bulk of the Jews, the Europeans especially. The strict anti-proselytizing spirit of the Talmud is well known. And the great, though far from complete, uniformity of Jewish national characteristics—physical, mental, and moral—is also an argument against M. Renan's theory, which his interesting and insinuating remarks on the subject, including observations on the variety of Jewish types, are not sufficient to invalidate.

OLE BULL.

Ole Bull. A Memoir. By Sara C. Bull. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883.

THERE are two features in the early life of prominent composers and executive musicians that recur with curious frequency. The first is an early interest in music, which often manifests itself amid comic impediments; the second, the opposition of the parents, who are usually perversely bent on forcing some other than a musical career on their child. Ole Bull was no exception to this rule. When he was a mere child his Uncle Jens used to arrange for an occasional quartet soirée at the house of Ole's parents. On these occasions Ole was repeatedly discovered under a sofa or table, where he had concealed himself for hours, only to be ignominiously sent to bed again, after a whipping for disobedience. Notwithstanding the fact that the old rector who first gave him Latin lessons said to him: "Take to your fiddle in earnest, boy, and don't waste your time here," Ole's father wished him to become a clergyman, and intrusted him to a tutor who declared his musical tastes incompatible with his studies and forbade him to play the violin; "and thus the boy could only indulge at night in an inclination that now, under this restraint, became a passion." But one morning, when this tyrannous tutor came to drag one of his brothers out of bed at a very early hour,

Ole's patience gave way. He attacked Musaeus, and, after a violent struggle, floored him. This anecdote is here cited because it illustrates his extraordinary muscular strength, which had not a little to do with enabling him subsequently to execute those *tours de force* on three and four strings which so astonished his audiences. The Danish poet Oehlenschläger states in a letter that "his arms were like steel, and it is very possible that it was his excessive physical strength which occasionally interrupted the tender tones, while he shook his head so that his hair fell down into his beautiful brown eyes."

After three years' study under his tutor, Ole went, in 1828, to the University of Christiania, where he did not remain very long, however, as we meet him a year later at Cassel, whither he had gone to visit Spohr. "I have come more than 500 miles to hear you," he said to the great violinist, who coolly replied: "Very well, you can now go to Nordhausen; I am to attend a musical festival there." When, at Nordhausen, he at last heard Spohr, he was disappointed. The polished refinements of a traditional art evidently did not appeal to the taste of a youth who had grown up listening to the voices of Nature, practising with his six brothers on select sea-shells of different tones, and composing melodies to imitate the winds in the trees, the call of birds, the murmuring of brooks, and the roar of waterfalls. In 1831 he went to Paris in order to hear De Bériot, Baillot, Paganini, and Berlioz. When he arrived the cholera was raging, the revolutionary excitement had not yet subsided, and the young musician soon found himself penniless, as his efforts to get a position at the Grand Opéra and other places were not attended with success. Suicidal thoughts tormented him, he was attacked by brain fever, and might have fared ill had it not been for the kindness of Mme. Villeminot, at whose house he had secured lodgings, and whose daughter Alexandrine afterward became his wife.

After his recovery he made a concert tour in Switzerland and Italy, where he was recognized as a "rough diamond," who often marred the music he played by adding something of his own —a practice, however, which in those days was common enough. Even Liszt indulged in this vicious habit, and Berlioz tells a good story of one of his orchestral musicians who insisted on embellishing his part with additions of his own. Berlioz remonstrated with him, and he kept quiet at the last rehearsal; but at the concert, when Berlioz was helpless, he put them all in again. Ole Bull's first appearance at the Grand Opéra in Paris was marked by several mishaps. He stumbled in coming upon the stage and had to run on headlong to save himself from falling. In the midst of one of his pieces the A string snapped, which compelled him to transpose and finish the movement on three strings—a feat that was loudly applauded by an audience which included Meyerbeer. It was one of Ole Bull's maxims: "If you have the audience under your spell, never break it by a change of instruments, even for a broken string." At some of his Parisian concerts he had the coöperation of Liszt and Chopin; and through his friendship with the latter he came to figure in one of George Sand's works, her 'Malgrétout.' Among the other distinguished people with whom he came in contact were Mendelssohn, who dined with him in Leipzig and afterward played with him the Kreutzer sonata, to dedicate a valuable violin just acquired by Bull; Rossini, who showed him various favors; Moore, who wrote out and sang for him some of his melodies which Bull wished to use at his concerts; Hans Christian Andersen, who was one of his intimate friends and correspondents; and Paganini, who at their first meeting, to Bull's surprise, "spoke of his illness and troubles, and the persecution of the critics; in short, he treated him as if he were an old and confidential friend." He praised Bull's individuality of style and foretold his brilliant career. In 1874 Count Cessole, in whose arms Paganini died, "gave Ole Bull a letter to Paganini's son requesting him to show him the manuscript of an unpublished concerto of his father's, adding that he was the only person capable of doing it justice." For Malibran, we are told, Bull felt an admiration approaching idolatry; nor did Malibran fail in her esteem of the violinist. One day, when he was playing at her house, in presence of De Bériot, she said, "He has a much sweeter tone than you, De Bériot"; and could not be convinced that the superiority lay in the violin. Malibran's death, which was caused by a hemorrhage—the result of forcing a very high note and holding it for a very long time in order to outdo a rival and astonish the public—throws a curious light on one of the degrading forms of virtuosity prevalent at that period, and unhappily not yet extinct.

It is as a remarkable virtuoso rather than a great artist that Ole Bull will be remembered. According to all accounts he possessed some of the weird fascination of Paganini over his audiences, and a very large share of his wonderful technical facility. But while his playing usually "carried away" the masses, it did not fully satisfy the connoisseurs and critics to whom art stands above virtuosity. M. Fétis says that in 1848 he heard Bull play in a manner so touching and expressive as to justify his claiming a place among the foremost artists. He adds, however, that the reproach of charlatanism often brought against him was not without some foundation: "Great factitious needs and his excessive vanity often made him sacrifice his art and his own feelings to the desire to please the bad taste of his audience." "He told me himself laughingly that an extravagant caprice which he had entitled 'Beef Eaten by a Tiger' excited such enthusiasm in the United States that he derived from it a profit of $60,000." The following extracts, from an article by Dr. Hanslick, written in 1858, will give a good idea of the estimate in which the best German critics held the Norwegian violinist:

"Ole Bull has lived for years as a farmer in North America, and now, after having been almost forgotten, he reappears in Europe. But either we have become more practical in life or more idealistic in art—the appearance of Ole Bull has retained little of its old charm. . . . To-day, as twenty years ago, he plays only compositions of his own. Unless we are greatly mistaken, they are even the very same pieces. To be edified by these thoughtless and formless fantasias, however, can hardly be expected of any one. In former times it was customary to interpret a certain artistic darkness in these compositions as sublimity and depth, and to characterize as 'genuinely Northern' things which one did not feel justified in admiring as good music. . . . The same tricks are sure to recur in every work of this virtuoso. There are especially two of these for which he shows a striking preference: harmonics and playing on several strings at once. Both are treated by Ole Bull with unfailing accuracy and purity; but by composing interminable and insignificant passages exclusively for harmonics and for several strings he renders the hearer callous to these effects. More brilliant still are his staccato runs, which he executes equally well with up and down bow. His tone is beautifully soft, but becomes occasionally whining in an adagio. The whole character of his playing is antiquated, and it requires all the amiable personality of Ole Bull to infuse into it an occasional and at least seeming vitality."

This "amiable personality" had much to do with his popularity, and it is attested on all sides, among others by Helmholtz, who wrote in a letter dated 1881: "I was much impressed by his personal character; he was at the same time so enthusiastic and so intelligent, interested in all the great problems of humanity." His enthusiasm often took the form of ardent patriotism, which was fostered by his love of national song and mythology, and led him in 1848 to found a national theatre at Bergen—a "Norse theatre with a Norse orchestra," which he himself led when the theatre was opened two years later. Having become involved in difficulties with the local authorities, he made his second trip to America (the first having occurred in 1843), and here founded his Norwegian colony in Pennsylvania, which emptied his purse of what the national theatre and his numerous contributions to churches, libraries, etc., had left in it. To exchange one continent for another was of course a mere trifle for a travelling virtuoso like Bull. He even visited Africa, and an account is given by Adolf Ebeling ('Bilder aus Kairo') of a romantic feat that was accomplished at Cairo. In company with some friends, Bull ascended a pyramid, and, having arrived at the summit, took his violin, which a Bedouin had carried up for him wrapped in a silk handkerchief, and played a "hymn of praise" under the inspiration of a scene in which the green valley of the Nile offered an artistic contrast to the boundless "golden deserts" and the Libyan Mountains. He had also a vein for fun which sometimes took on a rather odd form. Once, on board a steamer, he had displeased his friend Oehlenschläger by a too severe criticism of the Swedes. To effect a reconciliation he subsequently crawled up to the poet on all fours and barked at him like a dog. Another time, when he was getting shaved at Hartford, the bootblack played several tunes on a violin. Bull took the instrument and played a series of harmonics, to the lad's great astonishment, and then gave him a ticket to his concert. When it was over, the boy came up to him and said: "Mister, can't you come down to the shop to-morrow to get shaved and show me those tricks? I feel powerful bad." His request was granted.

Ole Bull's knowledge of the anatomy of the violin was no less remarkable than his technical skill. Even in his early boyhood he had learned the construction of his instrument by taking it to pieces and then putting the parts together again. Later in life he spent much of his time repairing violins for his friends, and "it sometimes seemed as if he were happier at work on an old decrepit fiddle, which he saw could be restored, than when playing on his own superb instrument." "Through every nook and corner of Italy," says Mrs. Lydia Maria Child, "he sought for new varieties of his favorite instrument, as eagerly as an Oriental merchant seeks for rare pearls. He had tried all manner of experiments; he knew at sight the tuneful qualities of every species of wood, and precisely how the slightest angle or curve in the fashion of an instrument would affect the sound." He had a fine collection of old violins, but the one which he especially valued was three centuries old. For a long time he was unable to obtain a sounding-post of sufficiently old and "vibrated" wood to match it, until he discovered a very old double-bass in a Philadelphia theatre which had the desired quality. Through an accommodating accident on the stage this double-bass was crushed, whereupon Bull eagerly bought the pieces and constructed the long-sought post—*i.e.*, the little stick which supports the sounding-board or belly of the instrument. The members of the violin family have one advantage over other instruments: they improve with age. One of the problems which exercised Ole Bull was to effect such a change in the structure of the piano as to make it resemble the violin and prevent it from losing its beauty of tone after being in use for a few years. The first piano made after his plans cost $15,000, but did not please him al-

together, whereupon another was made which proved more satisfactory.

Some interesting information in regard to the history of the violin, the famous Italian makers, the "lost varnish," and the best way of making the various component parts of the instrument are given in Bull's Violin Notes—a short treatise of about thirty pages appended to Mrs. Bull's Memoir. They include an excellent analysis of Paganini's playing. Excepting a few of his compositions, this is almost the only thing of value, so far as we are aware, that Ole Bull has bequeathed to posterity in black and white. Those of his letters which are printed in the present memoir are extremely personal and dry. It is to be regretted that he did not, like Berlioz and Gottschalk, for instance, keep a record of his travels in the form of a diary. As he was "interested in all the great problems of humanity," such a diary would have had a social as well as æsthetic and music-historical value. Of the Memoir itself it must be said that it would be much pleasanter reading if it were pitched half an octave lower. It would be unreasonable to demand absolute objectivity of a relative, but then it is not necessary for the latter to represent her hero as a sort of angel with fourteen wings, and as one of the most genuinely inspired artists that ever lived. The faith of the reader is sometimes severely tested, as when he is told that Bull "was offered £800 for one night in Liverpool," or that he declined an order and some jewels offered him by a king. But the book is written in an easy, pleasant style, and as it contains, besides a good index, several technical appendices, it will be a welcome addition to any musician's library.

RAWLINSON'S ANCIENT RELIGIONS.

The Religions of the Ancient World, including Egypt, Assyria and Babylonia, Persia, India, Phœnicia, Etruria, Greece, Rome. By George Rawlinson, M.A., Camden Professor of Ancient History, Oxford, and Canon of Canterbury. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

THERE is a great and growing appetite on the part of the general public for small books on the principal subjects of modern research. Such "primers," whether intended for children in schools or for the educated laity at large, should be written either by specialists in the various departments, or by compilers well acquainted with the most recent literature and not wedded to any theory. It is particularly desirable that errors of detail and sweeping generalizations should be avoided in these little treatises, for the reason that the mass of the reading public are likely to pin their faith to them, especially when they appear on the authority of a man high in position. Prof. Rawlinson is well suited in some respects to prepare a manual on the national religions of the ancient world. He is a veteran student of the subject and a prolific author; his 'Herodotus' took him in a general way over much of the ground, and in his 'Five Great Monarchies' and his 'History of Egypt' he has devoted a good deal of space to the three first religions named on the title-page of his present work. But he has not produced as good a book as we had the right to expect. Much of what he says is correct and valuable, and his whole presentation is an advance on preceding popular books of the sort; but his work is disfigured by inaccuracies, and especially by a dogged sort of dogmatism which obscures his subject at every step. The explanation of this seems to be that he has not always consulted the latest writers on his subject, and that he is irreconcilably hostile to certain lines of modern scientific thought.

It is interesting to see how differently the "fashion of the day" is understood by different minds. In some quarters we are told that our age is materialistically given up to the worship of facts. Rawlinson, on the other hand, in his introduction, declares that at the present day "to deal with facts is thought to be a humdrum and commonplace employment of the intellect—conjecture is found to be more amusing than induction, and an ingenious hypothesis to be more attractive than a proved law" (pp. 2, 3); and this indictment is brought against astronomers, physicists, biologists, and students of comparative philology and of religion. It is a serious charge, which, it is to be hoped, is not strictly true. But, as our author thinks it true, it is all the more surprising to find him, in the course of the book, indulging in the speculation that he so strongly condemns. For example, he feels able to say (p. 105) that no conscious monotheism lay behind the religion of the early Indians at its first formation, and then to explain (p. 106) how the monotheism which he says they undoubtedly at one time possessed was so completely forgotten. It does not appear by what process he obtained this accurate knowledge of the "first formation" of the Hindu religion. And is it a pleasantry when, in the introduction also, he says that he has omitted the religion of the Jews "as sufficiently well known to all educated persons" (p. 4)? We had supposed that most educated persons were rather distinguished by their ignorance of the real nature of the early Jewish religion, and we must regret that no mention is made of it here, where a comparison with neighboring faiths would be particularly interesting and instructive. In general he is untroubled by doubts as to his results: "It is confidently believed," he says, "that further research and study will only supplement, and not contradict, the views which are here put forward."

The best part of the book seems to be that devoted to the Greek and Roman religions. Without going far beneath the surface, the author gives the principal facts of their mythologies in clear and easy style, and not without sympathetic appreciation of their ideas. In other parts—particularly in the chapters on the Assyrian and Babylonian, Phœnician and Persian faiths—he makes a number of incorrect or unproved statements. Thus, the existence of a god Il in Babylonia (p. 37) is exceedingly doubtful. In all the places where it occurs it seems possible to regard Il or El as the word for deity in general, as it is in the Hebrew and Phœnician systems. The place assigned to Anu, Bel, and Hea in execrations (p. 40) is not accurate. Often these three are not named at all, or only one or two of them are named—*e. g.*, in Tiglathpileser 8, 74, the "great gods" invoked in the curse are Anu and Raman; and in the Sargon-cylinder, l. 77, the deities called on are Assur, Samas, and Raman. The great deity Assur, the father of the gods, is not doomed to celibacy, as Rawlinson states (p. 50), but has for wife Belit (Beltis), who, in 5 Rawl. x. 26, 27, is called "mother of the great gods, beloved wife of Assur." The name of the "messenger of the gods" who figures in the war of the seven evil spirits against the moon-god is not Paku, as Rawlinson quotes (pp. 58, 59) from Fox Talbot's translation ('Records of the Past,' v. 165), but Nusku, who later became one of the great gods, and always stands last in the frequently occurring list of twelve great deities in the great inscription of Assurbanipal (5 Rawl. i.-x.). Rawlinson's account of the Babylonian ideas of a future state appears to be very fanciful. The hitherto prevailing view has been that the other world was for the Assyrians and Babylonians simply a cold and gloomy abode, where the dead, good and bad, existed as inactive shades, conscious only of the privation of the delights of earthly life. Rawlinson speaks (pp. 62, 63) of a separation between good and bad, of the former as dwelling in the presence of the gods, clad in radiant garments and partaking of celestial food, while the latter suffer different and appropriate punishments. But Fox Talbot's translations, on which this picture of the happiness of the good is based (Trans. Soc. Bibl. Archæol. ii. 31, 32, 'Records of the Past,' iii. 135), are so arbitrary, putting in just the ideas in question, that to draw any conclusion from them would be in the highest degree unwise. Throughout Rawlinson puts too implicit faith in the Assyrian translations of the 'Records of the Past,' many of which are known to be inaccurate. For what he says of the appropriate punishments of the different classes of the bad he gives no reference, and we doubt whether the monuments offer any such information.

In the chapter on the Phœnician religion, we miss, above all, the comparison with the Babylonian-Assyrian. Though it is once or twice remarked that some Phœnician divine name occurs in the Babylonian pantheon, there is no hint of any community of origin between the two religions (between his accounts of the two he interposes the chapters on the Hindu and Persian systems), though the resemblances are striking enough to provoke comparison. The materials contained in Philo Byblius are dismissed too summarily as untrustworthy (p. 131); the essays of Renan, Lenormant, and others have brought something like order out of Philo's apparent chaos, and his work is at any rate worthy of careful study. On the other hand, Rawlinson is too positive in respect to the characters and functions of the little-known Phœnician deities. The Phœnician El is as doubtful as the Babylonian Il; and we should expect at least some reference to the opinion, ably set forth by Tiele in his recent book on the Egyptian and Semitic religions, that Baal and Adon are not proper names, but titles, of divinities. We can thus explain not only "Baal-shamayim," the "lord of heaven," but also "Baal-hamman," the "lord of the sun," which Rawlinson (pp. 139, 151) continues to represent as an identification of Baal with the Egyptian Amon! He rightly regards Moloch as probably a mere title (p. 146), and Dagon as rather a corn-god than a fish-god (p. 142). It is strange that he can speak of Tammuz (p. 143) without hinting at any relation between him and the Babylonian Dummuz. Two other things that he says may excite surprise, but for a different reason: the Phœnicians he calls a Semitic people (p. 133), and he explains the second element of the name Melchizedek as Sadyk, a Phœnician deity; but one does not see how he can then maintain the ethnographical authority of the table of nations in the tenth chapter of Genesis, where the Phœnicians are reckoned among the Hamites, or the philological accuracy of the epistle to the Hebrews, where Melchizedek is said to mean "king of righteousness" instead of "Sadyk (or, the Righteous One) is my king."

Rawlinson's main authorities on Zoroastrism are Max Müller and Haug; besides these, he cites Brockhaus, Windischmann, Westergaard, Hübschmann, and Spiegel each once, and mentions the name of Burnouf, but says nothing of Roth, Geldner, De Harlez, or Darmesteter. What he here gives is, in fact, simply an abridgment of his chapter on the Median religion in his 'Ancient Monarchies,' vol. ii., published in 1871; he seems to have read nothing on the subject since. Thus, he calls the sacred book of the Persians the "Zendavesta," which name, he says, "can scarcely be now displaced" (p. 80), though, as a matter of fact, "Avesta" has now come into general use. Perhaps, also, if he had consulted recent writers, he would be less posi-

tive in his description of the Persian religion. One does not expect long processes of investigation in such a manual as this, but one may expect to be informed where the results are markedly uncertain. The unwary reader will find himself in evil case if he accepts, for example, what our author says of Zoroaster (pp. 78, 79), that, according to one account (Berosus), he was a Median king who conquered Babylon about B.C. 2458 (Berosus will not be quite sure of the date), but by another account, which is "more probable, and rests on better authority" (Hermippus, Justin, Ammianus Marcellinus, and Moses Chorenensis), he was a Bactrian, who, "at a date not quite so remote" (for Berosus's date would, in fact, carry us back to the Flood), came forward to teach a new religion. And Rawlinson does not intimate by a word that there are modern scholars who wholly reject both these accounts. He himself seems to rest contented with the "more probable" of the two, and the thence deducible little biography of Zoroaster. Further, he informs us with equal positiveness (p. 93) that "the original religion of the Iranians was Dualism of a very pronounced type," and that it "became corrupted after a time by an admixture of the foreign superstitions of Magism, or the worship of the elements" (p. 97). As the whole history of the development of Mazdeism is in debate, the author might somewhere have put a note of interrogation, as he could easily have done without abandoning the form of a simple manual for lay readers.

Rawlinson says, and not without right, that, in the space he has allowed himself, he could not trace each religion historically from its first appearance to its last phase, and he therefore limits himself to presenting each in the aspect which it wore at the full completion of its natural and national development (p. 239). We do not find fault with this general restriction, though it has its difficulties—for where are we to place the "complete natural and national development" of the early Sanskritic Indian religion, or the Iranian, or the Phœnician?—but we regret the hard dogmatic tone that characterizes the book where the author finds himself forced to depart from his plan and say something of the development of ideas. In his "Concluding Remarks," after saying that the time is not yet come for the construction of a Science of Religion (in which opinion no scholar will differ with him), he proceeds to lay down several fundamental principles of such a science—namely, the various religions have had not one origin, but several distinct origins; the Hebrew religion could not have originated from any of the religions here treated of; the sacred books of the Hebrews cannot possibly have been derived from the sacred writings of any of these nations; progress has been from monotheism to polytheism, and not in the reverse direction; the most probable theory is the existence of a primitive religion, communicated to man from without, whereof monotheism and expiatory sacrifice were parts, and the gradual clouding over of this primitive revelation everywhere, unless it were among the Hebrews. Here is certainly a very fair outline of a Science of Religion, of which, however, the author offers no proof at all in his preceding chapters. We judge, therefore, that his objection is to Sciences of Religion as constructed by other men, and differing from his own.

THE BLOCKADE IN THE CIVIL WAR.

The Blockade and the Cruisers. By J. Russell Soley, Professor in the United States Navy. [The Navy in the Civil War. Vol. I.] Chas. Scribner's Sons.

In the war of the Rebellion the Volunteers came from every village and hamlet, and carried with them the sympathy of every community. The military operations were on such an imposing scale that they dazzled the public eye and tended to blind it to the bearing of the navy. Much has been written, and well written, of the operations on land, but, after all, it must be allowed that they added little new to the science of war. With the service on the sea it was very different. This made the war an epoch of the first interest and consequence. It marked a transition in means and methods of naval warfare greater than the world has ever known, except perhaps when oars were exchanged for sails, or gunpowder was substituted for bows and spears. Indeed, the change is not yet comprehended, or even perhaps completed, and Christendom seems to be waiting in suspense, not knowing how to fortify its harbors and cities, or what engines they and its ships are to be called on to encounter.

At the beginning of the Rebellion, the fact that sailing-vessels were already obsolete was not generally recognized; for, though war-steamers had been used for the first time in the Mexican war, they did not meet sufficient opposition for their advantages to be conspicuous. Horizontal shell-firing with large calibres was hardly ten years old, and for this our Dahlgren guns were the best in existence. Rifled guns, rams, and torpedoes were rare experiments. Armored vessels, also, were in their trial stage. They had received most attention in England and France, but our navy had had no experience with them. All of these novelties were now eagerly availed of by both sides, and pushed to a rapid and great development. The result was a service calling for quickness of apprehension, resource, energy, and scientific knowledge. The change suddenly rendered half the vessels in the navy practically useless, and a considerable proportion of older officers as well. As our author says: "A captain that fought the Invincible Armada would have been more at home in a war-ship of 1840 than a captain in 1840 in the advanced types of the civil war. In 1861, many officers were in command of steamers who had never served in one before, and who were far more anxious about their boilers than about their enemy."

Till this war, our Government, proud of its naval history in the Revolution, in Africa, and especially in the war of 1812, and with a flourishing mercantile marine to draw from, had kept up the navy to a high standard. The number of ships was not large, but each successive class of vessels launched was of the best. It was also prompt to recognize the importance of the adoption of steam. The *Powhatan* and *Susquehanna*—side-wheelers, to be sure—"at the time they were launched in 1850, were the most efficient naval vessels afloat." The fine screw-frigates built in 1855, including the *Niagara*, *Colorado*, *Roanoke*, *Minnesota*, and *Merrimac*—the last of which afterward became so famous in the Confederacy—"were regarded all the world over as the model men-of-war of the period." This wise tradition seems to have been since forgotten. But considering the unsatisfactory results of the lavish expenditures of other nations for iron-clad cruisers, and the tremendous possibilities of torpedoes and electricity, perhaps the backwardness of this country in naval architecture since 1865 may not prove so unfortunate as is generally thought.

The first service the navy was called on to perform in the war was to establish the blockade. This was a task of great difficulty; a blockade of such extent had never been attempted before. It involved closing 3,000 miles of coast, much of it with an inland sea and double line of shore, with many inlets, and with nearly all its harbors in the hands of the enemy. In some places it necessitated riding out storms at anchor off a lee shore, where such action had formerly been considered hopeless. It compelled increasing the number of officers till it equalled the whole complement of the navy before the war. The seamen were increased to more than fifty thousand. The number of vessels grew in proportion, by construction and purchase, so that on one station in February, 1863, were collected as many as comprised the entire number in commission two years before. The blockade at once brought up the question of the status of the Confederacy. The claim of our Government was that the blockade was simply a domestic embargo; that subjects of the Confederacy were rebels, and its ships-of-war pirates; and this view was for some time adhered to and asserted on paper. But a blockade is essentially an act of war. The size of the Rebellion, its completely organized government, and the certainty of reprisals, made our position untenable in practice, and almost from the beginning the laws of war were observed as in a foreign war. This subject is discussed with some fulness by Professor Soley, and, with the admirable justice which characterizes his book, he shows that the unfriendliness of England was shown more by her haste to recognize the Confederacy as a belligerent than by the recognition itself.

The experiences of the blockading squadrons are given in detail—in Chesapeake Bay, on the Atlantic coast, and in the Gulf. On one side were ceaseless vigilance and prolonged inaction, while the daring, ingenuity, and romance, as usual, were with the weaker party. This blockade was very stringent, and constantly growing more so to the end. From an opponent who may be said to have had no marine were brought in as prizes more than one thousand vessels, while half as many more were destroyed. The value of these vessels and their cargoes was $31,000,000—probably more than the destruction by navy and privateers combined in the war of 1812, which was waged against a commercial nation.

The principal naval action immediately connected with the blockade and the attempts to break it was that of the *Monitor* and *Merrimac*. The story is familiar, but we do not remember a more intelligible and detailed account than the one here given. Among the curious statistics is the fact that the *Monitor*, in her fight of four hours at such short range that she several times almost touched her antagonist, was only hit twenty-one times, or an average of once in twelve minutes. The providential arrival of the *Monitor* on the very eve of the day when she was needed to save the rest of the fleet of men-of-war and transports in Hampton Roads, to maintain the blockade, and to assure the doubtful blessing of the advance of McClellan's army from Fort Monroe, is well known; but the perils of her passage from New York—twice as great as the danger in action, and seeming doubled again to the brave men cooped up in her, from the novelty of the risk—are not so well known. "Many experienced officers doubted seriously her ability to keep afloat in any but the calmest weather—an opinion which the *Monitor's* subsequent career fully justified." In fact, she foundered the next time she went to sea. "If she sank, she would sink quickly, and there was small chance" of escape. She started from New York about noon on Thursday, towed by a tug and escorted by two gunboats. She got along comfortably till the afternoon of Friday, when the sea rose and began to come aboard. Soon it was breaking over her smoke-stack and blower-pipe, and caused the blower-bands to slip and break. This stopped the draught, filled the furnace-room with gas, made the men there unconscious, and rendered the engines use-

less for either propelling or pumping. The men were set to pump and bail, and the tug headed for the shore. In five hours smoother water was reached, damages repaired, and the engine started slowly again. About midnight the *Monitor* ran into another heavy sea. The wind was too high to hail the tug, and no provision had been made for signalling at night. While the danger was increasing, the wheel-ropes jammed, and the vessel became unmanageable and began to sheer about wildly. Fortunately, the tow-rope held. Half an hour repaired the injury. For several hours the position was critical. At daylight the tug was ordered in-shore, and at 8 A. M. the danger was past. Hardly was the *Monitor* in smooth water when the hawser which had saved her parted. At nine that evening she anchored near the *Roanoke*, two hours after the *Merrimac* had closed her triumphant day's work.

In the next day's fight Lieut. S. D. Greene had command of the turret and guns, with no means of receiving orders from Lieut. Worden except by passing the word. He was shut up in a revolving turret on a moving platform. The ports could only be opened to fire. The marks on the stationary flooring which showed the line of the ship were soon obliterated, and after one or two revolutions of the turret "it was impossible to guess at the direction of the ship or the position of the enemy. . . . At last the difficulties became so great, the revolutions so confusing, and the mechanism governing the movements of the turret so little under control, that it was left stationary, and the ship was fought and the guns pointed by the helm." It is evident that the escape that seemed so marvellous was a very narrow one.

The career of the Confederate cruisers included some of the most stirring episodes of the war, and is told in some detail. It is customary at the North to refer to it as wanton and wicked. This is natural to the victims of it, but not justified by the facts. It does not appear that their course in the main was without law, or that their acts were different from those of all hostile men-of-war. They showed an energy, enterprise, and skill which, apart from the cause they supported, were worthy of high praise and honor. They preyed on an ample commerce, while they had none of their own to defend. Their efficiency is manifest from the injury they worked on the Northern merchant marine, from which it has never recovered.

It was the true policy for the few Confederate cruisers to avoid our war vessels as they did. When they occasionally met them, the conflict was interesting. The *Hatteras* was sunk by the *Alabama* twenty-five miles off Galveston. She was overmatched two to one, and none of her shells burst. She was beaten and surrendered in thirteen minutes, and sank in ten more. On the other hand, the *Weehawken*, an improvement on the original *Monitor*, captured the strong Confederate ironclad *Atlanta* (altered from the English blockade-runner *Fingal*) in fifteen minutes by firing five shots at short range, four of which hit. As Captain Rodgers pithily remarked, the first shot took away the disposition of the *Atlanta* to fight, and the third her ability to get away. An interesting parallel is drawn between this action and that between the *Shannon* and *Chesapeake* in the war of 1812, just fifty years before. In both cases a gallant and popular captain, elated by society praise, with an undisciplined crew, sailed a few miles from port escorted by pleasure boats filled with spectators eager to enjoy his triumph, only to meet after fifteen minutes' fighting utter defeat at the hands of a well-prepared, well-disciplined antagonist. The *Chesapeake*, however, was carried by boarding, with heavy loss. The *Atlanta* surrendered as soon as her vulnerability to fifteen-inch shell was discovered.

The most important of these engagements was the action between the *Kearsarge* and *Alabama*. This was particularly gratifying to the North on several accounts. The vessels were a singularly equal match. The *Alabama* had done great damage. She was built in England like an English gunboat, carried among her guns a Blakeley 100-pounder rifle (considered in England the best gun yet made), and many of her crew were Englishmen, so that she was in a measure associated in the popular mind with the ill-will that had grown up against England for her unfriendliness and arrogance toward the North in her tribulation. The career of the *Alabama* had not been suited to develop drill or discipline, and here, as before, victory declared for the most thorough preparation and skill. The *Alabama* surrendered in about one hour, and sank in twenty minutes more. The *Kearsarge* only had two boats left with which to take off her prisoners, and the task was hopeless, as the *Alabama* was settling fast. The English yacht *Deerhound* had come out with the *Alabama* to see the fight. Captain Winslow had the right and the power to prevent her interfering with his prize in any way ; but the alternative presented itself to him of seeing many of his prisoners drown like rats before his eyes or authorizing the *Deerhound* to save them. A generous man could not hesitate in his decision. Probably without much reflection, he asked the *Deerhound* to help, which it readily did. Captain Winslow apparently expected that the beaten crew would be brought to him, and his indignant officers urged him to shell the *Deerhound* when she made off with them. He very properly refrained. The *Deerhound* could not have surrendered them without incurring a grave responsibility to the Confederate Government, even if she had not been glad of the excuse to liberate them. As soon as the men put foot in her boats they were on English territory, and Captain Winslow could no more take them from them than he could have arrested them afterward in the streets of Liverpool if he had met them there.

This book is well arranged, written clearly, without technical terms, and shows great familiarity with the subject. It is marked by thoroughness of preparation, sound judgment, and admirable impartiality. It is a promising beginning of the projected series ; and if the other volumes prove worthy of this, they will make a valuable addition to the army series which has proved so useful and popular.

George Eliot. By Mathilde Blind. [Famous Women Series.] Boston : Roberts Bros.

ASSIDUOUS painstaking deserves its reward, but it ought not to be mistaken for higher and finer qualities. The author of this life of George Eliot has made the most of a few bits of fresh information about her childhood and school-days, and there are besides about a half-dozen of hitherto unpublished letters. A valuable list is given of articles contributed to the reviews of twenty-five years ago, but the account of the *Westminster* is ludicrously inadequate—"not so fashionable as the *Nineteenth Century*." The rest of the book is avowedly taken from sources so near at hand as *Harper's*, *Scribner's*, and the *Contemporary*. Indeed, most readers would have been better satisfied to find the articles themselves reprinted entire. A translation of some of the very interesting foreign (French and German) critiques upon George Eliot would be a positive addition to our rather slender store of good criticism.

Seven chapters are devoted, each to one of the novels, and an eighth to the poems, making in all two-thirds of the book. In her treatment of them, the author has, it seems to us, entirely mistaken the office of the biographer. A reviewer is justified in presuming that the book before him has been, or may at once be, in the hands of his readers, but the biographer has to describe the life of his subject and his work, be that work a mission or a novel. Instead of clear sketches of the works of George Eliot, such as might impel the new generation to read 'Adam Bede' and 'Silas Marner'—from which, be it remembered, they are almost as far removed as George Eliot herself was from 'Waverley'—we have a wearisome succession of negative criticisms : what she did not do, and what she should not have done. So little has the writer understood the remark which she herself quotes from one of George Eliot's letters : "I would rather impress the public generally with the sense that they may get the best result from a book without necessarily forming an 'opinion' about it, than I would rush into stating opinions of my own." Of the writer's own thought and style, one extract will show equally its platitude and its profundity :

"However vastly a mountain may appear to loom above us from the plain, on ascending to its summit one always finds innumerable lesser eminences which all help in making up the one imposing central effect. And similarly, in the world of mind, many superior natures, in varying degrees, all contribute their share toward the maturing of that exceptional intellectual product whose topmost summit is genius."

There is left to some one yet a great opportunity in writing of George Eliot. Mathilde Blind has as much idea of the power and the scope of her genius as a wren might have of an eagle's flight.

Memoir of Annie Keary. By her Sister. London and New York : Macmillan & Co. 1883.

THIS memoir possesses more than usual interest. Miss Keary's was not a life of much outward incident, but it was a beautiful, helpful, and happy life, and it is told in this little volume in a loving and sympathetic spirit. The early pages place before us a happy childhood in a delightful home—a wholly natural and at the same time an unusual life. Her active and imaginative mind was fertile in childish devices; and one can very well understand the complaint of her nurse : "Nurse Bream had borne with the elder children. It had been a hard struggle enough, but 'there was not one of them who ever had inventions such as Master Arthur and Miss Annie had'" (p. 9). It was these "inventions" of the child that were the seed of the well-drawn characters and scenes of the novelist. As to the healthy, if simple, food on which the young mind was fed, we have some suggestive words on page 22: "How the modern child would sneer at Mrs. Sherwood and her goody-goody tales ! One sometimes wonders what the grown-up people of that generation would have thought of filling little heads with sensational stories of ragged London depravity, like those which do duty as Sunday books nowadays. But each age to its own liking."

Of Miss Keary's mature years we need say little. The admirers of her novels will be glad to meet here and there the account of a person or event that suggested such and such passages in them. A good deal of attention is given to her religious experience. She was the daughter of an Irish gentleman who, after serving through the Peninsular war, had become a clergyman and settled in Hull, where she was born in 1825. She had, as was natural, a strongly religious nature; but "in her youth Annie's thoughts had wandered from the old beaten tracks of religion in which she had been brought up, and she had then found relief for her difficulties in the teach-

ings of the Broad Church school of theology" (p. 130). Afterward she was drawn to the High Church, for reasons which are described on page 154: "It had been her natural shrinking from their hardness and cruelty that had first alienated her from the doctrines of the evangelical school: the want of patient human sympathy shown in them, and the pitiless punishment of the wicked ascribed by them to the Deity. In the Broad Church teachings she had found it a great relief to have condemnation narrowed and hope extended; yet, strange to say, within that very liberty a seed of cruelty had hidden which, springing up by and by, seemed likely to choke the wholesome air." This seed of cruelty—the passage is too long to give at length—is found in the "easy confidence that all must be well with everybody in another state of existence," the undervaluing of "supernatural graces," etc. The story of this spiritual life—in whatever degree one may sympathize with its several phases—is one of absorbing interest.

A Handbook of English and American Literature, Historical and Critical, with Illustrations of the Writings of each Successive Period. By Esther J. Trimble. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. 1883.

Landmarks of English Literature. By Henry J. Nicoll. D. Appleton & Co. 1883.

Of many recent volumes upon English literature, this 'Handbook' is one of the most remarkable as an illustration of what is to be taught in public schools. It is complete in its scope. It covers the ground on which English literature has flourished from the regions where Baldur ruled over the city founded by Odin "at the historic date 70 B. C.," to those where the Indians are now roving; it begins with "the earliest Celtic poets recorded in history—Ossian, Merlin, and Taliesin"—of whom the two latter "probably lived in the mythical period of Arthur"; but, as the narrative goes on, it becomes less exhaustive of the facts, is in the middle notably deficient, and at the end compensates for this by including a host of books known only to publishers' catalogues. In style it is by turns tropical and frigid. In criticism and information it is alike deficient. Of the influence of classical learning, for example, there is little said except that "the grave of the last writers of antiquity became the cradle of modern literature." It is needless, however—it would, indeed, be impossible—to point out its defects in detail. A few citations will suffice to show its crudity, inanity, and tawdriness. Of Swift, it speaks "as a willing dependant on the charity of others"; and of 'Gulliver's Travels,' it can say only that, "rid of its coarse features, it becomes for children a charming story of pigmies and giants." Addison, on the other hand, "had a 'message' to the world"; "Keats, with Miltonic tread, was more purely sensuous"—but we forbear. One sentence is really adequate, a naïve definition of the metaphysical poets as "a class who carry out a train of thought further than their readers wish to follow." The volume is strikingly patriotic; in the American portion, although it is true that nothing important is much dwelt on, nothing insignificant has been omitted. Thirty-five ministers are credited with contributions to our young literature since 1800; and space is found for the history of Indian missions and the geography of Western States. Praise is not spared: Drake outranks Keats in fancy, and older and forgotten authors are assigned novel positions in the temple of Fame; but Mr. Howells's books, written "in a style of great excellence," to be sure, are commended only as being "so accurate that they serve as guide-books in travel," and Mr. James is more briefly dismissed as a producer of "many magazine stories." The quotations that interleave the text are selected without discrimination. In short, there is in the whole no literary insight, critical judgment, or skill in arrangement to be discerned. The scholars who are condemned to study this volume will learn as much English literature from it as they would of rhetoric from a pocket dictionary.

Mr. Nicoll has not undertaken to write a manual, dictionary, or history of English literature, but, as he states in his preface, he aims to supply information and criticism to the ordinary reader regarding those English authors whose works are valuable to a modern busy man. The antiquarian portion—no inconsiderable part of the subject as now taught—he dispenses with at once, and begins with Chaucer. He passes briefly over the earlier good prose authors and poets, and devotes most of his space to later times, including our own age, which he treats at length. In all nearly two hundred names are mentioned, and the selection is in general admirable. He has not hesitated to avail himself of the profuse material offered to a compiler in the biographical and critical productions of recent years; in fact, he has woven his book of liberal quotations, and tried rather to compress the best existing literature on the subject than to give original work. He is familiar with this literature, and reduces the researches of the Chaucer and Shakspere scholars, for example, and the essays or books of Arnold, Leslie Stephen, Minto, Morley, Saintsbury, Lowell, and critics of that order, with skill and justice. His volume is therefore a very useful compendium of the laborious study which the best minds have expended on our literature in the last thirty years; and it is, besides, written in a pleasing and simple style, of greater correctness than is found in most of what pass for good books. The concluding chapter on magazines is a very compact statement of many facts not elsewhere to be found gathered together, so far as we know. In some particulars it would be easy to justify a difference from the conclusions the author reaches, as in the relative sins of Addison and Pope in their famous quarrel, and such minor points; but in these cases either side may be taken. So, too, the Edinburgh reviewers seem of more consequence to him than to us. As a whole, however, the volume may safely be trusted as having the weight of the best authority both for facts and opinions.

The Epic of Kings. Stories Retold from Firdusi by Helen Zimmern. With a Prefatory Poem by Edmund W. Gosse. Henry Holt & Co. 1883. 12mo, pp. xlvii.–339.

These heroic stories are retold not from the Persian, but from Mohl's complete French version of the 'Shah Nameh,' and of course greatly abridged. In length as well as in beauty Firdusi's Epic is truly Oriental; the curtailment has, however, been performed with skill, and the figures stand out in bold relief amid fresh and poetical scenes, doughty Rustem above all, with whose death Miss Zimmern wisely concludes her narrative. Nor is the native note absent—the tragic wail of Iran's antique history, which succeeds to hymns of victory as fatally as night to day. These episodes are well grouped, and all attractive reading; yet, even admitting the writer's easy method of reduction from the French, the book does scant justice to the Persian poet at whose expense it is made. If plastic verse is the gift of the few, there is many a picturesque modern idiom without recurring to what Miss Zimmern is pleased to name "the simple language of the age of Shakspere and the English Bible," a prose far more remarkable for its penurious syntax than for the Shaksperian mark. To eyes accustomed to view the Orient through the medium of King James's Version, this labored simplicity may have the charm of appropriateness; but to enjoy it fully one must possess the easy unconcern of the young in questions of literary individuality. If, however, the book was intended for youthful readers, it is a pity that some grave problems were not left out of the Introduction, to which, moreover, Miss Zimmern gives no satisfactory answer.

It is hardly accurate to place the Shah Nameh on a plane with the 'Nibelungen Lied' and the 'Iliad.' The 'Book of Kings' was a work of art, not of faith, and the poet steps from behind the masses of his heroes simply to glory in his verse and boast that he has "weeded out the garden" of story. To wonder "how completely the Musulman Firdusi has apprehended" the old Persian religion will only occur to one little acquainted with the latter. It is enough for Firdusi's fame that with a poet's divination he cleared from out the ruins of old Iran the pure gold of the legend and fashioned it anew. As to the inner meaning of the "stories," the few suggestions barely quoted are either trite or wanting in directness. Linguistic comparison has proved to a certainty that the epic struggle—at least in the cycle of Jemshid and Zohak—is nothing but the Iranian version of a favorite Aryan conceit: the fair powers of light defending man's cause and their own against the demons of darkness.

Our book has, otherwise, the singular merit of being the only presentation of the Persian Epic in recent English. The abridged translation of the 'Shah Nameh' by J. Atkinson (1832) is now out of print, and, of single parts, the tale of Rustem and Sohrab alone has found in the verses of Matthew Arnold a treatment worthy of its poetical beauty. Other languages are richer, and those concerned in getting a closer likeness of the original will find, among others, in the graceful German hexameters of A. F. von Schack ('Epische Dichtungen,' 2 vols., 1853) a literal and graphic version of the very episodes barely sketched in these pages. The complete French version is in bright and fluent prose, but less available on account of its length ('Le Livre des Rois'; 7 vols., 12mo, the last published in 1878).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Chelsea Householder. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Armitage, E. Lectures on Painting, delivered to the Students of the Royal Academy. Trübner & Co.
Bishop, J. B. Commentaries on the Law of Statutory Crimes. Second edition, rewritten and enlarged. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Brassey, Sir T. On Work and Wages. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Brehm's Thierleben. Parts 71-76. B. Westermann & Co.
Corning, Dr. J. L. Brain-Rest. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Foote, Mary Hallock. The Led-Horse Claim: a Romance of a Mining Camp. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Fothergill, Dr. J. M. The Maintenance of Health: a Medical Work for Lay Readers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cents.
Freeman, E. A. Some Impressions of the United States. Henry Holt & Co. $1 50.
Froude, J. A. Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle. Harper & Bros.
Gregory, E. S. Lenore, and Other Poems: Original and Translated. Lynchburg, Va.: J. P. Bell & Co.
Hall, S. C. Retrospect of a Long Life: from 1815 to 1883. D. Appleton & Co.
Hardy, A. S. But Yet a Woman: a Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Hare, A. J. C. Cities of Southern Italy and Sicily. Geo. Routledge & Sons. $2 50.
Hawthorne, N. Our Old Home, and English Note-books. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Hicks, L. E. A Critique of Design-Arguments: A Historical Review and Free Examination of the Methods of Reasoning in Natural Theology. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Holmes, O. W. Medical Essays. 1842-1882. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Lewis, Dio. In a Nutshell. Suggestions to American College Students. Clarke Bros.
Living English Poets. MDCCCLXXXII. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.
Loomis, L. C. The Index Guide to Travel and Art-Study in Europe. New ed. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3 50.
Maydoc, F. The Story of Mellicent. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.
McCosh, Rev. J. Development: What it Can Do, and What it Cannot Do. Charles Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
My Trivial Life and Misfortunes. By A Plain Woman. Part 2. Meum and Tuum. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 10, 1883.

The Week.

THE rules submitted by the Civil-Service Commission to the President for his approval were made public during the week. They have been but slightly modified by him. Nothing is said in them about removals, for the simple reason that, if the appointing power is bound, or binds itself, to confine its choice to a certain class of candidates whose merit has been ascertained by an impartial trial, and if all partiality and influence of a political or personal nature is excluded from the exercise of that power—if, in other words, the removal of a man can no longer serve to make room for the appointment of some special favorite—the ordinary motives for making arbitrary removals will also disappear. The rules follow the law in providing that "the examinations shall be practical in their character, and, so far as may be, shall relate to those matters which will fairly test the relative capacity and fitness of the persons examined to discharge the duties of the branch of the service which they seek to enter." The opponents of civil-service reform have been busy creating the impression that under the competitive system none but "young men fresh from college" would have a chance to get places. This cry has been persistently kept up in the face of the fact that, wherever the competitive system has been in practice under our Government, a large majority of the appointments have been of persons who had enjoyed only a common-school education. The new rules of the Commission provide that the general examinations for admission to the service shall be limited to the following subjects: 1. Penmanship, copying, orthography, letter-writing. 2. Arithmetic, fundamental rules, fractions, and percentage. 3. Interest, discount, and elements of bookkeeping and of accounts. 4. Elements of the geography, history, and Government of the United States. It is difficult to imagine how the examinations could be more "practical," and more closely confined to the things which a Government clerk, to be efficient, must necessarily be conversant with, and which, at the same time, everybody in this country can easily acquire in the course of a common-school education.

The rule providing that "there shall also be competitive examinations of a suitable character to test the fitness of persons for promotion in the service" will probably be found by the Commission in the course of time and experience to admit of a liberal construction. There are certain branches of the service, for instance the Patent Office, where scientific acquirements are of essential importance, and where, if the relative fitness of candidates for promotion is measured by ordinary competitive examination, but few mistakes will be made. But in other branches, where, in addition to the scholastic acquirements necessary to all, the different degrees of quickness and accuracy with which business is disposed of mark the relative grades of merit, the business records covering certain periods may be looked upon as more reliable tests of efficiency and usefulness than can be furnished in any other way. There is, in fact, in the transaction of official business, a constant competition going on, and the Commission will probably find that, in order to ascertain the relative claims of different clerks to promotion, it is only required that these records of efficiency be kept in a regular and trustworthy way. This method has been tried in some offices, and found to work justly and to the benefit of the service.

The Assembly passed the Civil-Service Reform Bill for this State by the remarkable vote of 90 to 2, the Senate, after a favorable report by the Judiciary Committee, unanimously. The bill is framed after the model of the Pendleton bill in its provisions. The apparent collapse of the opposition to it must certainly not be interpreted as a sudden and thorough conversion of the politicians in the Legislature. It means simply that most of those politicians thought it prudent to make this concession to public opinion for the time being. The real struggle will begin when the law is to be executed. Governor Cleveland has shown by his selection of Commissioners that he takes the reform seriously. The appointment of Mr. Andrew D. White, President of Cornell University, Mr. Augustus Schoonmaker, and Mr. Henry A. Richmond is universally and justly commended by the press. Mr. White and Mr. Richmond, the one a Republican and the other a Democrat, are both known as ardent advocates of civil-service reform. Mr. Schoonmaker's opinions on this subject have not come before the public, but he is a man of high character, and it may be assumed that Governor Cleveland would not have appointed any one as a member of the Commission who could not be counted upon to coöperate with him faithfully. Some doubt is expressed as to whether Mr. White will take the position for which he has been selected. It would be a serious disappointment to the people of the State if he did not.

The President has appointed Mr. William S. Woods to fill the vacancy in the United States District Judgeship caused by General Gresham's appointment as Postmaster-General. The selection seems to be a very commendable one. It is reported from Washington that it will be a very severe disappointment to Senator Harrison, of Indiana, who had most warmly and persistently urged his law partner, Mr. Hines, for the place, but that it is quite satisfactory to the rest of the Indiana delegation in Congress, who are said to have become a little impatient of the manner in which Senator Harrison disposes of the patronage. Two or three years ago Senator Harrison was looked upon as a "rising man," fast growing to the proportions of a "favorite son." But his horizon has already been considerably darkened by the energy and perseverance he has shown in getting offices from the President and the heads of departments for relatives and friends. He is in great danger of winning the reputation of a spoilsman, and with it a harvest of resentments and quarrels. Some time ago we took notice of a letter he had written about the appointment of a Collector of Internal Revenue, which contained a large quantity of combustible material of the first class. Now comes the appointment of Judge Woods in preference to Senator Harrison's partner, which would not injure the Senator in the least had he not already created the impression that dealing in patronage is considered by him one of the principal duties and prerogatives of a Congressman. As it is, it will impair his prestige.

The reply of the Union Pacific Railroad Company to the demand of Secretary Teller for the payment of the sums claimed to be due to the sinking fund provided for in the Thurman Act, is in substance that the company has a counter-claim against the Government for carrying the mails more than sufficient to offset the Secretary's claim, and that the same is now in litigation in the Court of Claims. Under its charter the company was entitled to charge for Government service of all kinds "fair and reasonable rates of compensation, not to exceed the amounts paid by private parties for the same kind of service." But it has been the practice of Congress in making appropriations for the postal service to confer upon the Postmaster-General the power to fix the rates to be paid for carrying the mails on all railroads. The rate has been fixed in this way for the Union Pacific as well as for other railways. The Union Pacific Company disputed the right of the Postmaster-General to fix the rates, and the Supreme Court of the United States sustained the company's position, holding that it was not competent for one of the parties to the contract to decide what were "fair and reasonable rates" without the consent and concurrence of the other party. The question what are fair and reasonable rates is still to be determined judicially. The company claims the right to charge the same rates for carrying the mails that it charges for carrying express matter for private individuals, both kinds of matter being carried on first-class passenger trains. The difference between the sum allowed by the Postmaster-General and that claimed by the company is $2,738,889, covering the whole period in dispute. This is a very large sum of money, and it will strike the public as something extraordinary and in violation of railway practice, as well as of the common rules of equity, if a customer who sends an enormous and regular quantity of matter day by day is to be charged the same rate per pound as individuals who send casual packages and consignments by express.

To judge from his after-dinner utterances, Mr. Conkling holds not only that the country was robbed of "ten years of progress" by General Grant's failure to be nominated for the Presidency in 1880, but that the same event led to a sweeping Democratic victory in

the Congressional and State elections of 1882. The ex-Senator seems to forget that General Grant was elected President in 1872, and that in 1874 the Republicans suffered an overthrow fully as grievous as last year's, and that the defeat of 1874 was notoriously the consequence of the peculiar kind of "progress" enjoyed under that administration. Both General Grant and Mr. Conkling were then in the fulness of their power.

The report of the Committee of the Columbia College Trustees on the question to what extent, if any, the College should undertake to give women a collegiate education, has been made, and it offers really more than Harvard, which is frequently cited as an example in this matter, has offered or shows any sign of offering. We therefore trust that even if it be not all that the friends of the movement would like, or expected, they will seize hold of it and get what good they can out of it. The offer is substantially rather more than the London University offers to men, which is simply examinations for honors and degrees. The Columbia Committee recommends that the College officers should examine women for entrance to a four-year course; should prescribe this course in groups, to be obligatory for the first two years and elective afterward; should hold intermediate examinations as often as may seem desirable, and should finally grant a certificate equivalent to a degree. With the provision or superintendence of instruction, or buildings, rooms, or any of the other indispensable accompaniments of the course, the College declines to charge itself, and reasonably enough, in its present financial condition. These things we think the promoters of the movement ought to provide, and can provide if they bestir themselves. They are simply a question of money and organization. Suitable quarters can be rented; professors can be got for pay, and so can laboratories and apparatus, if Columbia will not open its own. The experiment can, in fact, be fairly tried at a very moderate expense, and tried, we trust, it will be. There is no use in speculating how many young women now in the city desire a college education; that cannot be ascertained in advance. There is only one way of ascertaining it, and that is by offering the college education. Nor will it do to be discouraged because the applicants are at first few in number. A good education is one of those things which furnish an exception to the economical rule of supply and demand. With regard to this, the supply creates the demand, instead of the demand creating the supply.

The lower house of the Massachusetts Legislature has passed the Senate resolution "vindicating" the late Oakes Ames, and asking for like action on the part of Congress. The Massachusetts Legislature itself is now in need of vindication, and if its request should ever come up before Congress, it will come to plague those who brought it there. It will soon be felt that neither political party can afford to do what the friends of the late Oakes Ames want to have done, and that it was in every respect an extremely unwise thing to stir up the matter at all.

In financial affairs there has been a continued progress toward easier rates for money. The redemption of U. S. called bonds under the 120th call for $15,000,000 on May 1 brought about $7,000,000 of money into the market in the first two or three days of May, over $4,000,000 of the $15,000,000 having been redeemed two weeks before, thus leaving about $3,000,000 for redemption after, say, May 2, of which a large proportion has probably now come in. This has caused a great movement of specie out of the Treasury and into the New York banks, which have shown an important increase in their reserves and their ability to loan. The domestic exchanges are now generally in favor of New York, with a consequent increase in the movement of legal-tenders to this city. The tendency of capital to find investment in railroad bonds, noted last week, continues the most prominent feature of the financial markets, and is in strong contrast with the dulness of the stock market, where prices have advanced but little except for a few stocks, and for reasons special to these. The bill passed by the Legislature permitting savings banks of this State to invest their trust funds in railroad bonds, instead of being restricted to Government bonds, and which now only awaits the Governor's signature, meets with the most unqualified disapprobation of all conservative bankers and financiers. Of the vicissitudes of railway capital, two significant instances may be cited. The Jersey Central and the Reading roads, which a few years ago earned 8 and 10 per cent. dividends on their stocks, have for several years been in the hands of receivers, with only a prospect of being now taken out.

The stipulation in the extradition treaty concluded not long ago between the United States and Belgium, to which the *Herald* calls attention, providing that "an attempt against the life of the head of a foreign Government, or against that of any member of his family, when such attempt comprises the act either of murder, or assassination, or of poisoning, shall not be considered a political offence, or an act connected with such offence," reads rather oddly, because it implies that murders or assassinations of other persons may be considered political offences, or acts connected therewith. There is no doubt that this has always been well understood, but it is a pity that when an exception to the rule was for the first time inserted in a treaty, something more extensive in the way of a definition of the term "political offence" had not also been attempted. Civilized nations will undoubtedly have to come to this before long.

It is well known that criticism is, according to those who are criticised, a very poor business, and many a high-minded author and painter has expressed the opinion that the world would be a much brighter and happier place if there was not a critic in it—a change which might easily be accomplished if the critics would but turn their attention to some respectable calling. They will therefore be glad to have their attention drawn to the fact that Mr. Ruskin, who is certainly one of the most eminent critics now living, is publishing a new edition of 'Modern Painters,' in which he lets out what he now thinks of some of his early essays in criticism. He does not spare the rod, but lashes himself with great vigor. "Pure nonsense" he finds some of his writing to be. When it is not that, he objects to it as "offensively aggressive," "heedlessly and insolently written," "a piece of pious insolence," "extremely pedantic and tiresome," etc., etc. This is a way of anticipating and taking the wind out of the sails of the hostile critic, which may be cordially commended to the creative author. In a professional critic it seems rather thrown away. With what invaluable footnotes Mr. Tupper, for instance, or Walt Whitman might gloss new editions of his works.

The Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* reports from Harrodsburg, Ky., that "now that the evidence is all in, the feeling is growing that Phil Thompson ought to be tried for murder." "Ask," it says, "nearly anybody not connected with the Thompson family what he thinks, and he will whisper in your ear that Little Phil ought to be called to account, 'but for God's sake,' he will add, 'don't tell anybody I said so.'" The reason of this is that the Thompson family are numerous and "quick on the trigger," and would probably not brook hostile criticism, or, for that matter, a hostile verdict. They might not shoot a man for saying that Little Phil ought to be hanged, but they would soon discover other reasons for shooting him, and they would do it in such a way that it would not be cold-blooded murder either, but a regular "difficulty." The great hindrance to punishing a certain class of murders in fact seems to be very much the same in Kentucky as in Ireland—that is, part of the population sympathizes with the murderers, and those who do not are afraid to let it be known.

The Macon (Ga.) *Graphic* reports the following remarks of Judge Simmons, of that State, in sentencing two prisoners to death for robbery and murder:

"It is a very painful duty, John and Henry, and I am at a loss to know what is best for the public as to how the sentence of the law should be executed—whether in private or in public. After consulting with a great many people, I have decided that the execution be in public. It is true, you may have borne a good character, John. You lived at my house twelve months, and during that time I never heard of any acts of violence by you. Yet a man's character can be destroyed by one act like yours. The Supreme Court decided that you had a very bad case, according to the testimony. I thought myself that the killing of that old man was unjustifiable on your part, and you added murder to robbery."

It must have startled "John" to find that a twelve months' good character acquired in the Judge's own house could be destroyed by one such little act of folly as robbing and murdering an old man. What, he may well ask, is a good character worth if a single peccadillo like this, committed after one year's abstinence from violence, can ruin it? Of course, every one must agree with Judge Simmons that John's treatment of the old man was "unjusti-

fiable." For ourselves, we think, however, that the Judge gave himself too much trouble in making up his mind as to whether John and Henry should be hanged publicly or privately. The important thing is that they should be hanged speedily, and as long as this is done, it matters comparatively little how many Georgians enjoy the spectacle.

The conference of members of the Irish Nationalist party in London, which is reported as organizing a fund for the relief of the families of persons who have fled the country, or have been "arrested in connection with murder trials," would do well to classify the objects of their bounty a little carefully, or they will increase the odium already brought on the party by its apparent sympathy with murderers. It is all very well to call the fugitives "breadwinners," but a breadwinner who has had to run from the police because he was planning the murder of another breadwinner, is not in the opinion of the civilized world a proper object of sympathy. Two hundred persons are said to have fled from a district known as Crossmaglen in Ulster, since the conviction of five or six residents of that place for belonging to a murder society. They would undoubtedly not have fled, if there were not proof of some kind somewhere that they were going to kill somebody. The country is therefore well rid of them, and the less said about them the better. The notion that whatever informers swear must be untrue, has been thoroughly exploded by the revelations in Dublin. It would be very difficult now to persuade anybody not belonging to the Nationalist ranks, that when they see an Irish breadwinner flying it is simply because wicked men have been telling lies about him. We do not believe there are now any fugitives who have not been mixed up in some criminal—and not simply illegal—enterprise.

There are, however, undoubtedly some hard cases among the fugitives, where men have thoughtlessly or from really patriotic motives joined secret societies, and then found themselves sold into a horrible slavery, in which they were compelled, on peril of their lives, to commit or conceal crimes, under orders from villains like Carey or Tynan, who keep in the background, and, if the worst comes to the worst, sell their dupes to the police. The Land League, or the National League, could render no better service, therefore, to a large body of their young countrymen than issuing an address warning them against these secret societies, with their "Number One," and their "inner circles," and "head centres," and other tomfoolery, which have so often in Irish history ended by bringing the least guilty of those concerned in them to the gallows. But from this most salutary step all the leaders seem to refrain with a caution which discredits them with the civilized world. They are apparently under the impression that it is possible in our time to get up a code of morality for the special use of Irishmen, so that there shall be an Irish right and wrong distinct from that of the rest of the world. There were such things as local morals in the Middle Ages, but they are extinct and cannot be revived.

The Dublin Grand Jury has found true bills for murder against Tynan ("Number One"), Walsh, and Sheridan, who are all in this country. Their extradition will doubtless, therefore, be now demanded, and this Government will have to deal with a very troublesome question. The peculiar constitution of the court which is trying these cases in Dublin is one of the things which will complicate the matter. The court is not one of the ordinary tribunals of the country, but one created to deal with a crisis which is undoubtedly political in its main features; and although it now tries by jury, if juries fail to give convictions it may be converted into a court of three judges, a change which has been threatened in Kelly's case, on which two juries have failed to agree. Moreover, it is not difficult to furnish abundant proof from the speeches of English statesmen —Mr. Trevelyan, for one—to say nothing of articles like that of the London *Times*, from which we quoted the other day, that the English Government regards these murderers as representing the whole body of their countrymen in a political sense, because on more than one occasion in the House of Commons the redress of undeniable Irish grievances has been refused expressly on account of the murders. The arguments which these amazing indiscretions have put into the hands of the murderers and their friends in this country against their surrender under the extradition treaty, are obvious enough.

The news of the indictment of Sheridan, Tynan, and Walsh has, following close on the confession of Delaney and Caffrey, caused a good deal of excitement in Irish circles. Sheridan and Walsh declare they will stand their ground, and meet whatever is in store for them. We need hardly say that both of them are as innocent of complicity in murder as unborn babes. What troubles them most, doubtless, is the judicial persecutions to which these poor fellows Brady, Curley, Kelly & Co. have been subjected in Dublin by all those perjured judges, juries, witnesses, and Crown counsel. Tynan is said to be in America, but nothing certain seems to be known about him. His photograph is on exhibition in all the shop windows in England, so that the British public at least is tolerably familiar with his appearance as he was; but then he had a large, bushy beard, which has doubtless been sacrificed by this time, so that he is no longer the same man. That he, too, is innocent of anything like murder it is useless to add. All he knows about murder is doubtless what he hears from those "ignoble villains," the informers. There is as yet no positive news about that member of Parliament with "the blonde beard," who is said to have attended some of the murderers' meetings. A great many people in England are very anxious to prove the connection of the Land League or the Parnellites with the assassins, and the smallest trace of a prominent Leaguer in a murder society is joyfully received. That reliable gentleman and profound political thinker, the London correspondent of the *Tribune*, says that "no effort will be spared to identify" this member with the blonde beard. We have it on the same authority that "it is said in important quarters that Mr. Parnell is so deeply implicated in the work of the party of violence as to be unable to disavow them even if he wished to do so." If this be said "in important quarters," it must be true, particularly as "important quarters" have been saying it for a year.

The success of the opposition to the granting of pensions for two lives after their death to Lords Wolseley and Alcester, probably marks the final abandonment of this mode of rewarding military and naval commanders in England. The most remarkable thing about this last attempt to continue it is that a cabinet made up as Mr. Gladstone's is, should have made it, because the pension list is one of the worst of the scandals bequeathed to the present generation by the old régime. There are now several persons in receipt of pensions granted to their ancestors two hundred years ago, when it was not uncommon to grant a pension to a man and his heirs in perpetuity. Then it became the practice to grant them for three lives after the death of the original grantee. Then two lives became the rule, and now the practice has been abolished altogether, and Lords Wolseley and Alcester are to get their rewards in a "lump sum." The chief Radical objection to hereditary pensions is, of course, to be found in the recognition which they contain of the existence of such a thing as hereditary merit in politics. Radicals refuse to admit any longer that a young man can be entitled to money out of the public purse because his father or grandfather was a great man, just as they are more and more reluctant to admit that he ought to be a legislator because his father was one.

Mr. Gladstone's refusal to treat his defeats both on the Affirmation Bill and on Sir Stafford Northcote's motion to prevent Bradlaugh's administering the oath to himself, as a cause for resignation is naturally somewhat provoking to his enemies, but nothing else was to have been expected. Ever since the Bradlaugh case came up he has treated it as a question for the House and not for the Ministry to decide. It is a question, moreover, which in no way affects the policy of the Ministry. No such question has ever been made a Cabinet question, unless connected, as in O'Connell's case, with some great feature of policy, like Catholic Emancipation. Baron Rothschild was elected for the city of London in 1847 and 1849, during the Premiership of Lord John Russell; in 1852, during that of Lord Aberdeen; in 1857, during that of Lord Palmerston, and had during that period the support of the Liberals, but never as a party, in the House, and it was not till 1858, when the Tories were in power, that the rules were modified so that he could take the oath. It is all but certain that if it had been understood that Bradlaugh's was a Cabinet question, the Ministry would have had a majority. There is a considerable body of Liberals who are quite ready to keep Bradlaugh out, even on the flimsiest pretext, in order to please the Nonconformists, but they would do nothing of the kind if it promised to expose them to the trouble and risk of a general election.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 2, to TUESDAY, May 8, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE rules put into the hands of the President and the Cabinet by the Civil-Service Commission were prematurely published. They provide that the general examinations for admission to the service shall be limited to the following subjects: 1. Penmanship, orthography, copying, letter-writing. 2. Arithmetic, fundamental rules, fractions, and percentage. 3. Interest, discount, and elements of bookkeeping and of accounts. 4. Elements of the geography, history, and government of the United States. Competitive examinations, of a suitable character to test the fitness of persons for promotion in the service, are also provided for. The Cabinet and President revised and remodelled the rules in minor particulars, and they were officially published on Tuesday.

Postmaster-General Gresham on Saturday morning decided that the law readjusting the salaries of postmasters of the fourth class went into effect on the passage of the act—namely, March 3. This decision has created consternation in the Post-office Department, and will involve an endless amount of labor before it is satisfactorily settled. Some twenty-four thousand post-offices are involved. The act specified the date October 1 for larger offices, but said nothing about the date for those of the fourth class.

On Friday, United States Government officers seized a great quantity of letters in two private post-offices, for the distribution of city letters and circulars, in this city. These offices do a large business by delivering letters at a rate less than regular Government postage. This is held to be contrary to law, and it has been decided to suppress them.

Judge William C. Woods, of the Indiana Supreme Court, was on Wednesday appointed United States District Judge of Indiana, in place of the present Postmaster-General. It is said that the appointment was made at the latter's request.

Vice-Admiral Stephen C. Rowan has asked to be relieved from the duties of Superintendent of the Naval Observatory at Washington, and Secretary Chandler on Wednesday appointed Commodore R. W. Shufeldt to succeed him in that position.

The sales of revenue stamps since the new tobacco-tax law began to operate on May 1 have been very large.

A message was received by General Sherman from Brig.-Gen. Crook on Friday. It was dated at San Bernardino Springs, Arizona, May 3. He said: "It is not my intention to violate the convention between the two Governments. My object in visiting Sonora and Chihuahua was to arrange for coöperation, and in case my troops followed the hostiles into Mexico, to see if I could not secure a liberal interpretation of the terms of the agreement in regard to the time I could be allowed to remain there. It is my intention to start to-morrow morning in pursuit of the savages, in accordance with the treaty." This was in answer to a despatch from General Sherman warning him not to violate the treaty with Mexico in regard to the pursuit of hostiles across the border.

In the Star-route trial, Mr. Bliss continued his speech throughout the week, concluding on Tuesday. He criticised with great severity the course of S. W. Dorsey.

Judge Billings, in the United States Circuit Court at New Orleans, on Thursday decided the case of Myra Clark Gaines against the city of New Orleans in favor of the plaintiff. The suit has been pending for many years. The amount involved is $1,925,667 83, rent and interest on the property of Mrs. Gaines, wrongfully disposed of by the city in 1837.

The United States Supreme Court on Monday afternoon denied petitions for rehearing in what are known as the Louisiana and Virginia bond cases.

Governor Cleveland on Wednesday nominated the following gentlemen to be Commissioners of the Niagara Falls Preserve, in accordance with the bill recently passed: William Dorsheimer, J. Hampden Robb, and Andrew H. Green, of New York; Sherman S. Rogers, of Buffalo, and Martin B. Anderson, of Rochester. The latter is President of Rochester University. They were immediately confirmed by the Senate.

The last days of the session of the New York Legislature were crowded with business. The Conference Committees of both houses met on Wednesday afternoon and agreed upon a bill apportioning the Congressional districts of the State. It gives the Democrats seventeen districts, the Republicans fourteen, and leaves three doubtful. Both branches passed the bill on that day. The Campbell Penal Code amendments, relating especially to Sunday occupations, were also passed. The Assembly passed the bill providing for a State Civil-Service Commission of three Commissioners, at salaries of $2,000 each, who are to superintend the execution of the civil-service rules throughout the State. On Thursday the Storm King Bridge Bill was rushed through the Assembly in spite of stout opposition. The New York Aqueduct Bill was passed by a vote of 104 to 10, after having been so amended as to make Mr. Parke Godwin a seventh Commissioner. The Senate refused to concur in this amendment, and a conference committee was appointed, which struck out the amendment, and the bill was then sent to the Governor. The Senate defeated the bill reducing pilotage fees in the port of New York, and passed the Harbor-masters Bill. It was agreed on Thursday to adjourn at 7 o'clock on Friday evening.

On Friday the Assembly Civil-Service Reform Bill was passed by the Senate without a dissenting voice, and immediately sent to the Governor. In executive session the Finance Committee of the Senate refused to report on the nomination of Mr. Murtha for Immigration Commissioner. He is distasteful to Tammany. This put the nomination beyond the reach of the Senate, either to confirm or reject it, and also put it beyond the power of the Governor to make other nominations for the place. The Harbor-masters' Bill was adopted in the Assembly. Later in the day the Senate received a great many nominations from the Governor, among them for Harbor-masters, Quarantine Commissioners, and Commissioners of the State Survey. In these Tammany received little recognition. Other important nominations were: For Civil-Service Commissioners—Andrew D. White, of Tompkins; Augustus Schoonmaker, of Ulster; and Henry A. Richmond, of Erie. For Chief of the Bureau of Labor Statistics—C. F. Peck, of Steuben, editor of the Hornellsville *Tribune*. These were confirmed; but beyond these Tammany refused to go, and the other nominations were not acted upon. The Governor soon after sent a remarkable message to the Senate, in which he lectured them on the disgraceful exhibition of greed for spoils shown in their rejection of the nomination for Immigration Commissioner, for factional reasons. An angry reply was made by Mr. Grady for Tammany, and the message was referred to the Finance Committee. No further action was taken on Mr. Murtha's nomination.

The closing hours of the session in both branches were characterized by hasty action and turmoil. The Anti-Free Pass Bill was defeated in the Senate by the objections of Mr. McArthur and Mr. Mackin. The new Building Law for this city, the Union College Bill, the bill making the Brooklyn bridge free to foot passengers, the bill for the opening of Flatbush Avenue to the Brooklyn bridge, the "Freedom of Worship" Bill, the Prohibitory and Woman Suffrage amendments, and the Broadway Underground Railroad Bill were lost. An adjournment *sine die* was reached at 7 o'clock in the evening.

The Republican members of the New York Legislature framed an address to the voters of the State, and published it on Tuesday, reviewing the course of the Democratic majority and severely criticising it.

The Massachusetts House of Representatives on Monday afternoon adopted the Senate resolution recognizing the ability, services, and integrity of Oakes Ames, and asking for a like recognition on the part of the national Congress.

At the May dinner of the Saturday Night Club, in this city, on Saturday, ex-Senator Conkling said, referring to the Chicago Convention, in the course of a violently Stalwart speech: "I believe as firmly as I believe anything, that the results of that Convention have held this country back ten years."

Mr. W. H. Vanderbilt on Friday announced his retirement from the Presidency of the New York Central Railroad. His sons also retire from the Presidencies and Vice-Presidencies which they have held, but remain in the directory of the several Vanderbilt roads. In order that the control may not go out of the family, a new office has been created in each of the roads, namely, Chairman of the Board of Directors. This change is made in accordance with the system pursued in the government of the great English railway corporations. The sons are Chairmen. The object of the change is to relieve Mr. Vanderbilt from routine duties.

The canals of New York State were opened for the season on Monday with a great rush of business.

A dramatic festival, in which many notable actors took part, was held in Cincinnati during last week.

Congressman Thompson, of Kentucky, who recently shot W. B. Davis, was indicted for murder on Wednesday.

Phipps, the ex-Almshouse Superintendent, of Philadelphia, was on Saturday convicted of forgery. He was recently brought from Canada by extradition.

Signor Salvini, the Italian tragedian, sailed for home on Wednesday. He expects to return in the autumn of 1884.

The trustees of Trinity College, at Hartford, Conn., have elected to the Presidency the Rev. George Williamson Smith, D. D., of Brooklyn. He is a graduate of Hobart College, and was for some time Chaplain at the Naval Academy, Annapolis. Afterward he was rector of a church in Jamaica, Long Island, and since 1881 has been rector of the Church of the Redeemer, Brooklyn.

Mr. Frederick Marquand, of this city, has given $60,000 to Princeton College for the endowment of an Art School. Arrangements are being perfected for the endowment of four chairs in the School of Philosophy.

The Rev. Josiah Henson, known for many years as Mrs. Stowe's "Uncle Tom," died on Saturday in Dresden, Ontario, in his ninety-fourth year. He was born a slave, and made a remarkable escape to Canada. He visited England twice, where he sold 40,000 copies of his autobiography. Incidents in his career were used in 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' but the book is not the history of his life.

FOREIGN.

In the House of Commons on Thursday night the Affirmation Bill was refused a second reading by a vote of 292 to 289. On Friday afternoon the Speaker said that he had received a letter from Mr. Bradlaugh, in which that gentleman announced that he would, at the beginning of business, ask to be

permitted to take the oath. The Speaker asked for the guidance of the House. Loud cries were made for Mr. Gladstone, but as the Prime Minister did not rise, Sir Stafford Northcote said that he would propose that Mr. Bradlaugh be precluded from going through such a form. Mr. Gladstone said he could raise no objection to the motion, which, under the circumstances, Sir Stafford Northcote was the proper person to make. On motion of Mr. Labouchere, it was decided to hear Mr. Bradlaugh in his own behalf at the bar of the House. Mr. Bradlaugh pointed out that, as the House had rejected the Affirmation Bill, which would have enabled him to take his seat, it was his duty to take the oath. As long as he was not disqualified, he would claim the right to his seat. Mr. Gladstone announced that he would vote against Sir Stafford Northcote's motion, which was then carried by a vote of 271 to 165. Mr. Bradlaugh again addressed the House on his claim to a seat, and then returned below the bar. The subject was dropped. Mr. Bradlaugh announces that he has decided to visit his constituents and formally to tender his resignation as their elected representative.

In the House of Commons on Monday afternoon Mr. Gladstone announced that, instead of the pensions which it was proposed to bestow upon Lord Wolseley and Lord Alcester (Admiral Seymour), they would be given a lump sum of money. This change, it is believed, is due to the outcry which has been raised against the provision in the bill providing pensions, which declares that they shall, on the death of the beneficiaries, revert to the nearest heirs.

John Walsh, P. J. Sheridan, and Peter Tynan (Number One) were indicted by the Grand Jury at Dublin on Thursday for murder. Fitzharris was indicted as an accessory after the fact. Bills for conspiracy were found against a number of others. It is understood the British Government will ask for the extradition of Sheridan and Walsh, who are in New York city. They have not attempted to conceal themselves since the indictment, and put great faith in a probable refusal of the request for extradition. It is confidently asserted in Dublin that Peter Tynan is in London, negotiating with a view of turning informer. Other reports assert positively that he is in this country. No demand has yet been received at the State Department in Washington for the extradition of Walsh, Sheridan, or Tynan.

Patrick Delaney and Thomas Caffrey, two more of the men charged with participation in the murders of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, were arraigned for trial in Dublin on Wednesday. They created a sensation by pleading guilty. Caffrey was informed that the Crown gave no hope of a mitigation of the sentence of death which would be passed upon him. Delaney, when he was called upon to plead, said: "We had to obey the orders of the society, or take the consequences. When I got in the park I could not get away. I saw the murders committed, but took no part in them." Caffrey made a similar statement. Both were sentenced to be hanged on June 2. Delaney's sentence was commuted by Earl Spencer on Tuesday.

The third trial of Timothy Kelly for participation in the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke was begun in Dublin on Monday.

James Mullett and William Moroney pleaded guilty to the charge of conspiracy to murder in Dublin, on Thursday. Lawrence Hanlon was put on trial, charged with attempting to murder Denis Field. On Friday he was found guilty and sentenced to penal servitude for life.

The Dublin *Freeman's Journal* says the dynamite plot hatched in America was betrayed to the British Consul at New York. The name of every conspirator who came to England, and of the ship on which he sailed, was cabled to England directly after the vessel left New York. The police watched the conspirators from the moment they landed in England.

At a conference of members of the Irish Nationalist party in London on Friday it was resolved to organize a fund for the relief of the families of persons who have fled the country or have been arrested in connection with the murder trials in Ireland and generally under the Crimes Act. It is estimated that 600 families have been rendered destitute by the flight or incarceration of their breadwinners.

It was announced on Tuesday that the Governor of Limerick Jail had retired from office, probably because of complaints of his harsh treatment of suspects.

Richard Deasy, Judge of the Court of Appeals of Ireland, died on Sunday at the age of seventy-one.

Alarming rumors were current in Halifax on Monday that a letter had been received by Lieutenant-Governor Archibald, warning him of the expected visit to Halifax of two suspicious American vessels, and cautioning him to have precautions taken for the safety of life and property about the city. The letter asserted that two suspicious vessels, manned, it was believed, by Fenians, had left Boston for Halifax, carrying a quantity of torpedoes. On arriving there the torpedoes were to be laid in the harbor, with the intention of blowing up the shipping. It was denied on Tuesday that the letter referred to suspicious American vessels, but it contained significant warnings which have been heeded.

It was announced by the Prince of Wales on Monday, at the formal opening of the School of Music at Kensington, England, that Mr. Arthur Sullivan, the composer, and Mr. Grove, the journalist, had been knighted.

In the German Reichstag on Wednesday Herr Richter introduced a motion declaring against the execution of private orders in military workshops. Prince Bismarck protested in the name of the Emperor against the assumption that the army can be required even to receive a direct recommendation from the Reichstag. Herr Richter then altered the motion so that its demands were addressed to Prince Bismarck instead of to the military administration. The Minister of War declared that the motion implied a direct invasion of the powers of the Emperor. Prince Bismarck's action is not regarded as a reprimand to the Reichstag so much as a reassertion of his prerogatives as Chancellor over the other Ministers, especially the Minister of War.

In the debate on the budget for 1884–5, in the German Reichstag on Monday, Herr Richter moved to refer the subject to a commission, it being impossible to make trustworthy estimates so far ahead. The motion was supported by all the Liberals. The Tories and Clericals not being present in full force, it was finally adopted by a vote of 105 to 97, again frustrating one of Prince Bismark's favorite projects.

The treaty of commerce between Germany and Mexico passed its second reading in the German Reichstag on Monday.

In reparation of its unwarranted attack upon United States Minister Sargent, the Berlin *North-German Gazette* recently published, with an apologetic introduction, a translation of Mr. Sargent's report to the State Department, to show that its remarks had been based upon what it alleges was an incorrect translation which appeared in a New York German newspaper.

The Berlin *North-German Gazette*, commenting on the overtures of the French press to the Republicans of Italy and Spain, in which the papers speak of France as being a moral ally, says that although this coquetting with revolutionists is a bad symptom, it is less dangerous to peace than the intrigues an Orleanist restoration in France would speedily hatch in the European capitals.

The Lower House of the Austro-Hungarian Reichsrath has adopted a bill fixing the minimum force of the Austrian Landwehr, exclusive of that of the Tyrol, at 138,000 men, and authorizing the formation of six regiments of Landwehr cavalry. The measure will involve an increase in the military budget of 1,000,000 florins.

The bakers' strike still continues in Vienna. There were serious riots on Friday evening.

The greater part of Königinhof, Bohemia, has been burned. The town is on the Elbe, and has a population of between 6,000 and 7,000.

Count de Chambord had a slight attack of apoplexy on Tuesday.

It is reported that the Duc d'Aumale is seriously ill in Sicily.

The ex-Empress Eugénie of France has renounced her claims to the château presented by the municipality of Marseilles to the Emperor Napoleon.

Louis Viardot, the distinguished French author, is dead in the eighty-third year of his age. He studied law, but abandoned it for literature at the age of twenty-three, writing for several Paris journals of advanced opinions. He was the author of many notable works on art, on the history of the Arabs, Spain, Italy, and the Jesuits.

The many grave complications which were threatened during the sittings of the Spanish Budget Committee have been safely got rid of. The Finance Minister is now in sympathy with the reforms proposed by Señor Moret, and the credit of 85,000,000 pesetas for public works which was projected will be withdrawn.

A building used as a manufactory of explosives has been discovered at Cronstadt, Russia. Several naval officers were arrested.

Much ill feeling exists in some of the regiments of the Russian army owing to the fact that rewards are being offered to the men to induce them to denounce any of their comrades who are known to be Nihilists.

Lord Dufferin has started from Cairo on his return to Constantinople.

The Amsterdam Universal Exhibition was opened, on Wednesday, by the King of Holland.

It was reported on Sunday in London, from Rome, that Cardinal Jacobini, the Papal Secretary of State, had sent a despatch to Cardinal McCloskey, of New York, asking whether or not it was true that he had received Alexander Sullivan, the President of the Irish National League of America, and demanding explanations, if such was the fact. The rumor was positively denied by Cardinal McCloskey on Monday.

A telegram has been received at Cairo from Colonel Hicks, reporting that on April 29 he had an engagement with 5,000 rebels in the Sudan. The battle, which lasted half an hour, resulted in the defeat of the rebels, with 500 killed, including the Lieutenant-General of El Mahdi, the False Prophet, and many wounded. The Egyptian loss was slight.

The Chilian Colonel Canto has had two engagements with Caceres's forces at Balconiello and Pampas de Sicaya, Peru. In both cases, according to Chilian reports, he routed the enemy, capturing a cannon and forty rifles. Caceres is at Tarta. His troops are demoralized. The Peruvian Minister at Washington asserts that one of the battles was a victory for Peru.

INTERNATIONAL CRIME.

THE proclamation of the supplementary extradition treaty with Spain concluded last summer may serve to draw attention to the curious fact that we have established with Spain, usually regarded as a type of a benighted and retrogressive country, a far better and more comprehensive international system of protection against crime than with England. We have been wrangling with England for many a long year over the Ashburton treaty, and have even gone so far as to suggest that it might become necessary for us to withdraw from it altogether, and yet not a single question growing out of its extradition clauses has been settled. Meanwhile, as if for the purpose of demonstrating that there was really no reason for any trouble with England at all, we made a treaty with Spain in 1877 which raised and disposed of all these very points, without the least trouble in the world.

The trouble with England, as our readers will remember, grew out of our insisting that we could, after getting a man surrendered for one crime, covered by the treaty, say forgery, try him for another and a totally different crime, not covered by the treaty, say smuggling. To this the English replied: "Then why have we a treaty at all, and what is to prevent your trying him for a political offence? and if you can try him for a political offence, what becomes of the right of asylum?" To this we answered—we are not burlesquing, but merely condensing the argument—that some things were too dreadful to be thought of at all, and need not be provided against by treaties; that this was the view taken by the Athenians of the crime of parricide, and such was the attitude of the United States toward trials for political offences. But further than this, we maintained that England had been perpetually extraditing criminals for one offence and insisting on the right to try them for another, so that it seemed as if she ought to blush with shame to mention the subject. Instead of this, England had passed an act of Parliament forbidding the surrender of any criminal unless we would give a pledge that he should be tried only for the crime for which he was surrendered. This enabled our Government to say, "Aha! you are trying to impose obligations on the United States under a treaty by means of domestic legislation, are you? We will soon show you whether you can play fast and loose with treaties in this way." And this extraordinary discussion ended fitly enough in the suggestion of the abrogation of the treaty, to the great delight, no doubt, of many citizens of either country about to commit or who had committed crime, but to the considerable mystification of all those who were simple enough to imagine that the one object of diplomacy was to arrive at some practical result, and that the object of this particular correspondence was the better protection of both countries against crime.

But the funny part of the whole thing was that we had hardly closed this great international debate, when we turned round and negotiated with Spain a treaty which provided against every difficulty which had been raised in the English correspondence. When Spain inquired what was to be done about political offences, we did not contend that the right of asylum was so sacred that it was not necessary to do or say anything about it; on the contrary, we signed an article providing that "no persons surrendered by or to either of the contracting parties in virtue of this convention shall be tried or punished for any political crime or offence." When it was suggested that difficulties might arise out of an attempt to try a man for a crime for which he had not been surrendered, we agreed without hesitation to a provision that "no person shall be tried for any crime or offence other than that for which he was surrendered," except it be for some other crime expressly covered by the treaty.

It would seem from this as if, for some reason or other, it was really harder for us to come to an understanding on the simple subject of surrendering criminals with a country bound to us by identity of race, language, religion, and legal principles, than with a benighted, retrogressive old country like Spain—a by-word for want of the "spirit of the age," and alien from us in race, language, religion, and laws. This suspicion would seem to be confirmed by the fact that the list of crimes provided against in the treaty with Spain, as enlarged by the supplementary agreement, is a very comprehensive and enlightened one, while that in the treaty with England is still antique and curiously meagre. It seems incredible, but it is nevertheless a fact, that forgery, or the utterance of forged paper, is the only strictly commercial crime covered by the Ashburton treaty. This was natural enough in 1842, but how strange it is in 1883! To see how our international code with England ought to be enlarged, we have only to turn again to the treaties with Spain, and we find not only forgery and utterance of forged paper, but the falsification and fraudulent use of official documents—so often resorted to in aid of commercial frauds—counterfeiting, embezzlement, and obtaining money or property under false pretences, or the purchase of property so obtained, all made extraditable offences. Now, it is notorious that it is the swindler in our day who is the real international pirate, the true enemy of mankind, against whom we need protection, and also that the great field for the American swindler is England, as the field for the British swindler is the United States. His operations are carried on on a gigantic scale and with extraordinary impunity. Nothing would do more to protect both countries against him than a rational and enlightened extradition treaty such as we actually have with Spain, and which is itself drawn up as if to demonstrate that there is no cause for any difficulty on the subject with England.

THE PARLIAMENTARY OATH IN ENGLAND.

THE defeat by a small majority of the bill substituting an affirmation for the oath of admission in the House of Commons has no political significance, because the Ministry, from the very outset, refused to treat the Bradlaugh case as a Cabinet question, and, although the bill is of their introduction, their followers have been left free to follow their own inclinations in voting on it. But it is none the less a remarkable exhibition of the power of bigotry and intolerance, and, we may add, humbug and hypocrisy, in that assembly. It is notorious, and has never been denied in all the discussion which this matter has called forth, that a very large number of nominally Christian members of the House are really agnostics, and take the oath, not because it is more binding on their conscience than a simple pledge, but because it is to them an unmeaning form, which pleases religious people, and does nobody else any harm. This is really the view which Bradlaugh offered, and still offers, to take of it, and the real reason why he was not allowed to act on it was, not that the view was in itself objectionable, but that he was an odious man.

Since his reëlection by his constituents, and his formal offer to take the oath without ifs or buts, the matter has assumed a much more serious aspect. In refusing to let him take it the majority of the House took upon itself to decide, that a duly elected member was not entitled to his seat because it did not like him, and that it need not allow anybody to take the oath if it doubted his sincerity or did not approve of his religious views. It was to get the House out of this very absurd and wholly untenable position that the Affirmation Bill was introduced, but it now appears that the House will not accept deliverance in this way. Mr. Gladstone's speech in favor of the bill is said to have surpassed in some passages all his former oratorical exploits. In acknowledging that the Liberals were probably damaging themselves with the country in trying to pass it, but maintaining that it was none the less their duty to do so, he took ground on which but few politicians in any age have stood, and which, whenever Mr. Gladstone takes it, profoundly disgusts not only his enemies but a good many of his followers. It produces on them the sickening effect which the "civil-service twaddle" so long produced on our own statesmen, as worthier of the Sunday-school than the forum.

The discussion on the bill throughout the country has not been very profitable or very symptomatic, because it turned in a very small degree on the expediency of making members of Parliament take an oath implying a belief in God. To nine-tenths of the middle classes, Bradlaugh's morality was a far more important element in the discussion than the value of oaths. He is not only an atheist, but holds very odious views about marriage, which he has sought to propagate in a very obnoxious way, and is altogether a very offensive person to English respectability. He has really no political allies, his Liberal friends being a good deal ashamed of him, though his ability is undeniable. He has completely beaten his adversaries in the courts, in the suits they brought against him to exact the legal penalty for taking his seat without qualifying, although he has acted throughout as his own counsel. There is, therefore, good reason to believe that if the attempt to substitute affirming for swearing had not been intended to meet his needs in the first instance, it might have been successful.

But no attempt of the kind will ever be successful in a country like England, without a victim of some kind to instigate it. The oath would never have been so modified as to admit Catholics, if O'Connell's election had not furnished a particular case in which its injustice

was made manifest. Nor would it have been so modified as to admit the Jews, if Baron Rothschild had not year after year for several years presented himself, with a powerful constituency at his back, to demand it. The arguments used against the Affirmation Bill by those who pretend to oppose it on religious grounds are almost exactly the same as those used in the O'Connell and Rothschild cases half a century ago. O'Connell was to be kept out because England was a Protestant state, and it would cease to be Protestant if there was a Catholic in Parliament. Rothschild was to be kept out in like manner because it was a Christian state, and would cease to be Christian if there was a Jew in Parliament. Now, it is said that it is a theistic state, and will cease to be so if a man who avows his atheism has special facilities provided to enable him to get into the House of Commons.

The theory which underlies the argument in all three cases is not only that every state has relations with the Deity as a corporation, but that he is placated, or the reverse, by corporate acts or shortcomings, without looking into the motives or mental condition of the men who compose the corporation or represent it. Consequently, a collection of the rankest unbelievers or Gallios might get together in a legislature, and, by going through certain forms, winking at each other all the while, give complete satisfaction to the Ruler of the Universe, and prevent his inflicting divers calamities, known and unknown, on the community to which they belonged. This is a familiar mediæval view of the dealings of Providence with political societies; and although very few persons nowadays would acknowledge that they held it, if presented to them nakedly, the number who do hold it in some form unconsciously is very large. We find it among ourselves acting powerfully on that small body of persons who agitate for the insertion of some mention of God in the Constitution as a means of securing Divine favor, and one hears frequent recognition of it in prayers in churches. But there is, of course, absolutely no means of combining it with the doctrine of individual responsibility on which the moral government of the universe must always rest. As long as every man must answer for himself before the supreme tribunal, he, of course, cannot be liable either to loss or suffering for the doings or undoings of his fellow-men, whether they be called Kings, or Congressmen, or Bosses.

SOUTHERN AND OTHER DUELLING.

A SOUTHERN correspondent asks us in another column how "Southern gentlemen, young gentlemen especially, are to be taught to look at duelling in all its forms, regular and irregular, as all the civilized world—the French *passim*, German students and army officers, some English army and navy fogies, etc., etc., excepted—look at it." We presume no such change was ever brought about by any one agency in any community. The disappearance of all superstitions—and belief in the usefulness or necessity of the duel is certainly one of them—has always been brought about by a composition of causes. Nobody knows what destroyed the belief in witchcraft and in the necessity of discovering and punishing witches; but it somehow died out, and the mere mention of it now excites a smile even among the ignorant. The duel is, as everybody knows, like so many other absurdities, a legacy from the Middle Ages. It was unknown in the ancient world, and it had its justification in the Middle Ages in the notion that God permitted the right and wrong of a dispute, or the guilt or innocence of an accused person, to be settled in that way. This was a complete justification, too. Trial by battle was, to men who saw in it a mode of direct Divine interposition in human affairs, a very solemn and perfectly proper proceeding.

What makes the modern duel absurd is, that the form has survived while the reason is gone. Nobody now believes that a duel decides anything except that neither of the combatants is afraid to risk his life; but it is not once in a thousand times that this is the issue raised in their dispute. It is very seldom indeed that a man fights a duel because somebody has called him a coward. Duels are almost always due to some imputation on a man's morals—his truthfulness, for instance, or honesty, or on the propriety of his behavior in some episode of social intercourse. A mediæval duel would have settled this in the minds of the combatants or their friends. Heaven would have revealed through the issue of the fight whether somebody had lied, or stolen, or behaved like a brute, as charged. But the modern duel decides nothing except which can shoot best, or handle the rapier most skilfully. The real point in dispute, about the lying, or the knavery, or the brutality, it leaves just where it found it.

It is the gradual perception of this, combined with the growth of the habit of legality, which has abolished duelling in most countries in which it once prevailed. It is this which has made it ridiculous, even in the army and navy, among a very practical people like the English, which still holds physical courage and coolness in the presence of danger in very high esteem. Two colonels in the Guards had the other day in London the very kind of dispute which it was formerly thought nothing but a duel could settle. An anonymous letter was written to the *World* reflecting severely on Colonel Williams, to whom the editor sent it. He thought he detected in it the handwriting of Colonel Burnaby, and charged him with writing it. Colonel Burnaby denied it indignantly. Under the code everything was now ready for a duel. But of course it was clear that a duel would decide nothing but that the two colonels were physically brave, which nobody doubted, and which was not an issue in the case. The issue was whether Colonel Burnaby had been guilty of writing an anonymous slander, and for the trial of this a court of law was, of course, the proper place. Accordingly, when the matter was referred to the Commander-in-Chief, the Duke of Cambridge, he directed Colonel Burnaby to bring an action, which he did. The case was never tried, as it was settled out of court, by Colonel Williams withdrawing his imputation.

What strikes one in all this is the rationality of the whole proceeding, and it is the growth of rationality which must abolish duelling everywhere, as it has abolished so much other folly and tomfoolery. In a community in which people cultivate rationality, and at the same time place a high value on their moral character, it cannot possibly long survive as a means of settling quarrels. Civilian Germans do not fight duels, and mainly for this reason. Duelling is kept up in the army as a means of keeping alive the personal sensitiveness which many military men hold to be essential to discipline. As Lecky has pointed out, a meek or long-suffering army would be an absurdity, and on the Continent it is part of the system of militarism to guard against the growth of meekness by cultivating quickness of resentment and readiness to appeal to arms. There is some rationality about this, however. If you want to keep a man fierce, and arrogant, and combative, you cannot do better than to keep him ready to fight anybody who annoys him. But in the German army no officer is allowed to settle in this way the question whether he has been lying, or cheating, or misbehaving himself in the streets. This is decided by the ordinary legal methods, and by a tribunal of his superiors. Of the students' duels we do not need to speak, as they are one of the amusements of boys.

In France, duelling is now confined mainly to Parisian journalists and "young men about town," though graver and more valuable men occasionally indulge in it. The reason why it holds its ground there so much better than in any other country is undoubtedly to be found in the qualities of mind and character which make Frenchmen such unsuccessful politicians, and make their Parliamentary debates such queer affairs. That the *manner* of doing a thing is rather more important than the result, has long been a powerful motive in French government and society, and it has a great deal to do with producing the Parisian duel. That duel has now reached a point where it proves nothing whatever, not even the physical courage of the combatants, because it is fought under a rule which makes any wound, however slight, destructive of the needful equality of conditions, and therefore the close of the fight. It is only by gross carelessness or accident, therefore, that French duels are ever fatal or even serious, as they are nearly always fought with swords. But they are never fought without the publication in the newspapers of a "procès verbal," or record of the proceedings, drawn up by the seconds, which is the real reason why they are ever fought at all. A secret or private duel, of which no account was ever printed, would be repugnant to the feelings of most Frenchmen to the last degree, and if the law struck at this publication, it would probably do twice as much as it can do or has ever done for the extirpation of duelling by enacting penalties for the fighting or witnessing. In other words, duels are fought in France, as so many other things are done, mainly for the sake of the notoriety.

The South is now the only civilized country, in fact, in which duels are fought by all classes, not to prove or disprove anything, because nobody really believes in the physical cowardice of Southern men, but to kill, or in-

flict grievous bodily harm. For this reason even fighting Europeans shrink from duels with duelling Americans. Europeans do not wish to kill or be killed, or even to wound, but to be talked about, and look on American duels, therefore, as savage encounters in which a gentleman should hardly be expected to engage.

From all this it may be gathered, indirectly at least, and in a general way, what we think about the means of getting young Southerners to give up fighting with deadly weapons. The process must be the same there as in England, and Germany, and at the North, and it is a process for which there is no distinct formula. It is one into which nearly all civilizing agencies enter in a greater or less degree. What made men give up wearing swords and colored silk clothes in England? Why are witches no longer burnt? Why is capital punishment no longer inflicted for petty larceny? Why does a prisoner no longer have heavy weights put on his stomach when he refuses to plead to an indictment? Why are the Exchequer accounts no longer kept on a notched stick? Why are bulls no longer baited? Why are men and women no longer put in the pillory, and pelted by a mob with rotten eggs? Nobody can tell exactly why. In one way or another these things have come to seem so monstrous, or ridiculous, or absurd, that they have become practically impossible. In other words, that great aggregation of forces, both moral and mental, called civilization, has banished them from the world. Duelling at the South will go in the same way. It cannot be got rid of by an act of the Legislature, or a clever essay, or any patent contrivance whatever. It will perish under the growth of rational views of conduct and legislation.

THE PARK BENCHES.

As the worst of the spring is now over, and out-of-door life promises soon to have many attractions, we feel it our duty to direct our readers' attention to a social problem which recurs with every returning year, and yet remains unanswered. It relates to what may be called down-town park life. Everybody has noticed that the first effects of the increasing mildness of the weather on these places of rest and recreation is to fill them with a peculiar class. We do not mean the children, who may be observed in some of them playing hoop and top; these are evidently the same children who are to be met with at every hand, in the streets and avenues and in domestic circles, at church and at Barnum's. Nor do we mean the nurses, for a nurse is unmistakably a nurse, just as a man is a man, all the world over. Nor do we refer to the police, though the fondness of the police for park life, probably owing to its safety and innocence, is notorious. The class we refer to consists of the occupants of the benches. That the benches should be occupied is in itself, of course, nothing remarkable. That is the object of the city in placing them there. The strange thing is that from this time of year, on through the long New York summer and far into the fall, they are occupied by the same class. It is quite clear that the benchers, if we may call them so, are not the parents of the children in the parks, or the employers of the nurses, for they manifest no personal interest in the gambols of the one, nor do they direct the movements of the others. They are not laborers, for their time is evidently at their own disposal. Nor are they the owners of the houses in the neighborhood of the benches on which they sit. They take no part in the life around them beyond looking on at it. What they see appears to give them ample food for reflection through the livelong day. They seldom stir from their benches; at the same time their habits are not such as we usually associate with sedentary pursuits. A sedentary life suggests a fondness for reading, but the occupant of the benches reads very little when on duty in the park, whatever he may do elsewhere. When he does read, however, it is with a thoroughness and close, conscientious attention to the details of the words with which he is brought into contact, that contrasts in a very marked way with the hasty casual glance through the columns with which the ordinary professional man or man of business contents himself.

We have often wondered what subjects interest him most—whether he prefers the editorial page or the accounts of fights, murders, or fires, or reads everything indifferently. He hardly reads often or easily enough to be a type of the "general reader," whom Mr. Freeman declares plays such an important part in the development of American society. His occasional use of the newspaper, too, as a receptacle for the food which he sometimes brings with him, must greatly impair its value as "reading matter." His choice of a newspaper does not seem to be determined by political or partisan considerations, for he may be found sometimes engaged with newspapers as recklessly independent as the "octuple *Herald*," or again with issues of the strict party press. In fact, we have sometimes thought that reading was, with him, pursued, as we are told that art should be, for its own sake, and not for any coarse practical object like information or mental improvement. There is no marked peculiarity about his costume, which never offends against good taste by being ostentatious or gaudy. His clothes are usually dark in color, and are not new.

Who are they? Where do they come from? What do they live on? What are they waiting for? What becomes of them in winter? What gives them such a hold on the park benches that no other class attempts to interfere with their right to an exclusive occupation of them? They have, of course, no more exclusive legal right than any other class; but they have established a park-bench monopoly as complete and thoroughgoing as any to be found in the world—and established it without the aid of capital or any known political backing.

The rise and progress of this singular social phenomenon can only be explained by the fact that they appear to have what no other class in the community enjoys—absolute leisure. Foreigners have for generations complained of the sad effect on the American constitution and habit of mind of our unceasing toil, and at the same time have predicted that the time must come when a leisure class, such as is to be found in all old countries, would spring up here. Of course, reasoning from what they saw about them in England and other aristocratic countries, they thought that this leisure class when it made its appearance would be composed of old families, and even we ourselves used to be fond of attempting to detect the germs of such a new social order among the families of "Signers" and "Old New Yorkers." In this way we overlooked, as is so often the case with such speculations, the fact that a real American leisure class, unlike any known in Europe, was making its appearance under our very noses.

That the class we have been considering has many of the distinguishing marks of an aristocracy, is plain enough. In many respects they closely resemble the best part of the aristocracy of Great Britain. They are, in the first place, negligent with regard to dress—a trait which, when exhibited by the British titled visitor, is so puzzling to his American entertainer, but which really springs from an indifference to the opinion of others produced by a secure social position. Again, they are fond of an open-air life and simple pleasures. They are reserved and quiet in manner, and associate only with members of their own class. There is nothing surprising about their gradual occupation of the parks, for no leisure class has ever grown up in any country without parks. It may be said, however, that ours was the first to perceive that it made little difference who owned the parks, provided they obtained possession of the benches. What enabled them to do this was leisure—the fact that they had time to spare. The parks, of course, were not originally designed exclusively for them, but for "the people"—the whole mass of the population, from the humble newsboy to the lordly boss and the bloated millionaire—the people at large, who are generally represented as "rising in their might," but who are also severally and individually fond of sitting down for a quiet afternoon in the public places set apart by themselves for themselves. This old popular democratic theory of park life is undoubtedly still preserved in Central Park, but hardly a vestige of it remains in any of the parks in the lower part of the city. All these are in the hands of our leisure class. Time only can show whether they will want Central Park too. If they do, we have little doubt that they will get it. It is useless for the busy, occupied classes to attempt any struggle for their right to benches with a class that can—as Captain Williams says—devote "eighteen hours a day, every day in the week, right along," to its allotted task.

A very interesting and peculiar fact remains to be mentioned—that there is strong reason to believe that the winter habitat of the class which in summer occupies the park benches, is the Astor and other public libraries. It is not, however, for books that they go, so much as for a warm, comfortable place to spend the day, and a nicely warmed, sunshiny library is just the place that the leisure classes all over the world like to spend a considerable part of their time in. They generally take down a book from the shelves for form's sake, and sit dozing away the afternoon over it, dreaming, no doubt, of

the pleasant summer days to come, on the park benches. Curiously enough, too, it is said that they come in greater numbers every winter, and that they are silently but surely driving out the readers and students; so that it looks as if ultimately the libraries and possibly all the well-warmed public institutions in the city during the winter would fall into their exclusive possession and control, as the parks do in summer.

MR. BRADLAUGH ONCE MORE.

LONDON, April 26.

IT seems as if the House of Commons was never going to hear the last of the member for Northampton. Since the day, now nearly three years ago, when he came up to take his seat and asked to be permitted to make an affirmation instead of swearing the customary oath, the country has never been suffered to forget him, and the House has been standing on guard, so to speak, to repel him from its benches. It would be tedious to recapitulate the history of the contest, although your readers have doubtless forgotten its incidents, so I will only state the main stages through which it passed. His first request to be allowed to affirm was refused, but, subsequently, on the motion of the Government, he was allowed to affirm instead of swearing, and to take his seat at his own peril—that is to say, at the risk of incurring the penalties prescribed by statute for those who speak or vote without having taken either the oath or the affirmation which persons belonging to certain sects, who conscientiously object to an oath, are permitted to substitute. He did take his seat, he spoke and voted repeatedly. An action for the penalties was brought against him by one Clarke, a person put forward by Mr. Newdegate, member for Warwickshire, and in this action it was decided, firstly, that he had no legal right to affirm, and had therefore committed an offence; but secondarily, on appeal to the House of Lords, that the action could not be brought by a common informer, but only by the Attorney-General. This last point is a serious one for Mr. Newdegate, on whom it throws all his own costs; and Mr. Bradlaugh having brought an action against Mr. Newdegate for the legal offence called "maintenance" in supporting Clarke's action, has further thrown his own costs on Mr. Newdegate.

But his success in this, achieved only a few days ago, does not affect the main question settled two years ago, that he cannot under the existing law affirm. When that question was settled, in the early part of 1881, he offered to take the oath, but the majority of the House, recalling his previous declaration that the words which formed part of it, "so help me God," would not bind him, refused to permit him to swear, and, when he endeavored to enter the House, directed the Sergeant-at-Arms to remove him and keep him out. One evening he succeeded, by taking a New Testament in his hand up to the table before there was time to stop him, and repeating the words of the oath, in swearing himself in: but the House not only held this to be no due compliance with the law, but even expelled him as a punishment. Thereupon he went down again to Northampton, and was reëlected, presented himself once more, and was again refused permission to swear, the majority holding that his reëlection did not purge away the effects of his original statement that the oath did not carry with it to his mind a religious obligation. Thus the matter had got to a deadlock. He was a member for Northampton, but he could not, under the law as declared by the courts, make an affirmation, the House would not suffer him to take an oath, Northampton remained without its proper representative, a troublesome question continued to divide the country, and Mr. Bradlaugh's infidel opinions became more widely diffused, owing to the popularity which every one wins in England who is thought to have been unfairly treated.

The obvious way out of the difficulty was to pass an act either abolishing the Parliamentary oath altogether, or at least permitting any one who pleased to substitute an affirmation for it. This was the course which had been suggested by Sir Stafford Northcote, leader of the Conservative Opposition, when the question first arose in 1881. And when, after Mr. Bradlaugh's re election in 1882, it was clear that the House of Commons was determined to refuse to let him swear, it was the course taken by Mr. Labouchere, his colleague in the representation of Northampton, who brought in a bill for the purpose. This bill was at once opposed by the Tories, who, by "blocking" it (a form of obstruction permitted by the present Parliamentary rules), prevented it from reaching even the stage of second reading. This session the Government have themselves taken up the question. They were, of course, most unwilling to do so. Mr. Bradlaugh's writings, his speeches, his conduct, have made him an object of intense aversion to religious people, and indeed to the respectable classes generally, for, besides attacking Christianity, he has published books on other subjects which excite scarcely less feeling. The Roman Catholics, and many of the Nonconformists, dislike him as heartily as do the clergy of the Established Church, so that it is disagreeable and damaging for any Ministry to appear as his allies and the promoters of his claims. Besides, the passing of the Affirmation Bill must consume a good deal of time, and time is just what a Government can least spare. These considerations urged them to leave the question alone. But others not less urgent forced them to deal with it. Its mere existence as an unsolved problem reflected some discredit on them. It divided the Liberal party, and had exposed them to two or three defeats. It might cause the loss of seats at elections, for Mr. Bradlaugh might, if left unaided by the party, have taken his revenge on it by contesting boroughs where a Liberal and a Tory were already in the field, and so dividing the local Liberals as to bring the Tory in; and it would have been specially vexatious at a general election, because the Tories would have made out of it a not ineffective election cry, representing the Liberals as the friends of atheism and themselves as the protectors of religion.

Such are some of the grounds which induced Mr. Gladstone's Government to bring in the present measure, the debate upon whose second reading began on Monday last, the 23d, and may possibly continue for several nights, perhaps until these lines have reached your side of the Atlantic. The Ministerialists of course desire to abridge it, the Tories to spin it out, for Mr. Bradlaugh's case is by far the best piece of luck they have had during these three years of Liberal rule. Other promising questions have balked their hopes. The Ministry extricated themselves far better than was expected from the Irish crisis of last spring and from the Egyptian expedition of last summer. They have retained upon nearly every other matter the loyalty of their supporters in Parliament. Only on this subject has their party in Parliament repeatedly split asunder; only on this is any large section of their following in the country secretly vexed, if not openly disaffected. Hence the Tories, disappointed in so many other hopes, cling to Mr. Bradlaugh as their tower of strength. He has never failed them. His appearance on the scene has always brought annoyance if not disaster to the Government. He is, to use their favorite metaphor, a fox who may be hunted any number of times and give just as good sport the next time. Hence they see with alarm the prospect of a settlement of the question by his admission, and are resolved to get all they can out of his case before he is finally admitted. The longer the topic is debated, so much the more will the country, in their view, be disgusted, and so much the deeper will the stain of sympathy with Mr. Bradlaugh be, as they say, rubbed in to the Liberals. It is therefore their intention to prolong the discussion, an intention which they avow the more freely because it would be impossible to apply the new rule for closing a debate, since the Government would be unwilling to discredit that rule by employing it for the first time in a question of this nature.

So far the debate has been hollow and dull, nor can the question appear to the eye of an observer outside England one of any real importance. If it really involved the admission of persons not Christians, or not theists, to full political rights, it would be a question of principle, and a very grave one. But till Mr. Bradlaugh appeared on the scene, nobody ever thought of raising such a question. Mr. John Stuart Mill and other persons who had written books opposed to Christianity, and even to theism, have sat in the House of Commons. Such persons sit in it now. No one proposes to exclude them; and, indeed, when Lord Redesdale last session brought into the House of Lords a bill for establishing a theological test, it was laughed out of that conservative but practical assembly. This, therefore, is not the true issue, although, of course, people on the Continent of Europe are inclined to think so, and to applaud or decry us accordingly. What is curious about the matter is, that being really such a small matter, so purely personal, so accidental, so to speak, and unrooted in any principle, it should nevertheless have made, and be making, so great a noise, have caused, and be still causing, the waste of so much precious time. I must, therefore, try to explain how this comes to pass, and what are the motives and feelings of those who openly oppose or reluctantly support the Government bill.

Three different influences have been at work. The first is mere hostility to Mr. Gladstone's Government and a desire to seize every occasion of injuring it and him. It is quite natural that an occasion like this should be seized; and the Opposition would approach nearer to the nature of angels than political partisans do, either here or with you, if they forbore. The second is real religious feeling — the idea that somehow or other Christianity and the recognition of the Deity are bound up with the well-being of the country, or are, as some people put it, part of the common law and ancient constitution of the realm. To strike out of the Parliamentary oath all recognition of the Supreme Being seems to them dishonoring to him, a breach of national allegiance like those recorded of the Israelites in the Old Testament. And, thirdly, there is a strong dislike of Mr. Bradlaugh personally, and a notion that in this matter an undignified concession is being made to him. "After all," they say, "the bill is brought in on his account. If it were not for him, we should never have heard of the matter. Who is he that the nation should legislate expressly on his behalf? and what is the constituency of Northampton that, in disgracing itself by such a choice, it should try to disgrace the whole of England? We do not object to the presence of Mr. J. S. Mill and others like him, when they come in quietly and do not

flaunt their infidelity, but we do object to throwing down the venerable entrenchments of the Constitution in order that this man may march in triumph over them."

These two latter lines of feeling have, of course, told upon those whose hostility was in the first instance due to party motives. They have made the great bulk of the Tory party satisfied that they are doing good service, and heartily jubilant in their resistance. It is now to them an honorable—one may say a patriotic—resistance. And such feelings are shared by many who are not Tories, who are either Liberals or neutrals, and whom party motives would have rather led to support Mr. Gladstone. Confidence in him is strong enough to keep them comparatively quiet; but some blame him, and many more would like to do so. In Scotland, for instance, which is ardently Gladstonian, not only the Presbyteries of the Established Church, whose clergy are largely Conservative, but those of the Free Church also, which are even more largely Liberal, have petitioned against the bill. Of the English Wesleyan Methodists, more than seven hundred ministers are said to have signed to the same effect. The other Nonconformist bodies, and particularly the Congregationalists and Baptists, are with the Government, because they hold that the state has nothing to do with religion at all. Yet even among their members there are a good many who dislike the line which logical consistency forces them to take. So far are men or peoples from being governed by principles, or accepting the conclusions which flow from their previous acts. Four years ago no one would have opposed a proposition to enable agnostic members taking their seats in Parliament to make an affirmation, just as agnostic witnesses in a court of justice do. And now we have a fierce political agitation over this very matter.

The Government, anxious to appease discontent as far as they could, have lightened their ship by undertaking that the bill shall not be retrospective—*i. e.*, that it shall apply only to members hereafter elected, so that Mr. Bradlaugh will have to go to Northampton once more for reëlection. It is thought that by this concession they will secure a few waverers, and that the bill will be carried by a fair majority. However, this will not end the matter. The House of Lords will be strongly tempted to reject the bill, and any considerable defection from the Ministerial ranks will give it a fair pretext for doing so. Y.

EMPEROR WILHELM'S MESSAGE ON BIENNIAL SESSIONS.

BERLIN, April 21.

IN really constitutional countries the person of the monarch is conscientiously excluded from any interference with the political strife of the day. "Le roi," said M. Thiers, some forty or fifty years ago, "règne, mais il ne gouverne pas." With us the Emperor not only reigns and governs, but is also used as a shield for and by his Chancellor, whenever the latter sees fit, to fortify his policy. Thus, on comparatively insignificant occasions, the Emperor is induced to publish a message, in which he explains his, or rather Bismarck's, personal views, or gives advice and direction to the Reichstag on its routine business. People here have nearly become accustomed to these patriarchal dealings, and to the more or less sentimental strains which the Chancellor composes for his master. Thus the last imperial message, which on the 14th inst. was sent to the Reichstag, created little excitement. The solemn form employed was quite out of proportion to the end which it wished to reach.

In my opinion it is a frivolous play, that never ought to have been resorted to. The Chancellor's object is really too transparent. He wants to convince the people that the Reichstag does not fully attend to its work, that it squanders its best time in party quarrels, and that the Emperor must even remind it of its duties. Now, each legislative body is the best judge of the methodical performance of its business. Whatever the shortcomings of the Reichstag may be in other respects, it is an assembly of faithful and industrious public men, who work diligently, without any fee or salary, and who in their majority are opposed to that dilettantism which manifests itself in Bismarck's social-political schemes, such as the accident assurance plan and the compulsory act for nursing and supporting sick workingmen. He insists upon their immediate passage, for he apprehends that the death of the old Emperor, or some unforeseen accident, may deprive him of all the fruits of his endeavors. The Chancellor overlooks the fact that in monarchies, more than under any other form of government, there prevails a continuity in the development of public affairs. In losing sight of this fact he slights the Crown Prince. Besides, he wishes to get rid of the control of the Reichstag as much as possible. Some years ago, as you will remember, he proposed biennial sessions of the Reichstag—a proposal which was of course rejected. Last session he again tried to attain this object. He brought in a budget for two successive years. The Reichstag ignored that for 1884–1885, and adopted only that for the present fiscal year, viz., from April 1, 1883, to March 31, 1884. A few days ago Bismarck sent in a new draft of the budget for 1884–1885, justifying this extraordinary proceeding with the remark, that the present fiscal year having commenced with April 1, it could make no difference to the Reichstag whether it debated the new budget now or later in the session. But in reality, the fact is that the later a budget is taken into consideration (within the legal limits of the Constitution, of course), the better it is, as the several items of income and expense can best be fixed and estimated at the close of the preceding year. The imperial message, therefore, had to advise the Reichstag to pass the budget for 1884–1885 at once, under the pretext that by so doing it would be enabled to devote its time next winter exclusively to the discussion and passage of the Government's social-political bills.

Now, it would have been a very easy thing for the Chancellor to avoid delays and hindrances, if he had not troubled the Reichstag with the reconsideration of measures which had been once rejected, such as the duty on tobacco; if he had not brought in bills which on account of their inadequacy he was finally compelled to withdraw; if he had not detained the Reichstag with crude and badly drafted bills; and, last not least, if he had not convoked the Landtag too late, so that the Prussian Legislature stood and still stands in the way of the German Reichstag. The question now is, how will the latter act? It is a pity that of its own initiative it will not act at all. Under the impression caused by the extraordinary step taken by the Emperor, a great many Liberals proposed to answer the message with an address in which both the open and the sly attacks of the Chancellor should be refuted, and the situation of public affairs represented in its true light. The left wing of the Liberals, viz., the Progressists and Secessionists, were in favor of this policy, but the National Liberals refused to join them, thus making a majority impossible. The united Conservatives are decidedly opposed to an address, as well as the Ultramontanes, who are still waiting for a bid from the Chancellor. He is now the master of the situation, and can dictate his terms. The great majority of his opponents will come over to his side and bide his pleasure. "Why not discuss the budget for 1884–1885?" asks one of them. "To have done so before April 1st would have involved the violation of a principle, but to do so now is a mere matter of expediency; let us therefore enter at once upon the discussion of the budget." "The social-political problems are of such enormous importance," says another, "that the sooner they are passed the better it will be for all." "The Emperor is old," says a third party; "his demands are just; let us comply with his wishes." "We cannot risk the dissolution of the Reichstag," says a fourth party. In short, they almost all, with the exception of the left wing of the Liberals, yield to Bismarck's dictates, and draw the triumphal car of the powerful Chancellor, while the press joins in the chorus.

One of the worst consequences of this servile submission to him is the injury which it inflicts upon parliamentism. Bismarck, imbued as he is with bitter hatred of the middle classes, wishes nothing better than to debase it, and now those who are called upon to represent the people voluntarily help him. Though it is impossible to annihilate the germs of our constitutional life, for the time being it will be crippled and reduced to insignificance by the Chancellor's arbitrary and despotic manner. A dissolution of the Reichstag would have been the lesser of two evils, just as a cheerful war is preferable to a stagnant marasm. Whether willingly or unwillingly, the German Reichstag and the Prussian Landtag, which are once more holding their sessions side by side, have to perform the task imposed upon them by Bismarck, and to submit to his hurrying them through the most important measures. Problems which have exacted the closest study and attention from the scholars and statesmen of all ages neither can nor ought to be settled within a few weeks. The end will correspond to the beginning. † † †

Correspondence.

DUELLING AND CIVILIZATION IN FRANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Please give us something on the relations in which French duelling stands to French civilization and to civilization in general. The question of Southern homicides is by no means exhausted. The thing had perhaps gone far enough on the line you and your correspondents were travelling, but there are somewhat different points of view from which it might be useful to look at it. *How* are Southern gentlemen, young gentlemen especially, to be brought to look at duelling in all its forms, regular and irregular, as all the civilized world—the French *passim*, German students and army officers, some English army and navy fogies, etc., etc., excepted—look at it? There is not a man alive who would be more pleased to see them brought into that state of salvation than I; but how is the thing to be brought about? Do you not see that we must give up some of our dearest prejudices (are we to be better than Yankees in *nothing*?), and are not our best virtues—at least the distinctive ones—intertwined with these prejudices and traditions?

We are not specially strong at analysis. Self-analysis, deliberately made with a view to reconstruction of one's self, is not the easiest and most popular chemistry in these latitudes. Suppose you attack the problem from the *far* end—start on the other side of the world, or at some

tolerably remote point of time, when somebody else, who has since acquired some sweetness and light, was weltering in this slough. *Quien sabe?* We might be caught in the net of your gospel (it is my gospel, too), in spite of our aversion to philanthropic missionaries, especially when their story comes wafted on the wings of a northeast wind. These winds, while powerfully tonic, have been at times almost too energetic in their alterative action to be quite safe for a patient so chronically diseased as the Southern man benighted. Do not, I beg you, cast us quite away. Though we have done you such despite as my unhappy friend Bierne of the Richmond *State*, and some others, I can assure you that nearly everybody whose opinion you would value at one groat's worth credits you with perfect honesty and kind intention as well.

This scribble has been prompted by the paragraph, "According to *La Réforme Sociale*," etc., middle column, page 341, No. 929 of your excellent paper, of which I have not missed reading three numbers since it was started, eighteen years ago.

Faithfully yours, C. J. HARRIS.

LEXINGTON, VA.

CATHOLIC CASUISTRY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, Boyd Vincent, whose remarkable letter I was surprised to see in the *Nation* of the 3d instant, had probably never heard of, much less seen and read, Father Ryder's 'Catholic Controversy,' a reply to Dr. Littledale's 'Plain Reasons.' If he had, he certainly could not in good faith have made the declaration that he did, and quoted Dr. Littledale in proof. I am not surprised to know that he "was not able to verify Dr. Littledale's references." If he had had Liguori's writings by him, he would have been able to determine for himself the full extent of Dr. Littledale's disingenuousness in quoting Liguori's teachings in moral theology. Your sense of fairness will, I am sure, allow me to quote from Father Ryder in answer to Dr. Littledale's misrepresentations. Pages 163, 164, New York edition, Father Ryder says:

"Amongst various instances of immoral doctrine St. Alfonso teaches, Dr. Littledale says: (1) 'That the actual assassins of a man are not equally guilty with their instigators, whom he admits to incur excommunication.' (Theol. Mor. iv. 394.) On the contrary, St. Alfonso never attempts to compare the guilt of the two parties. What he says is that the employers ('mandantes') alone are excommunicated because so runs the particular decree of excommunication in question, and we must not extend the penalty beyond the letter. He accounts for the actual assassins not being included in the decree by the very sufficient reason that, in the case contemplated by the decree, the assassins were infidels, and so not possible subjects for excommunication. (2) 'If A murder B, in order that C may be suspected, and thereby suffer loss of any kind, A is not bound to make C any compensation unless he be a worthy person' (iv., 587). Now, there is nothing on the subject of homicide at Dr. Littledale's reference No. 587, but at No. 586 the question is put, and you are referred for the solution to No. 636, and there St. Alfonso maintains that however A may have *intended* the murder to be imputed to C, if in fact he has done nothing to *cause* that imputation, he cannot be regarded as 'efficax causa damni,' and so as obliged to compensation. Of course, the presumption is entirely against the murderer. It is a thousand to one that he has done something to cause the imputation; but if he has not, following the case out *speculative*, you cannot impute to him what, *ex hypothesi*, he did not do. The little clause 'unless the person be worthy' is a gratuitous and absurd importation by Dr. Littledale from No. 587, where a quite other question is discussed, viz., that of the obligation of one who has prevented another by unfair means from obtaining a benefit. He is bound, the Saint says, to compensate in proportion to the expectations frustrated, provided only the intended subject *was worthy of the benefit*. This clause Dr. Littledale has inserted in the question of imputed murder asked in No. 586 and discussed in No. 636, whilst omitting the vital point that A is supposed to have had nothing to do with the imputation upon C beyond creating the fact imputed, viz., the murder, and mentally intending it should be imputed."

Again:

"Dr. Littledale's charges (4) (5) and (6) all fall under one category: St. Alfonso's allowance, under certain circumstances, of equivocation, even supported by an oath. What Dr. Littledale omits to tell us is that such equivocation is only admitted in defence of an undoubted right which the questioner is seriously invading. The right to plead 'not guilty,' acknowledged in our law, St. Alfonso maintains to be, under certain circumstances, a natural right. Where the questioner has a right to the truth, there the equivocation is forbidden; where, as far as the rights of the questioner are concerned, a lie is lawful, then, out of reverence for God's verbal currency, which, to most modern Englishmen, appears fantastic, *literal* truth is laboriously preserved. Where St. Alfonso would allow of equivocation, his Protestant critics would, in all probability, lie clumsily; that is about the difference between them."

I should think it was about time for our intelligent Protestant friends to stop taking the opinions of St. Liguori at second hand. Certainly, they ought to take for granted that a "doctor" of the Catholic Church is not likely to be either a fool or a knave.

H. LIVINGSTON RICHARDS.

WINCHESTER, MASS., May 6, 1883.

UNIVERSITY HONOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The letter entitled "University Honor, North and South," suggested the thought that such confidence between instructor and student is not entirely confined to the southern half of the Union. In our own institution it is not at all uncommon for a member of the Faculty to leave the lecture-room during an examination; students having special examinations frequently work, during the allotted two hours, entirely alone in the professor's study, with books of reference filling the shelves; and generally the instructor attends examinations to explain and direct rather than to detect. There have been almost no cases of dishonesty.

The simple fact is that in the West young men still *go* to college—are not *sent*. The average age seems to be higher than at the East. With our 581 students this year, including normals and those in the sub-freshman classes, it is over nineteen years. Of the present Senior class of twenty, nearly all have done something toward their own support, and at least half of them have been entirely self-supporting. Such do not need watching.

Bodily health and strength, maturity in years and in thought, independence and self-reliance, integrity of character, a longing for knowledge, no dormitories to breed mischief, and sixteen years of radical co-education without even a whisper of scandal—these are the things in which we rejoice. JAMES H. CANFIELD.

UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS, April 30.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. W. Gordon McCabe, of the University School, has admirably replied to the communications of Mr. Jameson and "X.," in regard to the code of honor in our colleges, but there yet remains the easy task of refuting the insulting insinuation of the gentleman from Delaware.

Mr. Stearns seems so anxious to assign selfish motives for the *esprit de corps* of the students of the University of Virginia, that he imagines that a spirit of rivalry for place makes the men indignant at any unfair advantage taken by one of their fellows.

The mere fact that there is no competition whatever in the University of Virginia, nor in any other institution on the elective plan, that I am aware of, would seem to destroy the gentleman's theory. There is a competitive entrance examination for all who choose to try for the eleven scholarships, but after a man has entered the University, his only motive for study must be his own desire to avail himself of the opportunities. All who attain the required standard of distinction are on an equal footing, and no jealousies can possibly arise. Thus how any particular man comes by his degree is a matter of no moment to his fellow-students, so he comes by it honestly. But when he is found to fall below the standard of a gentleman, then the students consider him unfit to remain, and are selfish enough to deny the society of gentlemen to one who is unable to appreciate its value.

The very fact that a youth knows that he is watched seems to make him desirous of eluding that watch. At the Naval School in Annapolis, where a system of espionage is most rigid, there is probably more cheating than anywhere else in America. But even here it is confined to the men from the North. I have had very good opportunities for observing, and I have never yet heard of a Southern man condescending to such baseness even in that institution, where the majority countenance it. They are frequently the wildest of the set, but they esteem their honor sacred because their training has made the feeling instinctive.

I, of course, agree with "X." that "to err is human," but I believe that the average college student in the South is more free from the meanness of lying and cheating than is usually the case. The spirit of the North is so pushing and business-like that the youth naturally become imbued with the idea that the accomplishment is the main point, and the means of very secondary importance. That they may excel is frequently the one absorbing idea, and they shrink not from the commercial qualities which have rendered the wooden nutmeg so famous to accomplish it. On the contrary, the South is more indolent, and what it lacks in success it makes up in pride. Southern chivalry is proverbial, and the youth of gentle nurture who attend our colleges, having been trained from infancy by the examples and precepts of honor, hate cheating worse than they do Satan, and fear a lie more than their Maker.

Repudiation is indeed a reproach to us, but when one recognizes by what class repudiation was carried, and in what estimation they are held by the honest and upright of the community, our shame should be sufficient punishment. That a majority of ignorant negroes, led by reprobate white men, should have sinned thus, should not be imputed as a crime to the people of worth who deplore it.

I am, with high respect, truly yours, L.

PETERSBURG, VA., May 6, 1883.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to me unfortunate that the discussion of this question should have commenced with a comparison between the two sections of the country, instead of between the colleges themselves, whether North or South. If any particular college or colleges pursue any system of examinations especially well calculated to develop in the students a keener sense of honor, let the merits of such a system be stated independently of all considerations of locality. The good in the one will not be increased in value because of the defects in the other, while the prejudice raised by the comparison may prevent many from acknowledging or adopting it. They naturally reply, By their fruits shall ye judge

them. You cannot separate university honor from society honor. The moral sentiment of the school will be reflected in the State. Wherever you find the best laws impartially administered, the greatest security for life and property, you may be sure that the students of that locality are being well trained in those elements which make honorable men.

The fact that the students resort to personal violence to show their disapprobation of cheating, does not prove in them a higher sense of honor in the South than in the North. The North believes in peaceful, legal methods of redress. They believe it far better for the college and community to hand over all offenders to the proper tribunals for trial, than establish the hasty arbitrary punishment of personal violence, so liable to commit a greater wrong than the one it would redress. In the legal way a man may not always receive the punishment deserved, yet in the long run each one of us is much surer of having meted out to him the full awards due, both of good and evil. When one's blood is hot, one's mind is not in the best condition to do even-handed justice

I repeat: if either section of the country has any particular merits in its educational system worthy of imitation, let them be stated simply for what they are worth, without drawing odious comparisons, keeping alive the differences of the past. Rather let us each try to see what there is good in every section, forgetting there is a North or South. Time and commerce, with a little help from each one of us, will obliterate the line.

E. G.

Boston, May 7, 1883.

CONVICT INDEXING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To my claim that indexing is work worthy of the painstaking efforts of the best and most cultured intelligence, "W. M. G.," in your last issue, offers no rebuttal, and I cannot see the *raison d'être* of his communication. If I do not misread the initials, 'twere strange indeed if "W. M. G." were willing to admit that indexing is only an "humble, though useful, drudgery." But I feel called upon to notice two of his assertions: 1. "'W. I. F.' assumes that convict labor is unskilled and bungling." No, not that; I simply say that it lacks *brains* and *heart*, and that indexing which shows neither intelligence in nor love for the work is fairly called convict indexing. 2. ". . . Errors equally singular have been pointed out in your columns as appearing in 'Poole'" "W. M. G." appears to forget that the indexing in Poole is not mainly the work of its editors. If some of the collaborators, sharing Mr. Browne's heresy, farmed out their share of the work, no wonder if some results of the convict system of indexing appear in the completed work. But I am quite willing that the contrast between the "convict" and the "professional" systems of indexing should stand or fall by the results of a comparison of "Poole" with any of the indexes I cited in my previous note, with regard not to frequency of "errors" (a minor point), but rather to efficiency and practical value as an index. And at the same time I wish to appeal to the candor of "W. M. G." himself, whether this sentence of his as to "errors equally singular" is not an overstatement. I am, etc.,

W. I. F.

Hartford, Ct., May 4, 1883.

Notes.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press a new 'Memoir of S. S. Prentiss,' by Joseph D. Shields; 'Our Young Folks' Plutarch'; and a 'Manual of Microscopic Diagnosis,' by Dr. Henry F. Formad.

'Dynamic Sociology' is the title of a work, by Lester F. Ward, of the Statistical Department at Washington, to be published shortly by D. Appleton & Co. It is a thoroughgoing argument in favor of paternal government, or the largest possible intervention and control by the state.

Richard A. Proctor's 'Mysteries of Time and Space,' consisting of his lectures to American audiences, is announced by R. Worthington.

A 'Dictionary of Boston' is about to be issued by Moses King, Cambridge. The editor is a Boston journalist, Mr. Edward M. Bacon, and the work will comprise some 500 pages. Dr. George E. Ellis furnishes an historical introduction.

Ginn, Heath & Co., Boston, add the following to their recent list of new books: 'The Moral and Religious Training of Children,' by G. Stanley Hall, Lecturer on Pedagogy, Harvard University; a 'Primer of Geology,' by Prof. Nathaniel S. Shaler; a 'Sanskrit Reader,' by Prof. Charles Rockwell Lanman; and 'A Science of Mind,' by President Seelye, of Amherst

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately 'The Reformation in Sweden: its Rise, Progress, and Crisis, and its Triumph under Charles IX.,' by C. M. Butler, D.D., Professor of Ecclesiastical History in the Divinity School of the Protestant Episcopal Church, Philadelphia.

Mrs. Harriet H. Robinson has brought out a second edition of her well-written 'Massachusetts in the Woman-Suffrage Movement,' originally published rather more than two years ago (Boston: Roberts Bros.). She gives proof of her sincere endeavor by extensive revisions in accordance with accomplished facts, or with the better knowledge of some of her critics, particularly of Mr. T. W. Higginson. But she also fortifies some of her statements which have been impugned, in a supplement to the appendix. The addenda altogether fill 14 pages, and are valuable. Early suffrage literature, the National Woman-Suffrage Association of Massachusetts (a branch of the Stanton-Anthony organization), the State legislation for women in 1881-2, the yeas and nays on woman suffrage in the Legislature (a reactionary record), a table of employments for women, and woman's position in school matters throughout the Union, are the new topics. Between the two editions a law has been passed overcoming the judicial decision against admitting women to the bar; and even as we write, the initial steps are being taken for a constitutional amendment permitting women to be appointed notaries public and justices of the peace. A typographical error of "be" for "by" still lurks on p. 115, line 8.

What most of our juvenile magazines do incidentally is the sole object of *Mastery*, just begun to be issued weekly at 842 Broadway, New York. It is "devoted to home handicrafts, household affairs, nature-study, manual arts, experimental science, rural sports, and other entertaining employments for young people." These departments are fairly represented in the first number, which is well printed and illustrated. The editor's aim is serious, and his selections show tact even if his own writing appears a little too elevated in style for his audience.

Our British cousins are still the inventors for the race in forms of periodical literature. *Merry England* (of which the International News Company are the American agents) is in several respects an original conception. Typographically, it has a broad, open page, without columns, and a pretty innovation is the bracketing of subject and author, as a sort of subordinate running-title, to left or right of the name of the magazine. The aim is novel—to restore merriment to England by comforting and elevating the laboring classes; at least, this appears to be the sum of the editorial "manifesto." Mr. Saintsbury's opening paper on the "Young England Party" serves to connect the socialistic purpose just mentioned with the worship of Lord Beaconsfield, who is commemorated in an etched frontispiece and in some absurd verses on "Primrose Day." Mr. Kegan Paul's "The Rustic of George Eliot and Thomas Hardy," and Mr. Alan S. Cole's "Plea for Health Guilds," are the most important articles in the first number of *Merry England*.

President Andrew D. White's discourse last summer on "The New Germany" is printed in Bulletin No. 4, 1882, of the New York Geographical Society, just issued. We say last summer, because such is our recollection, but, with the slovenliness characteristic of these publications, there is nothing to show when, where, or why the speaker delivered this address.

L'Esplorazione (March-April) reviews a work by Prof. G. Marinelli, of the University of Padua, on the superficial area of Italy, in which the author controverts the figure arrived at by General Strebiltsky (in his authoritative discussion of the European area) as being too small. At the time when the peninsula was under consideration, the maps at the Russian statistician's command were much inferior to those now available, but the upshot of the controversy is that Italy is still so badly mapped that Professor Marinelli calls for a Government trigonometrical survey, and, in the meantime, for a fresh planimetric reduction like that of Strebiltsky's, with the superior advantages of the present day. He thinks Italians ought to blush to be told that after twenty-two years of unity their country is unable to inform the nations what its extent is.

We have received from the Department of Agriculture of South Carolina a map of the State on a scale of ten miles to the inch. The agricultural and mineral resources of South Carolina, its water power, and cotton factories are indicated by conventional signs, and an ingenious coloring of the townships shows the preponderating race as "over 50 per cent. white," "over 40 per cent. white," and "under 40 per cent. white." The coast line includes Wilmington, N. C., and Savannah, Ga. A section from Charleston to Ridgeway shows the strata pierced by the artesian well, 1,970 feet deep, at the former city.

The graphic 'American Grain and Provision Chart' (New York: Wemple & Co.) expresses the crop quantities and their variations by colored areas. In many cases the figures also are retained, and the chart would have been still more serviceable if they had been retained in all. The crops of corn, wheat, and oats for all the larger grain States, the number of hogs packed yearly, and the exports of all the cereal products are thus represented to the eye, and the fluctuations in their respective prices throughout the past five years, both in Chicago and New York, are given diagrammatically with detail and clearness. The data are taken from official sources since 1877. During this quinquennial period Illinois, for instance, has twice led every other State in her crop of wheat, four times in her corn crop, and in oats every year. Kansas has increased her wheat crops by eighty per cent., and her corn crops by sixty-six per cent., since 1879, gaining but a trifle in her oat crop, while this in Missouri has been doubled, and the wheat crop but slightly increased. For the chief grain-producing countries of the world the comparative crops of wheat and corn are shown by a compact diagram. Its unit, representing 1,000,000 quarters (8,000,000 bushels), is a square, colored blue for wheat and red for corn. The American wheat crop shows 62¼ of these

squares, the Indian 42, the French 40, the Russian 26, the Austrian 16½, the German 14, and New Zealand closes the list with one blue square.

Three papers will attract attention in the *American Journal of Science* for May. One is Mr. J. C. Smock's "Surface Limit or Thickness of the Continental Glacier in New Jersey and Adjacent States"; another is Mr. C. G. Rockwood, jr.'s, "Notes on American Earthquakes," chiefly for 1882, but going back also as far as 1879, and so offering some comparisons with those recorded for 1878–81 in the following paper by Dr. Streets, U. S. N., whose field is Japan; and still another is the second part of Messrs. Gray and Trumbull's review of De Candolle's 'Origin of Cultivated Plants.' All true Yankees will welcome this botanic-antiquarian vindication of the pumpkin as indigenous to America. *Asquash*, says Mr. Trumbull, is the plural of the Algonkin word *asq*, and means "green things" or (to be eaten) "immature," according to the Indian practice.

In *Science* for May 4, Mr. W. H. Pickering, carrying out a suggestion made by Professor Brewer, of Yale, constructs the curve of the progress of the trotting-horse in America, and finds that it will cross the mile-in-two-minutes line about the year 1901. He also deduces, from statistics prepared by the same authority, the conclusion that at the date mentioned there will be not far from 10,000 horses in this country which can trot a mile in 2:30 or better. In the news department it is stated that Williams College has secured the right to a table at Dr. Anton Dohrn's famous Naples zoölogical station, and holds it for any fit American worker (not necessarily a graduate of Williams), on condition of getting in return a course of lectures from the beneficiary. This example is valuable for all our colleges, and deserves to be classed with the scheme which gave us the American School at Athens.

Mr. Frederick Billings, who bought in September last the library of the late George P. Marsh, has just presented it formally to the University of Vermont, at the same time making the liberal gift of $75,000 for the erection of a fire-proof building for the college library. Mr. Billings is a graduate of the University.

It appears from the last Johns Hopkins University circular that the Sidney Lanier Memorial Fund amounted to $6,250, of which Baltimore contributed more than two-thirds. It has been put at interest for the benefit of the poet's family.

The "Parish Institutions of Maryland, with illustrations from Parish Records," by Edward Ingle, forms the sixth of the valuable Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science. The author acknowledges his indebtedness for a part of his sources to the rich collection available in the library left by the late Bishop Whittingham to the diocese of Maryland.

A year ago (February, 1882) President Garrett, of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, bore the cost of certain free lectures by instructors of the Johns Hopkins University to the employees of the road in Baltimore. The subjects were "How Skulls and Backbones are Built," "How we Move," "Fermentation," and "Some Methods of Locomotion in Animals"; and the lecturers, Prof. H. Newell Martin, and Drs. Henry Sewall, Wm. T. Sedgwick, and Wm. K. Brooks. Mr. Garrett has since had these familiar talks printed for gratuitous distribution among his employees, substituting excellent wood-engravings for the lecturers' diagrams.

The ninth year's issue of permanent prints by the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London offers for the usual guinea charge twelve views, to wit: three of Lambeth Palace—the Gate-House, the Great Hall, the Lollards' Tower; an old house in the Palace Yard, Lambeth; two old houses, Aldgate; another, Great Ormond Street, and still another, Queen Square, Bloomsbury; two buildings, Nos. 37, 73, Cheapside; "The Golden Axe," St. Mary Axe; and a shop on Macclesfield Street, Soho. Three of the structures thus commemorated, including the inn, are no longer standing. No one who has enjoyed inspection or, still better, ownership of this invaluable series, need be assured of the worth of the forthcoming instalment. Subscriptions are payable in advance to Mr. Alfred Marks, Long Ditton, Surrey; and back sets are still procurable.

Grave and gay are mingled in the April *Le Livre*, Arsène Houssaye's concluding article on the miserable end of Gérard de Nerval being preceded by Champfleury's account of Daumier as an illustrator of books. Both papers have illustrations in keeping with the tone of each.

Every one knows that the Bostonians are said by the English to say that they speak better English than the English themselves. If it is so, they may soon put forward a similar claim in regard to French; for the language of Montaigne and Molière, or, to come nearer to date, the language of Victor Hugo, appears to be rapidly fading out in Paris, and giving place not merely to the argot which we find in Du Boisgobey and Gaboriau and Zola and his naturalists, or to such coinages as *pschutt;* but to a new dialect composed in part of English words adopted entire, and partly of words which their users fancy to be English. "Reporters," "performance," "high-life," "ball-trap," "gun-club," "handicap," belong to the one class; "matchs," "punch-conference," "shooters-sterling," "waterbull"—which we do not profess to understand—belong to the other. Happily many of these importations or inventions will be as short-lived as a new fashion in bonnets, so that it may, after all, be some time before the French of Stratford-atte-Bowe, or of Ascot and the Derby, will be exactly the same as that of Paris.

The *Deutsche Revue* has published an interesting statistical table on the German universities. The number of students has increased in the last ten years from 15,000 to 24,000. Is this the effect of peace after war? The number of students in our own universities increased in the same way immediately after the civil war. In another series of tables, beginning with 1830, the writer shows that there are rather fewer lawyers, but rather more doctors in proportion, than there were half a century ago. But the great change is in the gain of the faculty of philosophy—that is, the faculty of all that is not law, medicine, or theology—and the loss of theology. Protestant theological students have fallen from 28 to 12 per cent., and the Catholics from 11 to 3 per cent. We could furnish some similar figures in this country, if we were allowed to count independent professional schools and not merely those attached to universities.

—In the April number of the *Magazine of American History*, Dr. J. F. Jameson, of the Johns Hopkins University, has a paper upon "Montauk and the Common Lands of Easthampton." The survivals of land community in New England—and Montauk Point once belonged to New England—present an interesting and important subject of study. Dr. H. B. Adams, of the same University, has examined several instances of it, and our readers will recollect the description of such a system in Nantucket in the *Nation* for January 10, 1878. The Easthampton system is not unlike that of Nantucket, but is less complicated; the territory in question is considerably less extensive, and the number of great divisions (fields) of course fewer. There were five or six of these—great plain, eastern plain, Accabonack meadows, etc.—and a single share, as described in the records, contained one or more allotments in each of these, besides home-lots (two in this case)—ten parcels in all, containing not far from sixty acres. "What is this," Mr. Jameson asks, "if we add the share in the common pastures, but the old Germanic hide, with common tillage abandoned?" The organization of "proprietors," as a distinct body from the citizens of the town, was kept up, as in many New England towns, but ceased to be of importance as early as 1748. There still remains one remnant of the common-land system, in that "it is generally supposed that a direct descendant of one of the old proprietors may permit his cow to feed by the roadside, while a new-comer may not." The land-community of Montauk, an extension of that of Easthampton, continued until 1879. Its history has a peculiar interest from the connection with the Indian population, which is related at some length.

— The May number of this magazine shows, under the new management, a much improved typography, and a noticeable increase in the number of illustrations, both woodcut and facsimile. The opening paper, from the editor's pen, begins a history of Wall Street in the popular style of her 'History of New York'; and it is fair to expect that Mrs. Lamb's predilection for this sort of narrative, with its pictorial antiquarian embellishment, will fix the standard for her collaborators. The most serious article in the present number is Mr. Horatio King's naïf "vindication" of President Buchanan's attitude toward the revolting South in the last days of his servile administration. A large part of it is devoted to proving that the *Constitution*—the Administration organ in Washington—was such an open advocate of secession and treason that it is hard to understand why the President hesitated so long to stop the paper by cutting it off from the Government advertising. The incident, of course, was perfectly characteristic. The rest is neither novel nor exculpatory. We would remind Mr. King that there is a much more serious charge against Mr. Buchanan than the vacillation caused by his life-long associations and unabated sympathy with the secessionists, and that is his consenting to let a member of his Cabinet go down to North Carolina and urge the State to secession. He will find it made on p. 526 of Clingman's 'Speeches,' and it would justify another article in "vindication," especially as the author of it is still in the flesh.

— The eighth volume of the Boston Record Commissioners reproduces the town records from 1700 to 1728, and, like the preceding, has valuable indexes of persons and subjects. The development of the town in this period is witnessed by the increasing solicitude as to fires (for the staying of which, in spite of a few engines, dependence was placed on blowing up houses with powder), as to interments, the depositing of garbage, and the draining of roofs, careless driving in the narrow ways, the perilous playing of certain games in the streets, such as foot-ball and "throwing the long bullet," etc. In 1708 it seemed desirable to define the streets in a permanent record, and Frogg Lane, Flownder Lane, Crab Lane, Mackrill Lane, Cow Lane, Beer Lane, Crooked Alley, Turnagaine Alley, and Paddey's Alley, were duly spread upon the minutes. In the same year need began to be felt of a charter of incorporation; in 1721 the first instructions were given to the town's representatives in the General Court. The first town clock was set up in 1717. In 1723 the Irish invasion first disturbed the municipal mind with fears lest the newcomers "become a town charge, or be otherwise preju-

dicial to the welfare and prosperity of the place." Schools began to multiply, John Foster's executors offering to build a free writing school (1717), and Thomas and Edward Hutchinson giving a grammar school and writing school (1719). A school committee was first proposed in 1709-10, "agreeably to the usage in England, and (as we understand) in some time past practised here," the clergy of course being included; "and at their said visitation, one of the ministers by turns to pray with the scholars and entertain 'em with some instructions of piety specially adapted to their age and education." In 1711 the custom was fully established, and the "Inspectors of the [Latin] school, and ministers of the town" were directed to consider a memorial praying that "some more easy and delightful methods" of teaching might be "there attended and put in practice," as "in some schools of Europe." Dogs, Indians, and mulattoes were a source of much anxiety when abroad. Fines were imposed (1701) on any person keeping "any curst or unruly dog or bitch within this town," to the harm of man, horse, neat cattle, sheep, or tame fowl. In 1728, "ordered that no person shall keep any dog or bitch to go at large within this town of Boston above ten inches high," the same being liable to be killed at sight by any of the inhabitants. The ordinances against Indians and blacks were stringent in the extreme, and cruel penalties betray the customary uneasiness of a slaveholding community. They could not be out after dark, or carry arms or sticks, or go upon the Common on public days; and in 1728, it being "found by experience" that their "buying of provisions in the market place or elsewhere" enhanced the price of provisions, they were cut off from dealing with "the country people." The ninth volume in this precious series will be a record of births, deaths, and marriages up to 1700, and the tenth volume miscellaneous. These are in press, but will be preceded by Vols. xi. and xii., the one a continuation of the town records from 1728, the other the first volume of Selectmen records.

—It is not a long time since botanists were occupied solely in attaching generic and specific names to plants, and it is not strange that that dryest of all human pursuits should still be the chief work of the botanical classroom. There are teachers, however, who know that botany has become a new subject; that questions of development, of the habits and motions of plants, of their means of attracting the insects which fertilize them and warding off those which eat their honey without making any return, of protecting their seeds and at the same time inducing various animals to distribute them widely, are questions of the deepest interest. But such teachers are staggering beneath the weight of all the sciences: in all probability they are still teaching in the winter term that oxygen exhilirates and that carbonic acid is injurious in the air of rooms; and it is too much to expect them to be ready in the spring to direct their pupils in that close observation of living plants which alone makes plants worth studying. Six pages of condensed suggestions, such as are to be found in W. J. Beal's lecture on 'The New Botany' (Philadelphia: C. H. Marot), are enough to enable them to make great changes in their usual routine course. An idea of the usefulness of the little pamphlet before us can be given only by a long extract:

"What insects visit each flower? Study flowers of willows, poplars, and see what attracts insects. . . . Look in flowers of the closed gentian for bumble-bees. . . . What parts of a flower secrete honey? See pæony, buttercups, hellebore, pulsatilla, caltha, poinsettia, and others. Observe stigmas after pollen has been applied and where none has been applied. How does pollen get out of flowers of compositæ, lobelia, etc.? Is nodding any benefit to flowers? Look for appendages to anthers and inside corollas, and study their use. Where are the holes in an anther when at rest and when visited by insects? See many ericaceæ, as vaccinium and kalmia. See whether the weather or time of day affects the supply of honey in any flower. Watch insects on the flowers of melons or pumpkins to see how they behave and transfer the pollen. Cut the petals from some flowers to see if bees or other insects can find them readily. . . . Why do not tendrils coil on their own main stem from which they branch? Observe the tendrils of a squash vine after it has spread out on the ground. Tear it loose and see what happens. . . . Look for liquid or mucilage on roots. Let them stick to glass to see if it is corroded. From spring and during summer examine every few days to see how the bulb of adder-tongues is formed."

It would be difficult to overestimate the difference between the delight which a class of bright young girls or boys would take in such observations as these, and the dreariness of the hours their elders were forced to spend over the analysis of flowers.

—Mr. W. E. A. Axon has given in the *Manchester Quarterly* some new facts in addition to those which we instanced (Nov. 23, 1882) in support of the derivation of *stipulatio* from the custom of breaking a straw and joining the pieces as a sign of a bargain. Mr. Axon quotes the French phrase "rompre le festu avec quelqu'un" (*i. e.*, se brouiller avec quelqu'un) now usually, says Littré, "rompre la paille," and a passage from Udal's translation of Erasmus's 'Apophthegms,' where to "break a straw between them" means to quarrel. But it is not evident what connection there is between the two meanings. In the manor of Winteringham, North Lancaster, "a straw is always inserted in the top of every surrender of copyhold lands; and the absence of this straw would render the whole transaction null and void." In Yorkshire, in the reign of James I., a field was "surrendered and given up with a strawe." In Kingston-upon-Hull a straw is attached to a surrender, and in another part of the ceremony the straw has degenerated into an office ruler, which is offered to the new tenant by the deputy-steward. All these cases, it will be noted, are from the North of England. In the same number of the *Quarterly*, Mr. Earwaker gives a woodcut of a seal of the date 1413, in which a portion of a reed is embedded in the wax. The straw-bargain idea, once started, will perhaps explain more than was expected, as the sun-and-moon theory has cast its light, sometimes illuminating and sometimes misleading, over the whole surface of mythology. Even the phrase, "a man of straw," which we had always associated with children's cheap dolls, or with scarecrows stuffed with straw, is interpreted by Mr. Axon as applying to men who stood in the vicinity of the law courts ready to be bought as a witness, and, as a sign that they were on sale, wore a straw in their boot, just as, according to Dr. Warren, Hariskandra when, after losing everything, he offered himself for sale, placed a straw on his head. So, at statute fairs, farm laborers waiting to be hired displayed a straw as a sign that their labor was for sale.

—M. Lesseps, who is not yet seventy-eight years of age, evidently believes that he has still plenty of time left not only for his work of piercing the isthmus which now separates the Atlantic from the Pacific, but also for that of creating an inland sea in Northern Africa. The report which he delivered a few weeks ago before the Paris Academy of Sciences on his exploring mission, in the interest of the latter scheme, through the desert region of the Tunisian and Algerian *shotts*, or salt marshes, is as enthusiastic a document as he ever presented in connection with his so grandly executed Suez Canal enterprise. The shotts—mostly very extensive bodies of stagnant salt water, below the level of the Mediterranean—form an almost unbroken chain, about two hundred and fifty miles long, from the mouth of the Wed Melah in the Gulf of Gabes, a little north of the Tunisian town of the same name, to the neighborhood of Biskra in Algeria. The feasibility of the plan for inundating and feeding this entire basin through a channel at the Tunisian coast and some cuts in the interior, was acknowledged by a commission appointed by the French Government last year. The commission also found that the work would be durable, if not perpetual; that it would improve the climate, render unhealthy regions salubrious, and thus promote colonization. They were, however, divided in their opinions in regard to the military and commercial advantages to be derived from the enterprise, and found it difficult of execution and consequently very expensive. The commission studied the scheme in Paris; Lesseps went down to Africa, accompanied by specialist engineers and experienced contractors, and "all have come back quite convinced." They found the estuary of the Melah, the beginning of the inundating canal, to offer a part admitting of easy excavation, and fitted to form a well-sheltered port. The navigation of the canal would be facilitated by its straightness. There would be no obstacle to anchoring in the inland sea, owing to a total absence of rocks; vessels would thus everywhere be safe. All the territory on the north banks of the waters, from Gabes to Biskra, could easily be rendered fertile. Borings and natural wells proved the existence of subterranean water. The land recovered for cultivation would afford ample remuneration for the capital and expenditures. It would evidently be sufficient to cut, in the alluvial parts, a canal averaging twenty-five or thirty metres in breadth, which the current itself would widen. The calcareous rocks at the base of the Gabes bar would offer little inconvenience, and in compensation would furnish material for the construction of piers, locks, etc. The rocky heights at Kriz, separating the great shotts Faraun and Sebkhat el-Gara, which frightened the Government commission, could be flanked on the southwest at Tozer, where the soil is sandy. The canal could be cut in five years or less time, and ought not to cost more than 150,000,000 francs. The impression produced by the report is said to be very encouraging.

—M. Ferdinand Brunetière, whose 'Études Critiques de la Littérature Française' we referred to on their publication, is the regular literary critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in which publication he has been leading a campaign against the naturalists, MM. Flaubert, Zola & Co. He has now gathered a dozen of his essays on this subject into a volume, 'Le Roman Naturaliste' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), which deserves to be read by all who are interested in the changing phases of contemporary fiction both in France and in England. M. Brunetière is a sound critic, although he is dry and hard and unsympathetic, and a good fighter, and there is no doubt that he punishes his adversary severely. He finds that M. Zola has used Ben Jonson, or at least as much of him as he could find in the footnotes of M. Taine's 'History of English Literature,' and that he borrowed from the same source certain bits of Otway's 'Venice Preserved' to deck out his modern 'Nana.' He joins issue with Flaubert in two vigorous chapters, one on the 'Trois Contes' and the other chiefly on 'Madame Bovary.' But where M. Brunetière's book is of special interest to us is in

the acute comparison he makes between the French naturalists and the English. As his earlier volume reveals, M. Brunetière is at home in English literature, although he shows the curious limitations of a foreign critic when he pays serious attention to the novels of Miss Rhoda Broughton, as if at all typical. Perhaps the best essay in the book is on "English Naturalism, a Study of George Eliot," in which he contrasts what the French naturalists declare they are aiming at with what George Eliot actually accomplished. He makes a subtle criticism on the different way in which the 'Mill on the Floss,' for example, affects us from the way 'Madame Bovary' affects us, to the effect that while the Frenchman sets down cruelly what he saw, deliberately seeking the grotesque and the trivial, the Englishwoman had a fellow-feeling for her characters and did not take sides against them. M. Brunetière concludes that (with two or three exceptions, M. Daudet's 'Jack' for one) the French naturalist has not the needed sympathy with his characters, while the English naturalist (with two or three exceptions, notably 'Jane Eyre' and 'Silas Marner') has no feeling for form, no constructive faculty, which the French have in a high degree. He especially contrasts the disjointed structure of the 'Mill on the Floss' with the symmetry of action of 'Madame Bovary.'

—The first half of the third volume, or "Jahrgang," of the *Zeitschrift für die Alttestamentliche Wissenschaft*, edited by Professor Bernhard Stade, of the University of Giessen, now lies before us. The learned editor, though working on his 'History of Israel'—two parts of which have already appeared in Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte in Einzeldarstellungen'—presents in this number, too, several contributions of his own, including further remarks on Micah and a lengthy criticism of the Bible texts concerning the buildings of Solomon. The most important contribution is Georg Hoffmann's string of remarks on Amos. Dr. Samuel Adler, of this city, offers a novel and interesting view, which he critically establishes, of the original signification of the Day of Atonement, as reflected in the oldest references to it in the Scriptures. He handles the Pentateuch with the same lack of reverence for old texts and traditional views to which the readers—we ought perhaps to say, the students—of the *Zeitschrift* are accustomed. Karl Budde and Wünsche are among the other writers for this volume, the contents of which promise to be as varied as those of the first two, while it may not present any critical dissertations as elaborate and important as the editor's examination of Deutero-Zechariah and F. Giesebrecht's treatises on the "Hexateuch" (Pentateuch and Joshua) and the Psalms, which appeared in the *Zeitschrift* of 1881–2. The standing of this publication is now fully established: as a periodical exclusively devoted to Old Testament studies it has no rival. The editor adheres strictly to his plan of giving only original communications, for which the authors alone are responsible, and excluding reviews and reports. He gives, however, ample bibliographical lists of independent or journalistic productions within this field, in which he is aided by the collections of the Deutsche Morgenländische Gesellschaft.

RECENT NOVELS.

Dust: a Novel. By Julian Hawthorne. [*Our Continent* Library.] Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1883.

A Transplanted Rose: a Story of New York Society. Harper & Bros.

No New Thing. A novel by W. E. Norris. Author's edition. [Leisure Hour Series No. 148.] Henry Holt & Co. 1883. The same. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

My Trivial Life. By a Plain Woman. Part 1. Spinsterhood. Part 2. Meum and Tuum. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Fanchette. By One of Her Admirers. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

The Gentle Savage. By Edward King. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

The Virginia Comedians; or, Old Day in the Old Dominion. By John Esten Cooke. D. Appleton & Co.

Geraldine Hawthorne. By Beatrice May Butt. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

The Admiral's Ward. By Mrs. Alexander. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Who is Sylvia? By A. Price. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

A Chelsea Householder. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

A Story of Carnival. By Mary B. Hoppus. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

But Yet a Woman. By Arthur Sherburne Hardy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Stray Pearls: Memoirs of Margaret de Ribaumont. By Charlotte M. Yonge. Macmillan & Co.

MR. HAWTHORNE has set his face, in theory and in practice, against the modern "analytical" novel, and 'Dust' certainly has as little analysis in it as any story with which we have met for some time. It is a romance made up of materials a good many of which form part of the common stock of all writers of fiction. The scene is laid in England, and the period is that of Tom Moore, who is one of the subordinate characters. There is a wicked banker who comes to grief, and a wicked and beautiful woman who fares no better, and a tale of true love which encounters obstacles and in the end overcomes them. The interest of the story centres in the banker, who resorts to the dangerous device of propping up his failing business by the aid of a private gambling establishment, with the result which most bankers would anticipate from such an experiment. He is saved from ruin at an early period of his career by the generosity of a business associate, who becomes a wanderer on the face of the earth, without home, name, or friends, in order that he may be spared his deserts. This self-sacrificing man confides his daughter to the care of the banker, and has, at the opening of the tale, disappeared into space, to return many years later and find, what he might have expected, that the banker is no better a man than before, and that his daughter's moral education has not been a success. A murder and many other complications follow, all of which are perhaps natural enough *sequelæ* of such a plot; but the foundations on which the story is laid are improbable. Here a little analysis would not have been out of place, at least by way of preparation for construction. Mr. Hawthorne does not take much pains to give a realistic reproduction of English society in the time chosen for the action of his novel. His characters talk a language from which he is not careful enough to exclude modern phrases and expressions, and these sometimes have a queer sound.

In the "international" novel, of the kind written by Mr. James, we are enabled to see ourselves as the Europeans see us, and vice-versa. 'A Transplanted Rose' is a sort of inter-State novel, in which the Western barbarian is shown against the shining, polished background of New York society. Miss Rose Chadwick is the barbarian, and the need of her transplantation and careful culture in the soft, mellow social atmosphere that makes New York so dear to us all, is seen at once when we mention the fact that she appears "in our midst" in green gloves. With the story as a story we have no fault to find, but Western girls will not be apt to like it, or admit that wearing green gloves is a local peculiarity of theirs. It is certainly open to question whether a girl who thought green gloves proper could be ever thoroughly civilized. It seems to us to show a nature incapable of social amelioration. We should, in fact, select it as the plainest possible outward sign of primitive and ineradicable savagery, like the nose-ring of the African girl. If the Western girl is what we take her to be, she will resent the imputation of such a habit; and it is noticeable that the volume is published anonymously, as if the author were not prepared to face the consequences of a publication so unfair to an important section of our common country.

Mr. Norris, in 'No New Thing,' falls far short of the success he achieved in 'Matrimony'; and, judging by internal evidence, we should be inclined to believe it the earlier novel of the two. It contains considerably less of that nice observation of the weaknesses of human nature with which the other was so filled, and there are no characters in this novel so entertaining in their different ways as Varinka, or Freddy, or the amiably cynical Mr. Jervis. The story revolves about the career and fortunes of an Anglo-Italian boy, who is adopted by the kind-hearted heroine, and the analysis of his pleasure-loving, superficial character is very good. It is his fate, and leads him a strange dance, through failures, and misfortunes, and mistakes, and a good many lies, to a queer end. The contrast of his selfish, facile disposition with the stronger and simpler English characters with whom he is thrown in contact is very well drawn, as is the contrast also between his subtle half-Italian intellect and their coarser mental fibre. The story is very natural, and it is hard to point out any way in which it could have been improved; but the chief difficulty with it is that it contains no character except Philip who rises much above the level of commonplace novel types, while the dissection of Philip, clever as it is, we follow with an interest chiefly made up of curiosity. 'Matrimony' was of course a success which Mr. Norris would find it hard to repeat.

The first part of 'My Trivial Life' is worth reading; the waste-basket is a suitable place for the second. "Spinsterhood" is a sketch of the sort of which 'Cranford' is the inimitable best. The characters are from county families of moderate wealth—on the one side, the ladies whose lives are an edifying example of mingled piety, charity, and fashion; on the other, the really strong figures of the unworldly, but intensely narrow, natures, who permit themselves but one idea, who move in but one groove, until the ideas become tyrants, and the groove a prison. It is probably only another illustration of the difference between the power of observation and of imagination that a writer who can draw so remarkable a figure as the stern, self-centred Aunt Jane, can do nothing better in the way of a story than the crude and hackneyed sensationalism of "Meum and Tuum." The wife has lost all the cleverness of the spinster who had her little hits always ready—*e. g.*, "Arcadia is the only country place one hears of where everybody speaks to everybody else." "Small places and small cliques have a perspective of their own." "The worst kind of solitude is not to be alone by yourself, but alone with another person." "There is a certain satisfaction in doing your duty, but unfortunately it does not

prevent you from being infinitely bored." She does equal justice to Aunt Jane, "who might think things wicked that were not very wrong, but never thought what was wrong was right"; to the "woman to whom church millinery must ever be a delight, a sort of sanctification of her own millinery instincts"; and to the ladies of fashion — the admirable Catharine, who has tatted an aisle to a church, and "thinks her everlasting tatting a visible sign of spiritual energy," and the Lady Arabella, who cannot afford suppers, and so "goes in for the cheap and charitable." "You must have young men for the ladies if you have not piety."

'Fanchette' is an actress, "with straw-colored curls that resembled a golden nimbus." Her warmest admirer calls her "a perfect lady" and "a diabolical little chatterbox." All readers know what to expect of a book that opens with "elegant equipages" and an "elegant lady" receiving her guests, and another "elegantly-dressed lady" sitting before the fire. After thus much, it does not seem necessary to inquire as to the probability of the seclusion of a priest of Buddha and his granddaughter in a splendid country-house on the eastern shore of Maryland.

It seems a pity that handsome paper and type should have been wasted on such a marvel of improbability as 'The Gentle Savage.' A Cherokee, a "brave" who has "a blood feud" in his family, but is nevertheless quite subdued to "social elegance," goes to Europe, on behalf of his tribe, to remonstrate with an American banker there against a railroad which threatens their territory. He saves the life of the banker's daughter, and falls in love with her. As he departs without a declaration, she becomes ill. Her father sends for the Cherokee and implores him to save his darling. The Indian returns West, and is followed by the lady, who arrives just in time, first, to save *his* life from his foe of the "blood feud," and then to rescue him by her eloquence (through an interpreter!) from the anger of "the braves" when they discover his entire desertion of their cause. It is a whimsical suggestion that she is paying back the debt to Pocahontas, but one cannot help it. Intermediately, the Cherokee is involved with Nihilists, whose cause is made one with the Indians', and there is an artist—a new Liszt—who is blown up in the summer-house of his hostess for revealing awful plots of assassination. What with the extravagance of the incidents themselves and the farcical way in which they are combined, the force of absurdity can no further go.

The reprint of 'The Virginia Comedians' brings out very distinctly the great difference between the novel of the first half of the century and the novel of to-day. No one would think of bestowing so much pains and such literary ability upon a similar subject now. A crowd of personages hurry through a succession of striking incidents, imagined to illustrate the splendor and picturesqueness of the old régime in Virginia on the eve of the Revolution. Such a plan, on so broad a scale, is too much for even 600 pages, and there is no space left, however much the author might wish it, for that development of character through the action of the story, or the analysis of motives, which is more and more the chief interest in the best fiction. Not what is done, but how it is done and why it is done, are the questions both of the novelist and his readers.

'Geraldine Hawthorne' is ostensibly another story of the Revolution, but in fact it is one of those that belong to all time. It is of the faithful love of a woman clinging to a man who has brought shame upon all who love him. For her sake he escapes the punishment he deserves, and in her devotion he finds the sole hope of his later life. There is only so much history as may supply the motive and the circumstances of the treason and its pardon. The book is wholly one of emotion—the very reverse of the preceding. There is not much local color, but a slight archaism in speech gives a remoteness which, combined with a graceful style, suggests a Gainsborough picture.

If 'The Admiral's Ward' has less striking figures in it than some of Mrs. Alexander's earlier novels, it seems, nevertheless, to be the most even of them all. There is a fineness about the whole life in it that was sometimes missed heretofore. It is the old story of the gain and the loss of an inheritance, but imagined with motives so unusual, and situations so unexpected, as to give it positive originality. The incidents are simple, almost homely, but every-day life is transformed to something of poetry by the patience of the heroine in her humble duties, and by the beautiful, enduring affection of the two women of whom love and fate might have made enemies. The "Admiral" and Mrs. Crewe, "who does not take lodgers, but only consents to receive a gentleman or two, personally recommended," are of the best of the whimsical oddities with whom Mrs. Alexander enlivens her tales—best, because drawn with more reserve. The plot develops so quietly that there is no suspicion of the catastrophe until the last moment. It startles, but it proves its own fitness, for it makes the reader at once turn back to reread the story in the light of it. Too often the end of a novel is only like the solution of an enigma. The tangle untwisted, one cares no more, but, as in this case, real skill will lead up to a result which impels us to turn back and judge of character by our knowledge of final deeds. It should be observed that the successful lover of the heroine is not at all the hero of the story. It is less and less frequent that both of the ultimate pair of lovers are in the first plane of the picture.

There is another "bar sinister" in 'Who is Sylvia?' and so much misery descends upon her lovely head that it would be well to read the last chapter first, and then with a free mind to enjoy the always charming English country life from which the book is made up. Sisterhoods afford new ground for the novelist, and the scenes in St. Mary's Refuge show them at their best and worst.

'A Chelsea Householder' is Muriel Ellis, a girl of just that gentle independence of spirit which is so much more attractive than positive softness (if that is not a paradox) or outright strong-mindedness. She is enough of an heiress, too, to play very prettily at being an artist. The hero is a clergyman of Broad Church affinities, a puzzle to his own kindred. "Really," says his cousin, "when a good man—and I suppose Steeny is better than most—takes an obstinate fit, he's worse than any one." While the book is not of great power, it has an individuality quite marked—and by this is meant something different from originality. It takes its own way unmindful of what one might expect. Muriel lives in Cheyne Walk, and the picture of Chelsea is unmistakably from the life, but there is not the slightest consciousness of the Kingsleys, the Carlyles, and George Eliot, who have made that suburb classic ground. Yet the river flows on through the story, under the changing lights, now weird, now tender, now splendid, as we knew it in 'Daniel Deronda.' The descriptions of country landscape are singularly happy, for none of them are done with direct intention—only a bit here and there of the picturesqueness of the New Forest or the wide monotony of Norfolk, as the simple incidents of the story require.

'A Story of Carnival' is not equal to the other Leisure-Hour volumes upon the list, though it moves with a brisk alertness that interests the reader in incidents more ingenious than probable. The women are the merest shadows.

Not so with the gracious creatures to either of whom the title 'But yet a Woman' might be applied—Renée, the delicate maiden, with all the fearless ease of innocence; Stephanie, the woman of the world, "of a strange confidence and naturalness, blended with a dignity that was almost imperious." The other characters are not unfamiliar: the elderly Frenchmen, with their nightly game of picquet, the priest, the polished journalist, the young doctor; but it is only in the finest and choicest of French work—the best of Cherbuliez, for instance—that they are presented with anything like the delicacy to be found here. The story is strong and original withal. The reader will find all his conjectures as to plot, not disappointed, but contradicted and surpassed. There is no smiling Circe to deplore, but a woman, noble, though sorely tempted, who could strike the death-blow to her own happiness rather than win it at the price of shame and treachery. The Spanish episode, the hapless fate of Felisa, is a model of its kind, telling a tale of guilty passion not for the sake of excitement, but for the Nemesis. It were a pity to forestall the story, but without doing so it is not easy to give it the praise it deserves. The style is exquisite in its limpid clearness, and, while we admire the beauty of description and the power of characterization which gives us living human beings, not critical analyses, we are inclined to put foremost the conversations. To make people talk as they do in the *salon* of M. Michel is a rare success. We believe Mr. Hardy has before this made himself known in the field of exact science. It is an old theory that no man succeeds there without imagination. That power by which the invisible is made real to the mind's eye is as much at home in the abstractions of higher mathematics as in the mysteries of human hopes and fears.

In 'Stray Pearls' Miss Yonge takes up again the fortunes of the family to whom the 'Chaplet of Pearls' belonged, and narrates many of the incidents of the Fronde in the bright, clear way which has long made her books of history the delight of the school-room. Mme. de Bellaise is the granddaughter of that Mme. Eustacie who kept the cows, and knitted like a peasant-girl while a fugitive in the Bocage, after her brilliant child-marriage. Born of an English father, and married to a French marquis, she is alternately an attendant upon the exiled Henrietta and the companion of *la grande Mademoiselle*. In her old age she writes the history of herself, and her brothers and sisters, for her grandchildren. Such a chronicle becomes in Miss Yonge's hands a picture of character and manners at once instructive and interesting. There could be no better introduction to the fascinating memoirs of that time, nor one more likely to create a taste for them. Indeed, one might read long in those same memoirs without forming so clear a conception of the general current of events as may be obtained from the very brief sketch in the preface to this story.

TWO MASSACHUSETTS TOWN HISTORIES.

History of Hardwick, Massachusetts. With a Genealogical Register. By Lucius R. Paige. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Ancient Landmarks of Plymouth. Part 1. Historical Sketch and Titles of Estates. Part 2. Genealogical Register of Plymouth Families. By W. T. Davis. Boston: A. Williams & Co.

It will, we think, be admitted that town-history making is not a profitable branch of literature,

Small as the editions of works of this class usually are, the public demand for them is even smaller, and oftentimes the printers' bills are in excess of the receipts from sales. Moreover, they bear upon the face marks of toilsome and long-continued research fairly amazing to the beholder. Take the books under notice as an illustration. Here are 550 solid pages of genealogical matter—records of the births, marriages, and deaths of the inhabitants of the towns to which they severally pertain, from first settlement down to the year 1880. The time spent in preparing such registers can be appreciated only by the few who have been engaged in similar undertakings. Without the hope of gain, or the expectation of fame, what is it that encourages the local historians in their laborious performances? There is a "sublime pleasure," as one has expressed it, "in walking over the ground cultivated by former generations, in reviewing the records of their deeds, and in examining the monuments of their industry, wisdom, and piety." That "sublime pleasure" may be their sufficient reward. We trust it is.

At eighty-one years of age Dr. Paige has committed to the press the history of his native town of Hardwick. In gathering materials for this work, he has been engaged, off and on, ever since the days of his youth, and what was originally designed to be his "first literary labor" has become "absolutely the last; for at the age of eighty-one years it is altogether too late to commence another task requiring much time for its completion." The book has been printed, in accordance with a vote of the town, at the town's expense, the author, "for his labor of love," being permitted to retain fifty copies, notwithstanding his "willingness to furnish the manuscript without any compensation whatever."

The territory of Hardwick, in colony times, was the favorite hunting-ground of the Nipmuck Indians. In 1686 it was purchased of the aboriginal owners by Joshua Lamb and his associates (all men of consequence residing in the town of Roxbury) for the sum of twenty pounds, "current money of New England." The conveyance covered a tract twelve miles long by eight miles wide; and this transaction was not the only land speculation which engaged the attention of Mr. Lamb and his co-partners, for we find that the same grantees, at about the same time, obtained an Indian deed for eight miles square of land, the site of the present town of Leicester, and this for the "consideration" of fifteen pounds. The district of Hardwick—Lambstown was its earlier name—although purchased in 1686, was not entered upon for settlement until about forty years afterward, and was not incorporated as a town until 1739, when it was christened Hardwicke, in honor of Philip Yorke, Lord Hardwicke; but how or when it lost its final letter has not been ascertained. Dr. Paige's work covers the whole ground—"Indian History," "Civil History," "Ecclesiastical History," "Military History," and "Literary History," and traces the progress of the town according to the indications of these several headings. Names of the men who went to the wars fill many pages. It is a grand roll, for Hardwick furnished its complete quota of soldiers for the French and Indian war, the Revolutionary war, and the war of the great Rebellion. The "last war" with Great Britain was so unpopular that only one volunteer could be procured in all the town, and "resort was had to the draft." In the insurrection of 1786–87—commonly called Shays's Rebellion—a majority of the men of Hardwick sympathized with the insurgents, and many of them took up arms against the State Government. Dr. Paige believes "they were, probably, as excusable in their resistance to the Government now as they formerly were in resisting the authority of Great Britain"—a most awkward compliment to the Revolutionary heroes. He has, however, a good word for both sides: for the insurgents, "who sought relief by the means which had formerly been so effectual," and for the supporters of the Government "in its terrible struggle to maintain the supremacy of the law." John Wheeler, one of the leaders of the rebellion, and an aide de-camp of Shays, was a citizen of Hardwick. He was convicted of treason, and sentenced to be hung, but received pardon, "full, free, and ample." General Warner, a commander of the forces in the suppression of the rebellion, was also of Hardwick.

Dr. Paige dwells in affectionate terms upon the character and services of Timothy Ruggles, of Hardwick, one of the most prominent citizens of Massachusetts, and indeed of New England, in both civil and military affairs. "As colonel and as brigadier-general in the French war, as Representative and as Speaker of the House, as President of the Congress at New York, and as Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas, he was equal to his position and adorned it." In Hardwick, "Brigadier" Ruggles, as he is usually styled, was looked upon as a public benefactor, for he had "contributed more than any other person to the agricultural prosperity of the town, by improved methods of tillage, the introduction of choice breeds of cattle and horses, and the culture of engrafted fruits." He is said to have kept thirty horses, remarkable for their size and beauty, a deer-park of twenty acres, and a pack of hounds for the amusement of his friends. John Adams wrote of him: "Ruggles's grandeur consists in the quickness of his apprehension, the steadiness of his attention, the boldness and strength of his thoughts and expressions, his strict honor, conscious superiority, contempt of meanness, etc. People approach him with dread and terror." It seems to have been generally admitted that he had no superior in the province, and that, had he attached himself to the "right side," he would have been one of the foremost characters of the Revolution. But he was a loyalist, and steadily adhered to the measures of the British ministry. "He had eaten the King's bread, and he would not lift up his heel against him; he had repeatedly sworn allegiance, and he would not violate his oath." His five farms, with other property in Hardwick, were confiscated, and, refusing to take up arms on either side, he retired to Nova Scotia, "sat himself down in the wilderness, and began to cultivate a new farm, which he carried on with wonderful perseverance and success." In the act of September, 1778, forbidding the return of refugees (without permission) "on pain of death without benefit of clergy," his name stands near the head of the list, in the most conspicuous group. "For much the greatest part of his life General Ruggles ate no animal food and drank no spirituous or fermented liquors, small beer excepted, and enjoyed to his advanced age almost uninterrupted health." He died in Wilmot, N. S., August 4, 1795, in the eighty-fourth year of his age.

Jonathan Danforth was looked upon as the most "unmanageable and pugnacious" of Brigadier Ruggles's political adherents. He was the keeper of a country store in Hardwick, and incurred public odium by dealing in tea while it was contraband. In 1775 the Committee of Correspondence voted to publish him to the world as opposed to freedom, recommended that no one should deal with him, and determined that he should not leave the town without permission. In the following year the Committee of Correspondence directed the sheriff to imprison Mr. Danforth in the common jail, and imprisoned he was, "among prisoners of war, thieves, etc.," the sheriff being forbidden to take bail. Danforth was not easily kept down, and took his grievances into the courts, where he recovered his liberty and "the tea before mentioned," and was not quieted until the General Court, by a resolution, put a stop to his "expensive and perplexing lawsuits." Eventually he secured the respect and confidence of his fellow-citizens, and served them as selectman, assessor, and tax-collector. Touching his treatment by the Committee of Correspondence, he sometimes "expressed his opinions in language more forcible than elegant." Dr. Paige relates the following anecdote:

"In 1831, when he was eighty-nine years old, Mr. Danforth recounted to his pastor, Rev. Mr. Goldsbury, some of his early trials and sufferings. Among other grievances, he said the Committee of Correspondence prohibited him from leaving his own farm, except to go to meeting on Sundays and to attend funerals. 'One day,' said he, 'a member of the Committee informed me there was to be a funeral, and inquired whether I wished to be present. I told him I always liked to go to funerals, and I hoped I might live to attend the funerals of the whole Committee; and I have done it—I have lived to see every divil of them under ground.'"

Mr. Davis modestly informs his readers that his book is "not a history of the Old Colony nor a history of Plymouth," its "matter lying for the most part outside of the domain of history." His introductory narrative will, however, pass for a tolerable history of the colony and of the town. Starting with the Pilgrims in Old England, it takes them to Holland, and thence across the ocean to Cape Cod and to the very Rock of Plymouth, and goes on to trace the rise of a town which fills a most conspicuous place in the annals of America; and though the leading facts have been printed unnumbered times before, they still, under Mr. Davis's handling, give out a certain odor of freshness. The major part of the volume is devoted to the abstracts of titles of Plymouth estates and the genealogies of Plymouth families, and herein the compiler may well claim credit for much "faithful labor and an honest purpose." A map of Plymouth in 1701, the result of Mr. Davis's own investigations, exhibits the streets existing near that time, with the houses of about two-thirds of the inhabitants and the names of their occupants—highly useful in connection with the abstracts of land titles. A clear defect, to our view, is the omission from the genealogical pages of the month and day of the month in dates—only the year of a birth, marriage, or death being retained. The abstracts of titles show a similar defect. Most of Mr. Davis's subscribers will wish he had worked upon a different system.

"Burial Hill" makes the subject of an interesting chapter, and has a map delineating the ancient graves. The oldest stone bears the date of 1681, and Mr. Davis doubts if the Hill was occupied for burial purposes before the close of King Philip's war. The founders of the colony lie buried in unknown graves. From the pages which describe "Mills and Manufactories" we find that the "first meeting-house bells," the "first cut-nails and tacks," the "first cannon and cannon balls," the "first machines for carding, spinning, and roping," etc., etc., are to be credited to the Old Colony—showing that the colony "has always maintained that rank in enterprise and skill which of right belongs to the first settlement in New England."

Throughout the work "ancient dates are made conformable to the present style." Mr. Davis's chronological plan is simple enough, and he carries it out by adding ten days to the calendar date of events occurring before 1752, irrespective of the events having happened in Holland (where the New Style was in vogue) or in England,

And here Mr. Davis often comes in conflict with the best authorities. A typographical error usually corrects itself, and is unimportant in comparison with a systematic error. We do not hold Mr. Davis responsible for making the date of Governor Carver's death (p. 25) "April, 1620," nor for the arrival of the *Fortune* (p. 27) "19th of November, 1621," and again (p. 129) "9th of November, 1621." These are "slips" to perplex every writer. What we complain of is that he takes undoubted New-Style dates, and by an addition of ten days makes them fit no style whatever. Many serious errors in the opening chapter are traceable to this false system of reckoning. On page 4 we read that "on the 19th of April, 1609, a twelve years' truce was concluded" between the United Provinces and Spain, while, in fact, by the New Style, the truce was concluded on the 9th of April. King James's patent for dividing Virginia into two colonies was dated April 10, 1606, and not "on the 16th of April," as Mr. Davis (p. 6) gives it. On the same page (6) Mr. Davis says that Sir Edwin Sandys was chosen treasurer and governor of the Virginia Company "May 7, 1619," and (p. 11) "we know that Sir Edwin Sandys was chosen treasurer and governor of the Virginia Company May 7, 1619." What is "known" is that Sir Edwin was chosen to these offices on the 28th of April, O. S., and that the 28th of April, O. S. (in 1619), corresponds to the 8th of May, N. S. The letter of Samuel Fuller and others to Carver and Cushman (p. 17) was not "dated June 20," 1620, as Mr. Davis makes it, and is dated June 10, N. S., and is so given in Prince's 'New England Chronology,' and also in Mr. Charles Deane's edition of Bradford's 'History of Plymouth Plantation.' Errors of this class in the 'Landmarks' are almost "too numerous to mention."

The book is exceedingly well printed, and has a complete index to Part 1. For Part 2, the Genealogical Register, no index was necessary. The List of Subscribers affixed contains the names of many prominent gentlemen in various States of the Union.

Dante Gabriel Rossetti. A Record and a Study. By William Sharp. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882.

THIS volume contains a brief but sufficient biography of Rossetti, a descriptive catalogue of nearly all his pictures, and a critical account of each of his poems, of which the principal ones are treated with great detail. It is what it purports to be, "a record and a study," and in the case of Rossetti, whose genius has, in England at least, that charm for younger men which enforces study, such a book is of especial value; but this painstaking and elaborate method of criticism necessarily fails to give the ordinary reader a clear impression, although what is here set down affords ample material for a reflective man to form for himself an adequate idea of Rossetti's artistic and poetic work, and of the predominant characteristics of his mind. We are the more sorry for the author's omitting to summarize his own views, because what little general criticism there is, here and there, is remarkably straightforward, just, and effective, and especially because it is free from the prepossessions of the æsthetic school. Thus, in an incidental way, he draws a portrait of Rossetti, the lineaments of which he says any one could see in 'The House of Life':

"Those who had never met or seen him, or who had never heard of his personality, would discern a man with an acute, even painfully acute, sensibility, with a passionate love of the beautiful, with a habit of morbid introspection and a tendency to succumb to morbid impulses, with an occasional passion and vehemence, startling in its suddenness, and, while of an essentially spiritual nature, forced by bent of genius into a poetic expression wherein sensuous images and symbolism are preëminent."

This single sentence has the compactness of final criticism; it describes all that is essential in Rossetti's personality. In this man of keen senses and brooding mind and almost ascetic aspiration, there was a strange blending, and at times apparently a confusion, of the artistic and poetic faculties. This fact contributes much to give his work its peculiar charm and to make it a critical puzzle. Mr. Howells once said that Rossetti should have "painted his poems and sung his pictures." The phrase indicates the sense of imperfect expression that one usually feels in contemplating his work of either kind. He charged his pictures with ideas they could not express without the commentary of the sonnet he so frequently annexed to them, and he filled his poems with color and visions they could not present without the illustration he so seldom gave. The pictures will not be apprized at their worth unless the observer can carry out their mental suggestion with poetic feeling, nor his poems unless the reader has powers of vivid visualization. This union of the two faculties would hardly have been possible, certainly would not have been so fruitful of good results as it was, had not Rossetti been a mystic. A mystic he primarily was, a man who cared less for the object or the thought than for its vague and often arbitrary suggestions; who used things and ideas not for their current value, but as coins stamped with his own image and superscription; tendering them for the original and self-derived worth he gave to them. Necessarily he dealt much with symbols, the only refuge for a mystic who desires to indicate his meaning to others. If he wished to bring before the mind the Temptation of the Flesh, he painted a luxurious woman or he sang of "Eden Bower," but in either case Lilith is more than she seems, she stands for something else. If in his work one sees or hears mention of a dove or an apple, one must ask, not what it is, but what it means, for he is almost certainly using a sign-language.

Again, like mystics in general, he does not rest in his idea, but is ever either elaborating it or passing to cognate ideas that it has suggested. The peculiarity in Rossetti's case is that, because of his sensuous susceptibility, he chooses his symbols from the things of the senses, using what is most significant to himself to express what is highest, and therefore displaying the spirit through the flesh. This drew on him the unfortunate review that so much embittered his life, in which he was branded as one of the "Fleshly School." The purity of his own mind cannot be questioned. One proof of it is the fact of his suppressing or modifying the passages in his poems most objected to, when he came to a truer knowledge of his common audience, so much more alive to his physical than to his spiritual meaning. As he is not to be ranked with the "Fleshly School," neither is he to be put among the so-called Neo-Pagans, for even less than they had he anything classical in his genius. He was original in the sense that he was a mediæval man, "born out of time"; but, to describe this phase of his character, we cannot refrain from quoting Mr. Sharp's own words:

"It is true the beautiful was the ideal of the Greek artistic mind, and also that the beautiful was the aim of Rossetti in his dual vocation—but how different the conceptions of beauty! The former looked to light, clearness, form, in painting, sculpture, architecture, to intellectual conciseness and definiteness in poetry; the latter looked mainly to diffused color, graded to almost indefinite shades in his art, finding the harmonies thereof more akin than severity of outline and clearness of form, while in his poetry the Gothic love of the supernatural, the Gothic delight in sensuous images, the Gothic instinct of indefiniteness and elaboration, carried to an extreme, prevailed. . . . His classical work can be so called only in a restricted sense, first, because his sympathies were not Greek, but Gothic, and because his creations typify the mysterious yearning of life, the brooding and hope and despair and resignation of a certain type of womanhood; not the joy *in* life, the exultation of physical being, the spiritually untroubled Greek ideal. Penelope, Pandora, Proserpina—these as they appear to us through the medium of Rossetti's subtle and beautiful art are not the Penelope and Pandora sung of and painted from time immemorial, the Proserpina who wandered in fair girlhood in the bright sunshine along the warm, sweet-scented Sicilian fields; but through the eyes of *this* Penelope all womanhood that dreams and yearns for a scarcely definite yet apprehended ideal love seems to look forth; in the eyes of *this* Pandora lie prophetic gleams of all she, typical of woman, can let loose upon the world, as she opens the casket from whence wing, in circling and evasive flight, passions and delights and joys and sorrows; and in the face of *this* Proserpina, queen of the dark realms, as she passes along the corridor in her splendid but desolate palace, there broods the regret and the passionate longing of all women who look into the past, and see that it is full of light, and that its day can never dawn again."

This extract not only marks Rossetti as romantic, symbolizing, and mystical, but it also indicates well and accurately (and for this purpose we have quoted it at length) the special character of his pictures to such as have never seen them, and helps to an understanding of the fascination they possess over men in whose minds, as in his, beauty and thought are not disjoined. Mr. Sharp, however, notwithstanding such eulogy as is implied in the above passage, has no disposition to become responsible for Rossetti's defects by approval of them. In both arts, it must be confessed, Rossetti's command of technique was far from perfect. In painting he did not draw well, never having learned how, and his continual repetition of the same face in successive pictures was a weakness. In poetry he did not know nature; and all must notice in his verses the paucity of natural facts and the lack of feeling for them; what few there are, being such as strike an artist's eye rather than stir a poet's heart. But we doubt if any man of equal poetic endowment ever remarked to a friend that it was "wonderful how much a bit of nature helps," or ever wrote to an acquaintance, as Rossetti does, in a letter here given, for "a feature or incident characteristic of the glen at nightfall," to put in his poem, when he had just spent some time in the place referred to. His treatment, too, is frequently literary, as distinguished from natural, depending on study or inspiration at second-hand. An analogous fault appears in his diction, in the Queen-Annishness of such a line as

"The embowered throstles' urgent wood-notes soar."

His choice of form was by no means instinctive, and was sometimes far from right, as noticeably in "The White Ship" and the beryl song of "Rose Mary"; he occasionally sank into bathos in wholly meaningless though fine-sounding lines; his music is monotonous, his ear for dissyllables is very defective, and his rhymes, now and then, are incomprehensible. Nearly all these blemishes Mr. Sharp notices; but the claim that, in spite of them, he makes for Rossetti as a remarkably original, exceptionally endowed, and influential mind, is valid. Neither the history of English art nor of English poetry can be written without reckoning with him—though in poetry, at least, Mr. Sharp evidently thinks the æsthetic school is already moribund.

Medical Economy during the Middle Ages: A Contribution to the History of European Morals from the Time of the Roman Empire to the Close of the Fourteenth Century. By George F. Fort, Author of the 'Early History and Antiquities of Free-Masonry.' 1 vol. 8vo, pp. xii.–488. J. W. Bouton. 1883.

THIS is one of the works which would be the

gainer if the advice of Sidney Smith were followed, to avoid all prejudice by never reading a book that one is reviewing. At first sight, everything is in its favor. It is attractively printed; the subject of medical superstitions (for that is apparently the meaning of the somewhat enigmatical title) is a good one, and the affluent display of industrious learning in the innumerable references in the foot-notes seems to give assurance that the author has ransacked every attainable source of information in many languages, and that his book may be regarded as the last word on a most fruitful topic in which our literature is singularly deficient. Pettigrew's 'Medical Superstitions' is a mere sketch, amounting practically to little or nothing; Oswald Cockayne's admirable 'Saxon Leechdoms, Wortcunning, and Starcraft,' though amply full of detail within its prescribed limits, is still bounded by those limits; and Hecker's 'Epidemics of the Middle Ages,' translated by Babington for the Sydenham Society, only touches partially on the ground covered by our author. The critic, therefore, is in every way predisposed in favor of the book.

He is somewhat startled, however, by the initial paragraph of the Preface:

"In its general purpose, the object of the treatise now published under the preceding title may be stated to be an historical inquiry into the practical effect upon social life throughout the period traversed, of that singular credence which involved supernatural agencies. Perhaps no portion of society of the Middle Ages reveals greater susceptibility to these curious influences than that appertaining to the preservation and restoration of bodily vigor."

Without fully acquiescing in the French aphorism, "le style c'est l'homme," one is usually safe in assuming that a man who thinks clearly will write clearly, and conversely, that a confused, rambling, unintelligible style indicates corresponding qualities of mind. Never have we met with a more painful display of these undesirable peculiarities than in the case of Mr. Fort. His opening paragraph is a fair specimen of what follows. Thus, we are pompously told, in introducing Galen to our notice, that

"Barbarism permanently domiciled by the side of a corrupting Grecian civilization, mournfully predicted and justly forecast by the inflexible Censor of Republican Rome, mutually strained the social fabric by their perverted humanity, which dissipated the martial essence of the colossal government" (pp. 29, 30).

And of Galen himself:

"Of all the sectarians of curative dogmatism, he was the most fertile, the most dexterous and puissant, and in the universality of professional scope the most extensive (p. 32). . . . Four years later, proceeding to Smyrna for the purpose of attending the instruction of Pelops in dissection, thence to Corinth to listen to the Numescarius [*sic*], and finally to Alexandria, where he devoted himself exclusively to anatomy, and, as it appears, to vivisection, at the instance of Boethius, of such subjects as were procurable, where he sojourned for an extended period to complete his studies" (p. 33).

While of the Greek physicians who flocked to Rome, we are informed (p. 4) that "their services were gradually became indispensable"; and similar flowers of rhetoric could be culled from almost every page.

The matter of the book corresponds with its manner. It consists of a vast number of undigested facts, thrown together with little perception of orderly sequence, and connected by inconsequent remarks that fail to draw from the abundant material any significant results. Nor are the facts by any means to be always implicitly relied on. We are given to understand, for instance (p. 29), that the Pillars of Hercules were the same as "Ultima Thule"; and on page 23 we have the extraordinary statement that the dignity of the archiatri, or chief public physicians, was upheld by Constantine, in his law of 321, which "interdicted the issuance of a warrant against them to bring their body [*sic*] before the courts . . . under a most exemplary fine, and the penalty of being flayed alive"! Now, the law referred to (Cod. Theodos. XIII. iii. 1) provides the single penalty of 100,000 nummi for persecuting ("si quis eos vexaverit") grammarians, physicians, and other professors of learning, with the addition that if the offender is a slave he ought to be flogged by his master. There is nothing about flaying anybody alive, and Godefroi, in his commentary, suggests that the law was probably enacted to restrain the Christians from prosecuting members of the learned professions, who were mostly Pagans.

Contrasting strongly with this is a piece of German legislation quoted (p. 9), to the effect that physicians experimenting with the lives of their patients were to be broken on the wheel. The date of this law is stated to be 1532; the authority given for it is "Carciani" (Canciani), whose collection of laws does not come down beyond the thirteenth century; the reference made is to a page that does not exist in his work, and the law is said to be cap. 134 of the "Leg. Barb."—a code which is to be found nowhere save in the imagination of the author. A more curious muddle of mistakes, typographical or otherwise, could hardly be put together in the space of three lines. We presume that Mr. Fort intended to refer to cap. 134 of the *Carolina* (the criminal code issued by Charles V. in 1532), which provides the penalty of the wheel for skilled physicians who administer drugs for the purpose of killing their patients—"necandi hominis causa"—a very different thing from risking their lives by experiments.

If Mr. Fort is thus free with his syntax and his authorities, he is no less a law unto himself in the matter of his vocabulary. "Adoptation" passes current (p. 3) for "adoption"; "sacerdoty" (p. 9) for "priesthood"; "accessory" (p. 11) seems to mean "cure"; what "social sensuousness" (p. 13) indicates, we confess our inability to make out; "this scholastic" (p. 16) apparently connotes a physician—a term which is also implied by "medicists" (p. 19); "the Comitava" (p. 20) we presume stands for "comitiva dignitas"; on the same page "guardianship" and "tutelage" are used as convertible terms, and "descendable" is employed in the sense of "heritable," while on page 273 "funebral" is used for "funereal," we hear of "flowers blooming in aromic beauty," and we are told that St. Sulpicius was a "saintess."

These additions to the vernacular could be multiplied indefinitely; but we have already bestowed too much space on a virtually unreadable book, and we must conclude with an expression of unfeigned regret. That regret is twofold. The author has evidently bestowed time, money, and labor in no stinted measure on its production, and it is melancholy to see a life thus wasted through lack of the literary faculty and the power to coördinate the results of his researches, when it would have given us so real a pleasure to welcome a successful explorer in fields which so few American scholars have traversed. We regret, moreover, the loss of the opportunity to add to our literature a book which would be of no common value. Any one who would, in a philosophic spirit, bring together all that modern science has developed as to the belief in supernatural remedies among the earlier races of mankind, in India, Persia, Assyria, Egypt, and Judæa, and trace their descent and modifications through the Hellenic, Italiote, and Teutonic peoples down to the Middle Ages, with their survivals in modern civilization, would render a service of the highest moment to students of human progress and development. This work remains to be done, and Mr. Fort, we need hardly say, is not the man by whom it is likely to be accomplished.

Specimens of Early English. A new and revised edition with Introduction, Notes, and Glossarial Index by the Rev. Richard Morris, LL.D. Part I. from 'Old English Homilies' to 'King Horn,' A. D. 1150–A. D. 1300. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, 1882; London: Henry Frowde.

An Anglo-Saxon Primer. With Grammar, Notes, and Glossary by Henry Sweet, M.A. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press, 1882; London: Henry Frowde.

THE volume of specimens of Early English begun by Dr. Morris and just finished by Professor Skeat completes a series from Cædmon to Spenser. When the delegates of the Clarendon Press undertook some twenty years ago to publish text-books for the study of English, the period before Spenser was quite beyond the reach of general scholarship. There were current editions, to be sure, of Chaucer and of some of the classic Anglo-Saxon books, but they were too far apart and too little critical to be of much use in studying the history of the language. A trackless chaos yawned between Anglo Saxon and Chaucer. The materials for a road across it lay in manuscripts difficult of access and a few rare books. A first attempt was made in 1867 by Dr. Morris. His volume is now replaced by three prepared by Dr. Morris and Professor Skeat. The present volume contains the oldest extracts, closing up to the 'Anglo-Saxon Reader' of Mr. Sweet. It is the last to appear because it was the most difficult to prepare. We have now in the completed series, including Mr. Sweet's 'Reader,' extracts from ninety-two different works, selected mainly on the ground of fitness to illustrate the language at each step of its progress. They are of adequate length, carefully spelled according to the period to which they belong, accompanied with brief grammars of the different periods, and with grammatical and critical notes and full vocabularies. The editors are the best scholars of England in this department. Dr. Morris and Professor Skeat are also skilful teachers, and know how to adapt their work to the habits and needs of the class-room. The books are printed at the Oxford Press and are every way suited for academic study. They are also full of interest and of scientific instruction for every student of English. The grammarian has here spread out before him the slow and irregular procedure with which the elaborate inflections of the Anglo-Saxon period weathered away; the modern Englishman may here observe the gradual picking up by the Saxons of Norman and Latin words, and the slow growth of our present rich vocabulary.

The latest volume, excellent as it is, is still in questionable shape. There is a difficulty with it in the nature of the case. It deals with the period when the Anglo-Saxon was falling into dialects. The specimens follow the manuscripts, and these are mostly phonetic, so that the spelling indicates the varying pronunciation of different localities, and brings out all sorts of dialectic peculiarities. And here arises the difficulty. Do we propose to study these dialects? For a thorough critical study these text-books do not afford sufficient material, and they are open to criticism of their accuracy. German scholars have lately taken up Early English: the swarms of their eager students have reached this region, and suggested many new readings in the extracts here given, a considerable number of which are claimed to be more accurate decipherings of the manuscripts. Dr. E. Kölbing, to whom these

studies owe so much, is already urging in the *Englische Studien* that his readings have not received due attention.

But it may be said that any such study of the old dialects is not to be expected or desired. There is no more interest or value in it than in the study of modern English dialects. But nobody thinks of introducing even Scottish for general study in our schools. To set about learning grammars of all the dialects and their laws of phonetic change is out of the question. The object of a book of specimens of this sort must be mainly gratification of curiosity to see how the speech of that period looked. But for rapid reading and speedy getting of a general view, the explanations in this volume are hardly copious enough, and demand too much dictionary and grammar work. Attention is called to niceties of pronunciation and grammar which call on the teacher or student for a higher kind of accuracy than is needed for general reading, and which is embarrassing and unsatisfactory. It is plain enough, however, that no book could be made which would satisfy everybody, perhaps none more acceptable than this.

Mr. Sweet's 'Anglo-Saxon Primer' is a neat volume of 116 pages, 53 of which are grammar, 36 are extracts for reading, and the rest notes and glossary. Mr. Sweet is the recognized chief of the English students of Anglo-Saxon, and this book is a model one in its method, clearness, accuracy, and originality. It is one of the felicities of our time that original investigators of the first rank are willing to prepare elementary text-books on their specialties, but it may be doubted whether this practice has not a drawback in the undue prominence often given to the special views of the authors. Mr. Sweet has made a specialty of half-a-dozen manuscripts of Alfred's time, which had before been neglected, and of phonetics. He is for having the spelling of these manuscripts and the pronunciation which he believes to have been used by their writers adopted as the standard Anglo-Saxon language, and for having the dictionaries and elementary books reconstructed on that basis.

For his 'Primer,' as he does not find in these manuscripts the extracts he wants for reading, he has respelled extracts from other works to suit his purpose, and he lays down as general rules of pronunciation the rules by which he believes the West Saxons pronounced. Thus our beginners in old English are to be taught to pronounce *f* always as *v*, *s* as *z*, *th* as *dh*, to say *vaedher* for *father*, *vor* for *for*, *zit* for *sit*, *dhink* for *think*, *dhree* for *three*, *Züdh-Zeaxone* for *South-Saxons*, and so on.

In this Mr. Sweet's manuscripts and his scientific phonology carry him too far from the main current of the English speech. Our modern English, which is our main interest in the study, did not descend from the dialect of Wessex, nor was the original and prevalent use of the Roman alphabetic characters in Anglo-Saxon determined by any such dialect. The general classic Anglo-Saxon uses these letters with the same powers they had in Latin, and have prevailingly in modern English. Perhaps no man in Wessex talked this Anglo-Saxon. So they say no man in Germany talks German. The book speech is none the less accepted for elementary instruction. Longfellow and Webster were Yankees, but it would make a queer primer to put together extracts from them rewritten into the spelling and pronunciation of the 'Biglow Papers.'

Mr. Sweet takes his own way in all sorts of things, as of course he would if he made a 'Primer' at all. He objects to illustrating the Anglo-Saxon by giving the corresponding forms in German, Latin, and other languages, as other makers of elementary Anglo-Saxon books have done. He overlabors the pronunciation, and, having denoted long vowels by an acute accent, he denotes accent by a period inserted before the accented vowel, which makes the words look like compounds incorrectly divided. He forms his declensions on the ground of gender, instead of by their stems, and gives the cases of his paradigms in an unusual order; so also in the paradigms of the adjective the order of genders is masculine, neuter, feminine. He has his own way in naming and exhibiting the conjugations. The syntax consists mainly of observations upon noticeable constructions occurring in the book. The regular staple of common rules used in drilling beginners is not here. It would be padding, doubtless, to Mr. Sweet, and that would be intolerable.

La Gravure: Précis élémentaire de ses origines, de ses procédés et de son histoire. Par Le Vicomte Henri Delaborde. Paris: A. Quantin; New York: J. W. Bouton.

Les Procédés de la Gravure. Par Alfred de Lostalot. Same publishers.

THESE two works form part of a Library of Fine-Art Instruction, published with official approval, and designed to supply a deficiency of elementary manuals in France, especially for the students and graduates of the lycées, and again for young women as well as young men. The collection already embraces eight volumes, octavo, sold at three or four francs each, according as they are stitched or bound. The two before us overlap each other less than might be supposed from their titles.

M. Delaborde's task was to relate the rise and progress of the art of engraving in the several countries of Europe. He has done this with the ease which his great familiarity with the subject permitted, at the same time giving a literary flavor to his recital unusual in such compendiums. His method is biographical by preference, and there could be no surer way to interest. We find here, as was to be expected, sound views, fair appreciation, and sober criticism of the various masters under discussion. Naturally the French school is most dwelt upon, and there is perhaps here and there a trace of national antipathy toward the Germans. M. Delaborde is a partisan of the Dutch in the dispute over the origin of wood-blocks and of movable type—he will only allow Gutenberg to have been the first type founder. This does not necessarily proceed from chauvinism, and we would not insist upon it. His handbook is, it must next be remarked, devoted almost exclusively to metal-engraving. At the beginning, proper notice is taken of the early development of engraving on wood, but the subject is not pursued beyond Dürer, his pupils and imitators. Nor is etching treated of except in a very subordinate manner. What M. Delaborde has to say of metal-engraving in this country is not very flattering, nor by comparison with Europe is it unjust. Still, one feels that he writes without knowledge of our best achievements, or of the course of this branch of art from the first Boston engravers to the present time. And no one but a Frenchman would have spoken of "the engravings exposed for sale in New York *or New Orleans*," as if he had named the two centres of art productiveness in the United States.

M. de Lostalot has not made so readable a book as the foregoing, but this could hardly help being the case. His concern is with processes rather than with history or biography. On the subject of wood-engraving he is much more satisfactory than M. Delaborde, following the safe guidance of M. Firmin-Didot. But he too stumbles in praising American wood-engravers for having carried their mechanical appliances to the highest perfection, and implying that they have abandoned the manual dexterity which can alone be associated with works of art. Etching, line-engraving, mezzotint, aquatint, and other modes of metal-engraving are described with more or less fulness for practical use, together with a host of methods for obtaining relief plates from incised, whose names would have made Quintilian stare and gasp. American readers curious in such matters will find themselves initiated into a great many "processes," both derived from and independent of photography, by which any kind of drawing or wash or tone picture can be copied in facsimile or expressed in lines—processes more numerously in vogue in France than elsewhere. M. de Lostalot proposes the substitution of the sandblast for acid in etching; compliments the English on their incomparable color-printing after Miss Greenaway, Walter Crane, and R. Caldecott; and, taking up a subject wholly neglected by M. Delaborde, lithography, vindicates its quality and its future in what is much the most entertaining chapter in the book, though pretty strictly limited in its survey to France.

Both these volumes are profusely illustrated, but the cuts are rather promiscuously disposed, especially in 'Les Procédés,' and are not always chosen so as to be of the greatest assistance. Reductions of the whole of a design are constantly given where a fragment enlarged or at scale would have met the student's need far better. Again, there are too many facsimiles made by the graver. Finally, the press-work of the cuts leaves something to be desired. Still, the examples taken together, especially those of early printing, offer a notable addition to any similar collection with which we are acquainted.

Der Buddhismus in seiner Psychologie. Von A. Bastian. Berlin. 1882.

Der Buddhismus und seine Geschichte in Indien. Von Heinrich Kern. Translated by Hermann Jacobi. First volume. Leipzig. 1882.

DR. BASTIAN, though professing to treat only of the psychology of Buddhism, makes an exhaustive treatise on the entire system. It is so full of matter, sometimes relevant and sometimes not, that it would be hopeless to attempt to review the points of the argument, or the facts brought forward in illustration of the argument, adopted by the author. The useful index at the beginning of the work will exhibit for sufficient purpose the scope of the book. Under the heading "Mikrokosmos," the author considers his subject technically; he explains the character of Buddhism as it relates to the mental constitution of man. The khanda, or the constituents of his personal existence, the sangkhara, the ayatana, and so on, are considered severally; and the entire nomenclature of the subjective part of Buddhism is exhibited and explained in detail. Under the heading "Makrokosmos," the author brings under our notice the external view of the system. Its connection with the outer world, the heavens and earth, the gods and their mode of existence, are considered from a Buddhist point of view, and contrasted with other religious systems or philosophical theories. The amount of learning brought to bear on this part of the treatise is quite surprising, and makes the study a severe trial. The third chapter refers to the teaching of Buddhism. Here we have the "four truths," the foundation of Buddha's doctrine, explained. After this, the author directs us to consider Buddha's method of teaching by parable; his views respecting caste; the abstruse doctrine of dharma; the nature of Adi-Buddha, and so on.

It will be seen from this bare outline, that the author includes in his plan the entire substance of Buddhist teaching. One portion alone, as, *e. g.*, that of "the dharma," would be enough for review; the whole circle of doctrine is beyond our reach. With respect to "the other world" (*das Jenseits*), the most important subject is the meaning of Nirvâna. Here we notice the author adopts the theory, now generally accepted, that Nirvâna is of two sorts: the condition of the Arahat (or the fruit of Arahatship), which is known as Upádidisesanibbána—that is, Nirvâna "having remains"; and Anupádidisesanibbána, which is the condition of a Buddha after the death of his body. What this last condition is, our author explains partially as "a mode of existence independent of space and time." This seems to point to the idea that Nirvâna is, after all, the condition of the "absolute"—absolute existence, without relationship and unconditional. It is more and more evident that the interesting part of Buddhism lies in the study of its teaching as an ethical system; its philosophy and psychology are beyond the intelligence of the present age.

Prof. Kern's volume contrasts strongly with that just reviewed. Here all is order, and the argument a plain one; in the former, learning and profuse illustration hide the form of the argument and obscure the conclusions drawn. Prof. Kern, first of all, seeks the explanation of the term âtman, as this is the key of Indian philosophy. He compares it to "light." This light, entering the range of man's intellectual being, gives him the idea of "self." But self is no reality: it is like the salt taken up by the water; it can have no separate existence apart from the water. Self, then, is a delusion, a misunderstanding (*Missverständniss*). On this mistake depends the entire result of human experience, its joy and its misery; and only when the mistake is rectified is there a return to man's right condition. This, then, is the object of Indian philosophy and its religious teaching, to show us the non-reality of the "self," and to give us freedom in the knowledge of the unreality of this fetter.

The author then proceeds to consider the Buddha-legend. He derives the points of his comparison principally from the 'Lalita-Vistara.' This work, however, is hardly a fair criterion of the primitive legend, as it undoubtedly belongs to a late period in the Buddhist development. The author considers the legend to be allied to the Sun-myth, in keeping with the view of M. Sénart. But there is certainly behind the myth a real and living personality. Buddha was a human teacher. The events of his early life and the more obscure portions of his mature age may be mythical, but we can hardly doubt that he lived and died like other great teachers—the wonder of the age while alive, and the early recipient of an apotheosis after his death.

In considering the legend, our author well says that the groundwork of Buddhism and, in short, of all heathen teaching, whether in India or Europe, is the dogma, "that all that is born must die." This is the keynote sounded by Buddha himself, as the foundation of his system. The condition of Nirvâna, the highest good, is the condition that admits of "neither birth nor death"; and to find this condition is the one aim he proposes in his teaching and his method of life.

It will be found, after all, that the mass of Buddhist literature may be reduced to small limits, when this is understood, that Buddha was not a philosopher himself, but a man deeply affected by a sense of human misery, and impressed with a conviction that this misery may be remedied. His system may have grown into a philosophy, but as it came from his own hands it was a bold attempt to stem the tide of evil by giving up all thoughts of "self" as finite, and allowing the "infinite" light of the "highest self" to enter and restore the subject, miscalled the individual, to the condition of an original un-selfconsciousness.

A Grammar of the Homeric Dialect. By D. B. Monro, Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. Clarendon Press Series. Large 8vo, pp. 344.

THIS handsome volume is a work of much merit, and it will be warmly welcomed by students of Homer, for there was a real need of a Homeric grammar in English. Mr. Monro seems peculiarly well fitted to have undertaken such a work. He has for years been engaged in Homeric studies, has a thorough acquaintance with the German literature on the subject, and has been recently associated with the famous Cobet, of Leyden, in the collation of the Venetian manuscript (Codex Venetus A) upon which Dindorf's edition of the Venetian scholia of the 'Iliad' (Clarendon Press, 1877) is based. In 1877, Mr. Monro published an admirable little volume, entitled 'Book I. of the Iliad, with Notes and an Essay on Homeric Grammar.' Those terse and suggestive notes are to be regarded, we presume, as a specimen of Mr. Monro's long-promised critical commentary; that essay on Homeric grammar was plainly the germ whence the present bulky treatise has grown.

This Homeric grammar, it should be stated at the outset, is not adapted, as it was probably not designed, to serve as a text-book. It is rather a thesaurus of information upon Homeric forms and syntax. The author cites in his preface the numerous sources whence he has derived assistance, pointing out that a book of this kind must be to great extent a compilation, and acknowledging special obligation to Curtius, Delbrück, and La Roche. He begins his grammar with the examination of the forms of the verb, and follows closely the lines of Curtius's *Verbum*. By his constant use of the terms *thematic* and *non-thematic* forms, he will help to habituate English and American readers to the disuse of the expression *connecting vowel*, to which even our elementary manuals must ultimately come. When we have once fairly begun to use the new nomenclature, we shall probably find that it is simpler to speak of appending a personal ending directly to a *theme* λεγε or λεγο than to speak of joining it to a *stem* λεγ by a connecting vowel.

The remarks on the Greek passive are valuable. The author points out that we should rather speak of a passive use of middle forms than of a passive voice. This passive sense commonly grew out of the reflexive meaning proper to the middle, as may be illustrated by many French reflexive verbs; but in the so-called aorists passive (aorists in -ην and -θην) was probably developed out of an original intransitive meaning.

There are some interesting observations upon the augment. Augmented and unaugmented forms are about equally common in Homer, except in the speeches, where the augment is rarely lacking. Hence the inference is drawn that the augment is freely omitted in ordinary narrative because the context plainly shows that past time is referred to. Monro's statement, in this connection, that the augment is *always* lacking in iterative forms (p. 44), is more sweeping than Curtius and other grammarians venture to make.

We have not space to follow the author in his discussion of the declensions, which are less fully treated than the verb, but must pass at once to the syntax. The accusative is treated under two great divisions: the accusative of the internal and of the external object. The dative case falls under three heads: the true dative, the instrumental dative, the locatival dative. The classification of the genitive is as follows: true genitive, ablatival genitive. We would refer the reader particularly to the discussion (p. 105 ff.) of the subdivision called the quasi-partitive genitive.

The Homeric student will be interested in following through the long lists of translated examples illustrating the various uses of the cases. Mr. Monro's translations are exceedingly apt, and these lists are a very valuable part of the book. That is a useful remark, thrown out under the head of the vocative, that when two persons are addressed, the second name has regularly the nominative form. The various uses of the infinitive are traced back to its original form as the dative case of an abstract verbal noun. Hence the use of the infinitive to express purpose is easily derived, while the very common use of the infinitive as the subject of a substantive verb is seen not to have been the earliest use. Here we may mention the passage, B 291, ἦ μὴν καὶ πόνος ἐστὶν ἀνιηθέντα νέεσθαι. This is usually translated: "Verily it is a hardship to return in vexation." Monro suggests this rendering: "Verily there is toil (enough) to make a man return." The chapter on the uses of the article in Homer strikes us as one of the most original and valuable in the book. We cannot follow the author in his lengthy treatment (forty-six pages) of the moods, further than to say that he adopts Delbrück's views of the subjunctive and optative. "The subjunctive is used to express the will of the speaker or his sense of the necessity of some future event, and is commonly rendered by *shall* and *must;* the optative expresses a gradation of notions, from a simple wish down to a mere supposition or simple possibility."

The grammar closes with an admirable essay on metre and quantity in Homer, and three indexes (of Homeric forms discussed, of subjects treated, of passages in the Homeric poems referred to) make readily available the large stores of information here for the first time collected in a single treatise.

Colin Clout's Calendar. By Grant Allen. New York: Funk & Wagnalls.

THIS is a chatty volume somewhat after the style of White's 'Selborne,' and gives the record of an English summer from a Darwinian's point of view. The striking and trifling characters by which certain plants obtain and keep an ascendancy over their fellows are described in an attractive and forcible manner. There are some infelicities of expression which indicate that the work must have been hastily, not to say carelessly, prepared. Thus: "They blossom early, do the hyacinths, because they have got a good stock of material in their bulb to go on upon"; and, "Thoroughly well-established and ancient species do not throw back so easily or so often to less advanced ancestral forms." A good deal of interesting folk-lore is scattered through the book, which thereby becomes better suited to the general reader. The world will never be weary of gossipy works on natural history, provided the amount of information conveyed in them is not too great or too improving. The charm of such books is not a little heightened when, as in this case, a few touches of local history of customs, words, and places are added.

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Eger, G. Technologisches Wörterbuch in englischer und deutscher Sprache. Part 1. English-German. Braunschweig: Friedrich Vieweg & Sohn; New York: B. Westermann & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 17, 1883.

The Week.

THE past week has presented but few new features in the trade and industry of the country. Business in general merchandise continues fair, but not equal to the volume of last year and not quite equal to expectations for the present. The troubles in the iron business continue. Prices of pig iron have declined, with a prospect of a further decline, and the expected strike among the iron workers in the Western mills on June 1 is still pending. The most encouraging feature of the past week has been the improvement in the prospects for the wheat crop. In financial affairs the significant symptom has been the decrease of activity of the railroad-bond market. The total sales of bonds in the open market have not been more than one-third as large as in the preceding week. Money has continued to increase in the market, and rates for call loans have declined to 3 and 4 per cent., while rates for discount of mercantile paper have been reduced an average of ½ of 1 per cent. for all classes of discounts. Speculative capital has gone largely into grain, and especially into wheat, and has had the effect of making prices in American markets relatively higher than in the foreign market. The result has been a diminished export of breadstuffs from the United States in the past fortnight. Speculative capital has to a considerable extent been diverted from the stock market into operations in grain, and has had the effect of making a languid and drooping market for railroad stocks.

At last the troublesome question, Who is to be Chief Examiner under the Civil-Service Commission? has been settled, as it ought to have been settled at the beginning, by the appointment of Mr. Charles Lyman. He understands the business he is to do, he is devoted to the cause he is to serve, and there is general confidence in his fitness as well as his good faith. The Commission has now an executive agent upon whom it can depend. It ought to recognize that those who saved it from the consequences of its first mistake rendered it a very great service. The press and the President are entitled to its thanks, the press for promptly protesting against an appointment which would have burdened the Commission with no end of embarrassment and trouble, and the President for prudently holding back the appointment until public opinion had fully manifested itself, and then helping the Commission out of their dilemma by inducing Mr. Keim to withdraw. The Commission has been aided very effectively and in a most friendly spirit, although in a way which at first may have been an unpleasant surprise.

A clause has been inserted, it is said, at Secretary Frelinghuysen's request, in the extradition treaty with Belgium, providing that "an attempt against the life of the head of a foreign government, or against that of any member of his family, when such attempt comprises the act either of murder or assassination, shall not be considered a political offence, or an act connected with such offence." As this stands, it is difficult to regard it as otherwise than unfortunate. It suggests very strongly the idea that the assassination of the head of a foreign government is to be treated as an exception to a general rule, under which the assassination of other officers than the head of a government may be a political offence, or an offence connected with politics. As a matter of fact, however, if we are to help by treaty to protect any foreign political personages from assassination, we ought not to confine its operation to the heads of foreign governments. The present clause was doubtless drafted under the influence of President Garfield's assassination, but the analogy between the American President and the head of a foreign government is in most cases very defective. There is no monarch in Europe, except the Emperor of Russia, who is head of the government in the sense in which our President is. In most European countries to-day the temptation to assassinate the Prime Minister is far stronger than the temptation to assassinate the King, and his assassination would produce more important political results. The murder of Mr. Gladstone or Prince Bismarck, for instance, would be a far more political offence than the murder of Queen Victoria or the Emperor William. The murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish, too, was more significant as a political event than that of the Lord-Lieutenant would have been. In other words, if we are going to include in the treaty murders committed from political motives on any officer of a government, we ought to include all officers of the government, or at least all conspicuous ones.

As the Belgian treaty will now stand, it looks very much as if we at least wished to leave the murder of a Prime Minister a doubtful case, to be passed on as matter of policy whenever it arises. But we really ought not, on a matter of this sort, to leave any doubt whatever as to our position. We ought to say either that we shall not bind ourselves as to any murder committed from political motives, no matter who may be the victim, or bind ourselves with regard to all officers of foreign governments whose political position exposes them to the special hatred of fanatics or conspirators. The better course would therefore seem to be either to put all murders, from whatever motive, in the same category, without either express or implied exceptions, or reserve to ourselves the right of deciding each case on its merits—that is, of saying whether any given murder was a political offence, or an offence connected therewith, or not That, as has been suggested, the insertion of the new clause in the Belgian treaty indicates that the Government will give up Sheridan and Tynan, seems very unlikely. It seems to us to indicate, on the contrary, that the President means to reserve to himself the right of deciding whether the murder of any officer but the head of a government is an extraditable offence or not. But it also illustrates very strikingly the confusion which surrounds the whole subject.

We print elsewhere a letter on the offer of Columbia College in the matter of the higher education of women. As we have not said the offer was a satisfactory one, most of "E. T. M.'s" argument applies to the Columbia trustees rather than to us, and we think it perfectly sound. If we supposed this offer was going to be a finality, we should probably advise the petitioners to let it alone. But, considering that it comes from a college which a year ago refused to publish a report, and has stood so far apart from the community in which it has existed for 150 years that it has only received two small donations, and that the plan of the Committee was probably drafted by a gentleman who within three months has been denouncing the higher education of women from the pulpit, partly as something incomprehensible and partly as a suggestion of Satan, we think it shows wonderful progress in the right direction, and progress that will continue. We believe, therefore, that it would be wise to accept it and act on it as vigorously as may be. All objections to its acceptance drawn from the history of female education at Oxford or Cambridge, or even Harvard, strike us as beside the mark. The friends of higher education here are working in a very different social and intellectual atmosphere, and are dealing with a University which has been managed hitherto under very different influences. We hold that anything done in New York in the way of public recognition of young women's claim to and fitness for a collegiate education is really a great thing, and that any step toward giving it made by Columbia College is a valuable step. We have not advised the acceptance of its offer as all that is expected, but simply as much as may be looked for this year from an institution so conservative. Nothing will do so much to obtain further concessions as the practical demonstration that there are young women in the city who want a man's course and are competent to take it. Doubtless Dr. Dix ought to be satisfied of this by the experience of the English universities; but then he is evidently one of that large class of very estimable people on whose imagination such facts of their own day as are remote, either in time or space, make but little impression. We must be patient with this order of minds if we are dependent on it for assistance in any field of activity.

The silver question has come up in a practical shape in a quarter in which one would least have expected it. It appears that the American Baptist Missionary Society has been paying the salaries of its missionaries in the East in silver rupees instead of American gold, which the missionaries, according to their story, expected. That is, the Society has been pay-

ing them in rupees at par, just as we might pay our Government officers in silver dollars, while actually buying the rupees at the market discount on silver, which makes them only worth about ninety-one cents. This has been going on now for ten years, or ever since silver began to depreciate, and the missionaries estimate a loss to them and a gain to somebody else by this process during that period of over $50,000. Who profited by it does not clearly appear, which is the most serious part of the affair, as the missionaries allege that the saving on the silver is not accounted for in the treasurer's reports. Thus, one salary, which is set down in the reports at $600, only cost $500, a missionary says, to pay in rupees, and the question is, What has become of the difference?

Commander Gorringe's new ship-yard appears to be in some sort a revolutionary undertaking. It is intended to show that we can build iron ships as cheaply as the English and Scotch builders, and hence to show that subsidies and navigation laws are unnecessary. Mr. Gorringe has already taken contracts which will enable him to prove the truth or error of this assumption. The price of iron is very much in favor of the shipbuilder, and is likely to continue so for a sufficient time to close out all existing contracts. As Mr. Gorringe gets his yard and plant for the first year or so free of cost, he has some advantages over his competitors on both sides of the Atlantic. Yet, when all these factors are taken into the account, it will be a very surprising thing if a yard on the Delaware shall be able to turn out ships at the same price as the yards on the Clyde; and if Mr. Gorringe succeeds in doing this he will have accomplished a much greater achievement than the carrying of Cleopatra's Needle from Alexandria to New York.

The retirement of Jay Gould from active practice in Wall Street in the prime of life has naturally led to a great deal of speculation as to his probable employment of his leisure, but there seems to be the same difficulty in getting at the exact facts that there used to be so often in ascertaining the real truth about his business movements. He himself declares that he is simply going yachting, and points to the fact that he has had a yacht built at an enormous expense in proof of the truth of this assertion. Notwithstanding this there are, it seems, people who are circulating a story that he and Mr. W. E. Connor have purchased "a large tract of sandy land" in Florida, where they are going to engage in the cultivation of the orange. Mr. Connor himself says the story is "ridiculous"; that he bought the land that he might "have a place to go fishing," and that he does not think orange trees would grow on it. This reply, which is very good as far as it goes, is met by the statement that a contract has been signed to plant the trees, and the question is still undecided. It may seem as if it was nobody's business but that of Mr. Gould himself whether he took to planting oranges or not; but this is a narrow view to take. His entrance upon any new field cannot be regarded as an entirely private event, because it is sure to have such wide-reaching effects. Just as he powerfully affected the development of jurisprudence and the railway system of the country, he may be expected now to produce changes in any light pursuit to which he devotes himself, though what these may be, we cannot of course predict. Will yachting, or orange culture, or fishing—will they ever be quite the same as they have hitherto been when Mr. Gould has taken a hand in them for a few years? The same thing may be said of athletic sports, should he see fit to devote himself to these. Were he to become a leading promoter of lawn-tennis, or base-ball, would not the whole country be interested in the probable future of those games? When a man like Mr. Gould joins the leisure classes, it can no longer be regarded as a merely private matter.

Mr. D. A. Wells has been exposing, in the Princeton *Review*, the stories told by Mr. W. D. Kelley, the Rev. Cyrus Hamlin, and others about the enormous expenditures of the Cobden Club for purposes of bribery and corruption in the United States. According to Mr. Kelley, the Club raised and transmitted to the United States $1,000,000 in 1880, and according to the Rev. Cyrus Hamlin, the Club expended "vast sums" during the last ten or twelve years to "incite our farmers against the Government and manufacturers." Mr. Wells shows that the Club is composed of leading philanthropists, thinkers, jurists, statesmen, and philosophers in England and on the Continent—of men, that is to say, about as capable of raising money for secret bribery or corruption as of organizing for the robbery of railroad trains—and that the income of the Club has never in any one year reached $15,000, and is expended on the circulation of books and pamphlets and an annual dinner. Of course the story is ridiculous. It makes Englishmen and Frenchmen laugh and feel sorry for us. But then Mr. Wells makes a great mistake if he thinks he has ruined it, or that it can be ruined by any evidence. It is one of the sacred myths of protectionism, and cannot be exploded by any amount of human testimony. We might just as well go to the College of Louvain and try to explode the miracle stories in the Bollandist Lives of the Saints. Good protectionists will always, as part of their creed, believe that American free-traders are paid with "British gold." It is now one of the things which most of them learnt in childhood, and is lodged in far deeper recesses of their constitution than their understanding.

According to some of our contemporaries in Kentucky, the attorneys of "little Phil Thompson," in his trial for the murder of Mr. Davis, should have taken the ground not only that Thompson committed no crime in putting Davis to death, but that he performed a very virtuous and honorable act, a failure to perform which would have been a shameful neglect of his duty to society. Instead of this, their plea is "emotional insanity." They virtually admit that if Thompson was not a madman when he shot Davis, he was a murderer. But what, according to this, will be the plea of the newspapers which have been so vociferously maintaining that Thompson was neither a madman nor a murderer, but a hero, an intrepid avenger of the outraged hearth, deserving a civic crown?

Even Kentucky homicide has a comic side to it. A week or two ago the editor of the Louisville *Courier-Journal* announced his intention of delivering a lecture against homicide and pistol-carrying, and in advocacy of the enforcement of the law, and the like, to the young men at one of the colleges there. But in the interval the "Phil" Thompson murder was committed, which so tickled his fancy that he anticipated the lecture by a dithyrambic article in his paper apostrophising the family shotgun as the poor man's best friend, and the true and great defence of domestic hearthstones, registers, stoves, and other heating apparatus, against libertines and seducers, and glorifying "Little Phil's" exploit.

The trial of Dunn for the murder of Elliott was begun on Thursday in Chicago, and Mr. Emory Storrs assured the jury that the case was one of justifiable homicide, Dunn having been obliged to kill Elliott in self-defence. Most people would imagine from this that Elliott attacked Dunn with a knife or revolver, or some other weapon, and that Dunn, to save his life, had to kill him. The case, however, was somewhat different from this. It was Dunn who armed himself and "went for" Elliott. He found him, most luckily, seated at a table in a restaurant talking with a friend, and at once began firing at him. Our readers may not think that this sounds like "self-defence," and it certainly does not, according to commonly received ideas on the subject. But Mr. Storrs's theory is this: Dunn knew that if he did not kill Elliott, Elliott would kill him. He knew this, not because Elliott committed any overt act, but because he was a bad man, and mentioned in conversation his intention to kill him. Therefore, there was nothing left for Dunn to do but to defend himself, which he certainly did very neatly and thoroughly. This is the same kind of "self-defence," only a more perfect illustration, that created so much difficulty in our courts when Conkling defended himself against Haverstick by shooting him down in his own house, and in Kentucky led to the escape of Crittenden, the man who quietly armed himself with a shotgun, hunted up an unarmed negro whom he disliked, and defended himself against the black rascal by taking his life on the spot. This theory of self-defence is new, and the interesting part of it is that it should always be the man who carries the revolver who has to defend himself against the man who is unarmed. The revolver apparently produces in the mind of the man who carries it an extreme apprehension of violence, and a corresponding ferocity of disposition in the minds of unarmed persons with whom he comes into contact. He goes about in constant bodily fear of them, and to save his life there is nothing for him to do but to kill.

Mitchell, the English "champion," has written a letter to the *Herald* on the subject of his recent glove-fight with Sullivan. He declares that he was not beaten at all, because the fight was stopped by Captain Williams, and all he wants is an opportunity to meet Sullivan again. He says, moreover, that there was no real referee, but only "a gentleman, Mahoney by name," who "acted as master of ceremonies in the absence of Pop Whittaker." Mahoney, too, though the fact might not be suspected from his name, is from Boston, and "a friend of Sullivan's." But then, on the other hand, the fairest referee—even "Pop" Whittaker himself—would have been of no use, for he would have had no authority to order the fight to go on if Captain Williams determined to stop it. The more carefully the matter is examined, the more clearly does it appear that the part now taken by the police in contests of this character robs a glove-fight of all real probative value.

Mr. Henry Irving recently made a speech in London, in the course of which he severely criticised the fashion of going to see amateur theatrical performances, on the curious ground that the public ought to occupy itself exclusively with supporting professional actors, "whose art," he said, "was their livelihood." Amateur acting must be very different in England from what it is in other countries, if its popularity is emptying the regular theatres. Nothing generally does so much to help the real stage as the amateurs, for two reasons—first, that, when the performances are good, they stimulate a general interest in the drama which inures to the benefit of the regular theatres; and, second, because so many amateur performances are of such a character as to make their victims long to see professionals, with a longing they would never have otherwise known.

The Supreme Court of the United States has, during the term which has just ended, accomplished, as usual, a great deal of work. It has disposed of 387 cases, about the same number as were got rid of during the preceding term. Only fourteen of the cases argued and submitted this term remain undisposed of; and among those argued and decided have been many, such as the Curtis political assessment case, the Kuklux decision, the Arlington estate case, and the Bond cases, which presented questions of more than ordinary importance. The court, strengthened as it is by the addition of Judge Gray and Judge Blatchford, is in a better state than it has been for many years, and it is fair to assume that it has, during the past six months, done as well as it can be expected to do as at present organized. Still, the number of cases on its docket continues to grow, and has now reached 871, an increase of 34 over the docket as it stood at the end of the last term. The bad effect which this condition of things produces is shown in the work of the court in a variety of ways. The most obvious result, of course, is that it is about two years behindhand with its work, a serious matter for litigants, especially as the evil is still increasing. But this is by no means the whole story. No court can have too much work to do, and work under constant dread of an accumulating docket, without the quality of its work being affected. Judges are in this respect just like any other overworked men. They may accomplish wonders in despatching business, but their anxiety to clear their docket, their hope of some day or other being able to do it, will infallibly tell upon the consideration they give to cases, and result in hasty, or weak, or confused opinions. When judges determine to decide a case it can always be done; but when they undertake to announce their reasons, what is important is that they shall be agreed as to what the principles of their decisions are, and it is just at this point that the work of the Supreme Court sometimes produces an impression of weakness, which is probably directly traceable to its overworked state.

The Arlington case, for instance, was one which involved on the one side the exemption of the Government from private suit, and on the other the right of the citizen to be protected against interference on the part of the Government with his vested rights. It was undoubtedly a difficult point to decide, but the difficulty was greatly increased by the fact —which the briefs in the suit made painfully evident—that it hinged on previous decisions of the court which were in extraordinary conflict. This was itself a natural consequence of the hasty work incident to a crowded docket, and the result in the Arlington case was a wide divergence of opinion among the judges, which resulted in the decision of the matter by a bare majority vote. As soon as the composition of the court undergoes the slightest change, the probability is that an attempt will be made to fight this old ground all over again. The opinions in the Virginia bond cases show even more distinctly the pressure under which the court labors. The decision itself, that the court could not assist the creditors of the State, must be taken to be all right, but it is certainly most unfortunate that it should have been rested, by the judge who wrote the majority opinion, upon a ground which one of the dissenting judges treated in his opinion as contemptible and ridiculous; nor is the matter at all helped by the fact that, owing to the divergence of the judges' views, the opinions do not enable a lawyer who examines them to say with positiveness precisely what is the principle on which the decision is grounded.

There is a general agreement in the reports from England that the Ministry has again been weakened by the Affirmation Bill, and its failure to push forward important business. This, if true, means either that it will enter on the last session of the present Parliament—for there will be a dissolution next year—in a despondent condition, or that Mr. Gladstone will try his luck in a dissolution this year. That he will "go to the country" again, however, as the leader of the party, and thus pledge himself to assume the cares of office for another Parliament, seems very unlikely. It is no secret that he has been for the last two years anxious to retire, and has only refrained under the urgent solicitation of his colleagues, and in the belief that in this session, at least, he would be able to accomplish important English legislation. In this he has undoubtedly been disappointed. The temper of the Tories is as fierce and obstructive as ever, and they have learnt how to obstruct in spite of the new rules. Moreover, the Parnellites are joining them in anything that seems likely to force on a dissolution, as the Parnellites expect to make important gains at the next election.

The conviction of Timothy Kelly, in Dublin, on the third trial, was made almost certain by the confessions of Delaney and Cafferty, which confirmed the evidence of Carey and Kavanagh as to Kelly's presence at the murders, and, in fact, participation in them with Brady. Of course this was not evidence adducible in court, but it was impossible to prevent its affecting the mind of the jurors. His youthful and somewhat innocent appearance saved him on the first trial, one of the jurors saying frankly that he would never consent to send such a pathetic-looking boy to the gallows; but this impression seems to have worn out. The confession, too, has doubtless taken away the air of cruelty from the persistence of the Crown in retrying him. Delaney's sentence has been commuted, probably in the belief that he really was ignorant of the object of the expedition when he was driven up to the Park. Carey, the informer, says that every one of the party except Brady offered to inform, and this is probably true, because it is characteristic of all these Irish murder societies. What is peculiar about this case is the fact that the principal instigator of the plot anticipated his underlings. Usually it is the other way. The general result is that the Government is complete master of the situation as far as murder and outrage are concerned, and it is mainly owing to the permission now given by the law to the magistrates to institute private inquiries into crimes, and examine any persons they may select as witnesses, willing or unwilling, in secret. Under the old rule the accused had to be present from the beginning when testimony against him was taken. Now a very full case may be made out against him on oath before he knows anything about it.

According to a despatch from Valparaiso, a treaty of peace has been signed by General Navoa and General Iglesias, and "is said to have been confirmed." We are not told who says so, nor what political body confirmed it on the part of Peru—a rather important matter in the present condition of that country. The terms of the treaty are said to be that Chili takes Tacna and Arica for ten years; that at the end of that time a plébiscite is to be taken to determine to which country they shall belong, and that the country acquiring them will "pay indemnity." Nothing is said about Tarapaca, the great bone of contention hitherto, and the determination of the fate of Tacna and Arica by a plébiscite does not explain for what they are to be held as security during the next ten years. Iglesias is one of the numerous Peruvian pretenders, but a man of property also, and therefore desires peace not only from patriotic but from personal motives. He has been trying to get a treaty signed for some time, and there is nothing improbable in the story that he has succeeded, but the despatch does not make its terms intelligible.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 9, to TUESDAY, May 15, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE commission of Charles Lyman as Chief Civil-Service Examiner was made out by the President on Thursday. Mr. Keim, who had been nominated for the place, withdrew, in a letter which was aimed to be a defence against the accusations of the press all over the country that he represented Machine politics and politicians. Mr. Lyman is Chief Clerk of the Treasurer's office, and his nomination is highly commended. He is an accomplished scholar, and has had much experience in civil-service matters. He was Civil-Service Examiner under the Grant Commission. He made no application for the position.

Some persons who had experience with the civil-service system under President Grant express the opinion that the modification of the rules which was made by the Cabinet, exempting the chiefs of division and heads of bureaus from the operation of the law as to promotions, is a vital blow at the reform.

The members of the Civil-Service Commission on Friday and Saturday started on a tour of a number of the principal cities, for the purpose of establishing local examining boards to carry out the provisions of the Civil-Service Act.

Ex-Congressman Dezendorf (Rep.), of the Norfolk (Va.) District, has written to Dorman B. Eaton, to the President, the Postmaster-General, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Secretary of the Navy, protesting against Mahone's practices in controlling politics in his district.

President Arthur on Wednesday designated Mr. John J. Knox, Comptroller of the Currency, to act as Commissioner of Internal Revenue for the next ten days.

President Arthur on Friday appointed several Assistant Appraisers for New York in place of officers suspended. The appointments, it is said, will result in a greatly improved administration of the affairs of the Appraiser's Department.

Aristarchi Bey, the retiring Turkish Minister, on Friday presented his letters of recall to the President, and Tewfik Pasha, his successor, presented his credentials.

Recent decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of Ruggles agt. the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad, and the similar case against the Illinois Central Railroad, are the most important decisions on the transportation question which have been rendered by that court since the noted Granger cases. These cases were brought by the respective railroads to test the validity of the law of the State of Illinois which creates a Board of Railway Commissioners with power to fix rates of freight and of fare. It was contended on behalf of the State of Illinois, among other things, that the State never bound itself by contract that no law should be passed prescribing reasonable maximum rates of toll for the transportation of passengers and freight; that the enactment of laws to prevent extortion by those having control of public highways is a legitimate exercise of the police power of the State; that these police or governmental powers are inalienable, and that the Legislature cannot bind itself by contract not to exercise them. The Supreme Court of the State of Illinois maintained the correctness of this position on the part of the prosecuting authorities of the State, and the United States Supreme Court has now affirmed the decision of the Illinois Court.

A number of valuable crop reports have been issued during the week. The estimate of the Illinois Department of Agriculture, covering 1,600 townships in the State, is that the winter wheat crop will not exceed 40 per cent. of the crop of 1882. The Maryland and Delaware peach prospect is a full average. New England reports for all crops are favorable. The May returns to the Department of Agriculture at Washington show that the average condition of winter wheat is 83½ against 80 in April. The May average last year was 100, which means a medium growth, with a full stand and a healthy plant. Without regard to the spring wheat breadth, the present prospect for the winter wheat area, in consideration of reduced condition and acreage, is 20 per cent. less than in May last, representing a loss of about 77,000,000 bushels.

Rumors that a disaster had happened to General Crook's column of troops, in pursuit of the Apaches along the Mexican border, were discredited at General Sheridan's headquarters on Wednesday. On that day the first detailed report was published of a battle in the Sierra Madre Mountains, Mexico, between Mexican troops under General Garcia and Colonel Torres, and the hostile Indians. The fight occurred on April 30, and after hours of hard fighting the Indians were dislodged, eleven being left dead on the field. Five of the Mexicans were killed. About 200 Indians were engaged.

On Wednesday, in the Star-route trial, at Washington, Mr. Wilson began the closing arguments for the defence. On Thursday the argument was interrupted to hear the testimony of Mr. Blackmar in regard to Rerdell's propositions to act for the Government while sitting with the defendants. Mr. Wilson, on Friday, entered upon a detailed analysis of the routes, which occupied several days.

Governor Cleveland has decided not to call an extra session of the New York Legislature unless absolutely necessary. On Friday he signed the Haggerty Receivership Bill; the bill extending the Brooklyn Primary Election Law to all cities in the State; authorizing the United States to buy land in Brooklyn for a Federal building; substituting the Railroad Commissioners for the State Engineer as the persons to make the examination of a railroad's income previously to a reduction of its fares; relating to the payment of the canal debt for the fiscal year beginning October 1, 1883; limiting the carrying and sale of pistols and other firearms in the cities of the State; and providing ways and means for the support of government. Great opposition has developed to the Page Savings-Bank Bill, which increases the list of investments allowed to those institutions by law. The Governor has not yet signed it.

The argument before Governor Cleveland on the General Street-Railroad Bill was held at Albany on Tuesday. Francis Lynde Stetson, of New York, first presented the objections to the bill, based on the fact that it shuts out Broadway from its provisions. He appeared in the interest of Mr. Vance, as the head of an association of Broadway property-owners who desire a railroad on Broadway. Other arguments, for and against the bill, were made.

Mayor Edson, of this city, on Wednesday, sent a number of nominations to the Board of Aldermen. John J. Gorman, for Fire Commissioner, to succeed himself for a term of six years, was immediately confirmed. Thomas S. Brennan, for Commissioner of Charities and Correction, to succeed himself for a term of six years, was also confirmed. William P. Mitchell was confirmed for Excise Commissioner, and William H. Phillips and Charles Welde, for the same office, were rejected. Charles F. Chandler, to succeed himself as Health Commissioner, was rejected. Other nominations were made and confirmed.

Andrew J. Smith, President of the Manhattan Fire Insurance Company of this city, was on Friday arrested, charged with having committed perjury in connection with the annual report of the Manhattan Fire Insurance Company for the year 1880, which was filed in the office of the State Insurance Department at Albany, on January 31, 1881. He waived examination, merely stating that he was not guilty, and was bailed in the sum of $5,000.

It was announced on Thursday that the *World* newspaper of this city had been sold by Mr. Jay Gould and others to Mr. Joseph Pulitzer, editor of the St. Louis *Post-Despatch*, for about $400,000. That gentleman took editorial charge on Friday. The paper will remain Democratic.

The corner-stone of Sherred Hall, a new building to be erected by the General Theological Seminary upon its grounds at Twentieth Street and Ninth Avenue, in this city, was laid on Thursday afternoon.

There has been considerable excitement in this city over the exposure of the shameful practices in the Mott Street Chinese opium dens. It is alleged that 100 young girls (not of Chinese parentage) have been ruined by them. A number of arrests were made during the week, and the keepers of several dens have been committed to jail to await trial.

The annual dog show was held in this city last week, and closed on Friday. It was very successful. There were about 1,000 entries.

There are 100 cases of malignant measles in Burgholtz, Niagara County, N. Y., and the State Board of Health is investigating the causes of the epidemic.

The long-continued excise excitement in Lockport, N. Y., closed on Friday with the rejection by the Board of all applications for licenses, and its adjournment to the first Monday in June. All the saloons continue to sell without a license.

During a violent thunder-storm, about 3 o'clock on Thursday morning, a bolt of lightning struck one of the tanks of the National Oil Storage Works, near Communipaw, N. J. A great explosion and fire followed which spread to neighboring tanks. Four more were exploded, and about 500,000 gallons of oil were burned. Six lives were lost and property valued at about $800,000 was destroyed.

A cyclone in southwestern Missouri on Sunday did great damage to property. The territory passed over was fully fifteen miles in length.

At Des Moines, Iowa, on Wednesday, in the United States Circuit Court, a decision was rendered in the long-contested driven-well cases of Green against several hundred defendants in Iowa. The court holds that the patent is entirely null and void.

Congressman Phil Thompson, of Kentucky, has been on trial during the week at Harrodsburg for the shooting of Mr. Davis. The ground of the defence was emotional insanity.

During the week which ended on May 9, 800,000 pounds of tax-paid tobacco were shipped from Petersburg, Va. The total revenue collections of the office in that city amount to $66,704 19, and the largest collections of any single day were $38,811 90.

At least 500 gamblers have left or will leave New Orleans on account of the recent act of the Legislature making gambling a felony.

Mrs. Fair was awarded a decree of divorce from her husband, Senator Fair, in Nevada on Saturday, and was allowed $4,250,000 in money and United States bonds, the family residence at San Francisco, and the custody of the three minor children. The custody of the oldest boy, James Fair, jr., was awarded to the defendant.

Mr. Amasa Stone, the Cleveland (O.) millionaire, committed suicide on Friday by shooting himself through the heart with a revolver. He had been suffering for some time with indigestion and insomnia, and for the past five or six weeks had been confined to his house the most of the time, not being able to obtain over two hours' sleep out of the twenty-four. This, with his recent business troubles, is thought to have unsettled his mind. He began life as a carpenter, and died worth about $6,000,000. He was very successful as a bridge builder. His charities were many, and Adelbert College, recently completed in Cleveland, was one of his largest gifts. He lost

heavily by recent troubles in the Chicago Union Rolling Mills.

Ex-Gov. Israel Washburn, jr., died on Saturday, in Philadelphia, whither he had gone for medical treatment, at the age of 71. He was a member of Congress from the Thirty-second to the Thirty-sixth, inclusive. In 1860 he was elected Governor of Maine, and in 1863 was appointed by President Lincoln Collector of Portland.

Mrs. Jesse R. Grant, mother of Gen. U. S. Grant, died at her home in Jersey City on Friday. She was eighty-four years of age, and had resided in Elizabeth and Jersey City since the death of her husband in 1874. The body was taken on Saturday evening to Cincinnati, and buried in Spring Grove Cemetery.

Senator Anthony's physicians do not offer any hope of his final recovery.

FOREIGN.

The Committee of the French Chamber of Deputies on the Tonquin Expedition were officially informed on Wednesday that 4,000 Annamite or Chinese troops attacked Ha-Noi, the capital of Tonquin, on March 20, but were repulsed by the French; also that Captain Kergaradec, Envoy of the French Government, bears a letter from President Grévy informing the King of Annam that his inability to assure the security of Tonquin compels France to establish herself definitively there. The letter advises the King not to resist, invites him to recognize the protectorate of France, and guarantees the integrity of his dominions. The committee adopted a report in favor of the credit proposed by the Government for the expences of the expedition. It is reported that 2,000 Chinese troops have been despatched in the direction of Tonquin. The French Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday voted the credit by 358 to 50.

It was announced on Tuesday that the Comte de Chambord, the head of the elder branch of the Bourbons and the last of his line, was dying. He was born in 1820.

It is semi-officially announced in Berlin that the mission of M. Waddington to Germany is to assure that country of the continued pacific intentions of France. He has been cordially received by Bismarck and the Emperor.

The Malagasy Envoys are greatly pleased with the reception which has been given them in Berlin. A treaty has been concluded with Germany on the most-favored-nation principle.

It is said in Berlin that Prince Bismarck's belief in dissolution as an effective weapon against a refractory Parliament is by no means as strong as it was. The health of the Chancellor is again unsatisfactory. There is an almost open rupture between Prince Bismarck and Herr Scholz, the Minister of Finance. The Prince declares, notwithstanding the above report, that the recent vote on the question of the budget will have convinced the Emperor of the impossibility of carrying out social reforms with the present Reichstag.

Emperor William of Germany has written to the Prussian Cabinet referring to the changes in the War and Navy Ministries, which, he says, were caused by want of energy on the part of General von Kameke and Admiral von Stosch, in protecting the imperial prerogatives of military command against the pretensions of the Reichstag.

Mr. George J. Dodson, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, introduced a bill in the House of Commons on Thursday by which agricultural tenants will be entitled to receive, when their tenancies expire, compensation from landlords for improvements they may have made to the lands they occupied. By this bill the landlord's right of distress will be limited to a sum equivalent to one year's rent. Mr. Childers, Chancellor of the Exchequer, said in the House on that day that the Government would consider during the present year the question of permitting the growing of tobacco in the United Kingdom. On Friday afternoon Sir Richard Assheton Cross, Conservative, called attention to the surrender of the Cuban refugees, Maceo, Rodriguez, and Castillo, to the Spanish authorities at Gibraltar. Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, Conservative, attacked the policy of the Government. Sir Charles Dilke, President of the Local Government Board, denied that Spain had acted in such a manner as to give England the right to demand the return of the Cubans. It is hoped, however, that Maceo will soon be liberated. It is said that there is a growing disposition among the Liberals not to support the Government. The London *Times* says they have "lost the habits of discipline."

A large meeting of Mr. Bradlaugh's constituents was held at Northampton, England, on Wednesday night, at which resolutions were passed in favor of Mr. Bradlaugh's retaining his seat in the House of Commons.

Joe Brady, who was convicted of participation in the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke on the 6th of last May, was hanged at eight o'clock on Monday morning in Dublin. Brady was the first man brought to the gallows for connection with that crime. He was firm to the last, and made no statement. Fully 10,000 people were gathered outside the jail at the time of the execution, but they dispersed quietly.

Timothy Kelly's third trial for complicity in the Phœnix Park murders was concluded in Dublin on Wednesday. He was found guilty, and sentenced to be hanged on June 9.

Joseph Mullet, who was indicted on May 3 for complicity in the attempt on the life of Juror Denis Field, was on Thursday placed on trial in Dublin. He was charged with planning the attack, and was found guilty. He was sentenced to penal servitude for life.

The seven London conspirators were again arraigned in the Bow Street Police Court, in that city, on Thursday. Various witnesses were examined to prove the identity of the prisoners and the finding of nitro-glycerine on the premises occupied by Whitehead. On Friday all except O'Connor, *alias* Dalton, whom the Crown were unable to connect with the others, were committed for trial on the charge of treason-felony. Lynch, *alias* Norman, the informer, was committed on a charge of misdemeanor. O'Connor, on leaving the dock, was rearrested by detectives from Liverpool, to which city he was taken that night. On Saturday he was brought into court in Liverpool and formally remanded, charged with having been concerned with O'Herlihy and Kennedy in the dynamite plots.

In an article published on Monday, the London *Times* made an appeal to American opinion on the Irish question.

The London *Times* on Tuesday printed the details of an attempt to destroy a steamer plying between Liverpool and New York. Just before the steamer left Liverpool, several weeks ago, a man placed a box in the care of the steward. The latter's suspicions were aroused, and, on examination, the box was found to contain an infernal machine. The name of the steamer is kept secret.

The Fenian excitement was renewed in Halifax, N. S., on Thursday, by the fact that a steamer which acted in a mysterious manner had been sighted in the harbor.

Archbishop Croke, of Ireland, sent a communication to Cardinal Jacobini, the Papal Secretary of State, maintaining that his conduct in relation to the agitation in Ireland has been perfectly regular, and that his object is not to stimulate revolt, but to obtain for the people right and justice. The explanation of the Archbishop is not deemed satisfactory at the Vatican. On Friday the Archbishop was received in audience by the Pope, when he was informed of certain grave resolutions taken by the Pope in regard to the agitation in Ireland, especially one condemning the clergy in promoting the Parnell fund. It was announced on Saturday that the Archbishop had promised the Pope that he would in future conform to the attitude of Cardinal McCabe with regard to Irish affairs. He departed from Rome on Saturday so suddenly as to cause some surprise. On Tuesday it was announced that the Pope had addressed a strongly-worded letter to the Irish bishops, desiring them to prohibit the clergy from participating in political meetings or encouraging subscriptions in aid of the present agitation; also recommending the use of respectful language toward the state.

A meeting of influential shipowners, including the Anchor and Harrison Lines, and representing Suez Canal traffic to the extent of 3,000,000 tons, was held in London on Thursday. A resolution favoring the construction of another canal across the isthmus was unanimously adopted, and an executive committee was appointed to carry out the plans of the meeting.

The International Fisheries Exhibition was opened in London on Saturday, with impressive ceremonies, by the Prince of Wales. The Prince expressed regret at the unavoidable absence of the Queen.

The Dean of Westminster has granted permission to place a bust of the poet Coleridge in Westminster Abbey. An American admirer of the poet's works will bear the cost of it.

An exhibition of water-colors and etchings by American artists is being held in Egyptian Hall, Piccadilly, London. Moran's "Poet's Reflections" and Abbey's "Sketches on Long Island" are specially mentioned by the press.

James Young, the celebrated Scotch chemist, who discovered the slow-distillation process of extracting petroleum from coal, died on Monday, at the age of seventy-two.

There has been a general rising in Basuto Land, South Africa, which is now, however, under control.

The loan of 86,000,000 pesetas for Spanish public works proposed by the Government has been withdrawn, and the funds for that purpose will be provided instead by increase of the credit, inserted under the extraordinary budget, which will be covered by revenue to be derived from the sale of national lands. Señor Moret has informed the Budget Committee of the Chamber of Deputies that he cannot preside over their deliberations, as he is resolved to oppose the extraordinary budget.

Signor Depretis, President of the Italian Council, said, in the Chamber of Deputies, on Wednesday, that the Irredenta agitation was conducted solely by persons hostile to the institutions of the country. The Government, he said, were determined to repress all criminal preparations.

According to a Valparaiso despatch of May 15, a treaty of peace between Chili and Peru has been signed by General Novoa and General Iglesias, and is said to have been confirmed. It involves a ten years' cession to Chili of territory obscurely defined in the despatch. At the end of that term a plébiscite is to be taken to determine to which country it shall belong. The country acquiring it will pay indemnity.

National affairs in Ecuador are still critical. Business is suspended in Guayaquil, and the streets are held by armed troops.

Reports of the revolution in Hayti are conflicting. The true situation appears to be that Miragoane, which is defended by about seven hundred rebels, holds out against 6,000 Government troops, while the rest of the Republic is comparatively quiet, although there is a rumor that the town of St. Marc is in arms. Several noted persons at Cape Haytien have been arrested. It is said that the rebels have blown up a bridge at Miragoane with dynamite, killing 200 persons and wounding 200 more.

It is said that the Japanese Government has proposed to China that they establish a joint protectorate over Corea. China, however, is not inclined to accept the proposition.

MAHONE.

If the Administration of President Arthur desires to maintain a fair degree of respectability and to avoid becoming an unbearable burden to the Republican party, it cannot too soon put an end to all political fellowship with Senator Mahone of Virginia. The association with him of Republicans in responsible positions has been a disgrace from the beginning. The mere fact of his being a man of decidedly loose principles as to the binding force of public debts should have absolutely forbidden it. But in addition to this it was easy to foresee that his selfishness, arrogance, and unscrupulousness as a political manager, would without fail involve any administration or party countenancing him in endless disreputable entanglements.

Things seem now to have come to such a pass in Virginia that the Administration will be forced either to take the full responsibility for Mahone's doings, or shake him off for good. The *Tribune* on Monday published extracts from letters addressed to the President, the Secretaries of the Treasury and of the Navy, the Postmaster-General, and Mr. Eaton of the Civil-Service Commission, by Mr. Dezendorf, formerly the Representative in Congress of the Norfolk (Virginia) district. Mr. Dezendorf makes statements of a startling character, which the Administration can scarcely afford to ignore. It appears that for a considerable time Mr. Mahone has been permitted to say who shall and who shall not be a Federal office-holder in Virginia. His power seems to have been well-nigh absolute. The Federal office-holders in that State were therefore, to all intents and purposes, "Mahone's men." When he said "go," they went, and when he said "come," they came. He had them appointed for the purpose of doing his political work, and they did it, and are still doing it.

Now, some Republicans, probably a considerable majority of the party in Norfolk County, Virginia, thought it was not well that the Republican party should be dissolved and merged in the Readjuster organization for Mr. Mahone's benefit, and they nominated a Republican ticket for the county offices. Whereupon Mr. Mahone, this being done against his orders, levied an assessment upon the Federal office-holders, and sent a swarm of the latter from different parts of the State into Norfolk County to help defeat the Republican nominees. The Federal office-holders in the county itself had, of course, to give all their time to political work for the same purpose, on pain of official death, at Mr. Mahone's command. This is, indeed, a somewhat extraordinary state of things, leaving civil-service reform aside and looking at it from the point of view of mere party politics: a Republican Administration; Federal office-holders appointed by that Republican Administration; a State boss, not a Republican, using these Federal office-holders to defeat Republican candidates; and the Republican Administration coolly asked by him to aid him in this business.

No wonder that, in addition to this, Mr. Dezendorf finds these Federal office-holders too busy with politics to attend to their official duties. He tells the Postmaster-General that Mr. Mahone's man in the Norfolk post-office is "incompetent and inefficient"; that he, as well as his assistant, have been almost constantly absent on political errands, and that the merchants and business men of Norfolk have forwarded to Washington complaints about the mismanagement of the office and petitions for relief. He tells the Secretary of the Treasury that the Light-house, Internal Revenue, and some of the Custom-house officials are almost constantly absent from duty, canvassing; that the Custom-house is used as political headquarters, and that "the most shameful and disgraceful efforts at political bribery and corruption have been practised in public offices in the present campaign." He informs the Secretary of the Navy that the Navy-yard at Norfolk, especially the Construction Department, "is rotten to the core"; that the constructor in charge is notoriously inefficient and incompetent; that "the yard is, and has been for the last two years, a mere political machine, in which the public money has been squandered to further the ends of Senator Mahone"; that the flagrant abuses in the Navy-yard "account in some measure for the excessive cost of the work done on the *Pinta*, recently repaired at that yard," a vessel of 306 tons, which had more than $100,000 spent on her for "repairs," and which has since been ordered out of commission upon the recommendation of the Board of Inspection. Finally, he offers to prove that "during the Congressional campaign last fall, men were borne upon the rolls and paid for weeks at a time who did not put a foot into the Navy-yard to do an hour's work there."

Evidently the Administration should make haste to look into this thing. It should have done so long ago, for these complaints are not new. If it does not do so now, the next House of Representatives on its part may consider it a pleasure to do so. We are aware that there are Republican politicians in Washington who look upon this alliance with Mr. Mahone as an unusually smart piece of party diplomacy. Their theory is that Mahone is just the man to prevent the Democratic party from carrying Virginia at the next Presidential election. We doubt very much whether Mr. Mahone, if he should desire to do so, would be strong enough to give the State to the Republicans. But if he were, have the Republican managers counted the cost of the gain of the Virginia vote through Mahone? There are very few things that would injure the Republican party with the respectable and conservative element in the debatable Northern States so much as apparent abandonment of its best principles by the alliance with a repudiation movement, and an insult offered to the reform sentiment through the association with one of the most unscrupulous political bosses of our day. The Republican party could not have a harder race than with Mahone on its back.

FRAUD IN DIVORCE.

The *Western Jurist* publishes a report made last year to the American Bar Association by its Committee on Jurisprudence on the subject of divorce, accompanied by a draft of an act "to prevent fraudulent divorces." Divorces, the Committee say, are obtained so easily, partly because of insufficient restrictions as to length of residence in the State in which the application is made. To meet this difficulty they recommend the passage by State Legislatures of the following act:

> "The jurisdiction of the courts of this State in suits for divorce shall be confined to the following classes of cases: 1. Where both parties were domiciled within this State when the action was commenced. 2. Where the plaintiff was domiciled within this State when the action was commenced, and the defendant was personally served with process within this State. 3. Where one of the parties was domiciled within this State when the action was commenced, and one or the other of them actually resided within this State for one year next preceding the commencement of the action."

This would undoubtedly tend to check fraud, if "domicile" in law meant something different from residence. But as a general rule domicile means very much the same thing as residence; that is, it means merely the place where a man lives. Now, a man may change this place whenever he pleases. He may be living to-day in New York, and may to-morrow "settle" in some Western State. The moment he makes the change, his "domicile" changes; in other words, to get a new legal domicile is the work of a week or a day. Further than this, although a court may suspect that the change is made merely for the purpose of getting a divorce, and that the domicile will be abandoned as soon as this is obtained, there is no way of ascertaining this in advance. Therefore, domicile seems a very inadequate test to apply. Proof of an actual residence for a prescribed term of years—say five—is what the statute ought to require. Such a requirement would make collusive and fraudulent applications much more difficult than they are now.

In this respect there is a most crying need of reform. With regard to the general laxity of the divorce laws all over the country, the Committee has no specific to recommend, and we think the longer the matter is examined the clearer it appears that reform in these matters must come mainly from an improvement of the tone of public opinion on the whole subject of marriage and divorce. It used to be imagined that the laxity was owing to the facilities for divorce afforded by the Western States, and that the East, and especially New England, was void of reproach in the matter. But we know now that the tone of legislation in one part of the country is very much the same as in another, and that the Eastern States produce an annual crop of divorces which makes all comparison on the subject useless. In New Hampshire there are no less than sixteen causes of divorce. In Pennsylvania the liberality of the Legislature is pushed to a point where it becomes comical; for, not satisfied with making (we quote from the report) "such conduct on either side as renders the other party's condition intolerable" a good cause for divorce, the Legislature has taken the pains to give the Pennsylvania husband a special safeguard against the dangers of the matrimonial bond, by authorizing him to get a divorce whenever he can show "cruel and barbarous treatment on the part of the wife."

To improve the tone of the laws on the subject, what is needed is the growth of an im-

proved public opinion, such as the discussion of the matter during the past few years has encouraged; but the fraudulent-divorce business, which is openly advertised in the press, is not supported by any public opinion of any kind, and is a shocking scandal. One way to render it a less lucrative calling than it is now is through some legislation on the subject of residence. There would certainly be no hardship in the proposed change. It would merely serve to prevent the courts of the various States from being used for improper purposes. People who settle in new places for the bona-fide purpose of "growing up with the country," and find it necessary to begin their new lives with an application for divorce, may fairly be asked by the community of which they propose to become members to give it some guarantee of good faith. The very fact that two people who have once made up their minds that they do not wish to live together can always secure a divorce in some way, and that the opportunities for collusion and the manufacture of evidence in such cases are so numerous, makes it all the more important that the courts should be protected against downright fraud where it is possible.

But even a very general improvement in State legislation is not likely to bring divorce scandals to an end. Owing to the fact that the State Legislatures act independently of each other, the one thing certain about them is that they will continue in the long run to produce laws differing from each other in many ways as to the contract of marriage itself, the causes for which divorce may be granted, and the safeguards against fraudulent divorces. As long as they have control of the matter it will always be possible for a citizen of one State to resort to the courts of another to get rid of an inconvenient marriage. No way has ever been suggested to obtain such a uniform system of law on the subject of marriage and divorce as would render this practice impossible except through a constitutional amendment; and now that the subject is engaging the attention of reformers, this is a matter which ought not to be overlooked. Such an amendment would, of course, transfer to the general Government a subject belonging to a class which we are accustomed to regard as properly a matter of local regulation; but no one, so far as we are aware, has ever shown that such a transfer is impracticable or objectionable in any way. It may be said that such a Congressional divorce law could hardly rise above the average tone of State legislation on the subject, inasmuch as it would be passed by Representatives elected by precisely the same people who choose the State Legislatures. But, even granting this, even a very liberal general law on the subject would do the one thing which the States can never do. With such a law there would be none of the extraordinary confusion on the subject which now prevails. The same man or woman could not be married, say, in New York, while having a single status in Connecticut and a married one again in Massachusetts. No wives would casually learn from the newspapers that their marriage was terminated. In short, as in other civilized countries, a man or woman once married would continue married throughout every part of the United States, and, if divorced, the divorce would be good everywhere too. Very little fraud in divorce could survive the passage of such a law.

THE IRISH CONSPIRATORS AND THE AMERICAN GOVERNMENT.

We took occasion some weeks ago to express our fear that the indignation excited here by the Irish assassination and dynamite conspiracies, and uttered in the American press, would mislead Englishmen as to the amount of assistance they were likely to receive from American law in punishing or preventing such conspiracies when concocted on American soil. That our apprehension was well founded is proved by an article in the *Economist* of April 28, on the "American Irish and the American Government," in which it undertakes, with much good sense, to moderate the expectations of Englishmen touching the duty of the American Government in the matter of restraining the Irish-American attacks on British peace and security. It points out that the American Government is a government of law, and that it cannot punish the men who plot on this side of the water the murder of British officials or the destruction of British buildings, except under the law and through the courts, and that it cannot be expected to strain the law for English convenience. It shows, moreover, how little use to England even the greatest liberality in the matter of extradition would be, seeing that the crimes against which it is sought to provide, if committed at all, would be committed on American soil, and would be, therefore, justiciable only in the American courts. It then proceeds to give its own solution of the difficulty as follows:

"What we have a right to ask from the Union is simply this, that the Government should accept, or even suggest, a treaty binding both parties to make conspiracy to murder, or to destroy property, beyond their own confines, a penal offence, punishable, on conviction, before the usual courts created to try criminal offences. The Minister of each state would then collect his evidence and produce his witnesses like any private prosecutor; there would be no question of extradition even raised, and no one could presume to doubt the justice of the court. Each state would try offenders on its own soil, through its own judges. The offence alleged is a crime, not against this or that state, but against humanity, just as piracy is, and it would be tried just as that offence is, without any of the *éclat* that attends a political trial. The Government of the country in which the conspiracy was alleged to exist would not be concerned in the matter at all, would be responsible neither for sentence nor acquittal, but would leave everything, as in all other criminal cases, to the court, which would have no motive in the majority of cases to do anything but justice, and which, whether in England or America, would be beyond the reach of menace from angry voters. We all know that in England or Canada such offences would meet with no sympathy, and in America the people are obviously willing to punish, if only the law is made clear and there is sufficient evidence. The case is not one for an extradition treaty at all, but for a treaty declaring the law, and promising that the courts shall, in the ordinary way, with ordinary juries, take cognizance of the offence."

It would be difficult in any reasonable space to explain all the misunderstandings and mistakes contained in this short paragraph. In the first place, supposing that Americans were less sensitive than Englishmen have shown themselves to be about altering their municipal law for the purpose of obliging foreigners, the difficulty in the way of making any such treaty effective would be much greater here than in England. In England the treaty-making power also initiates and shapes legislation. When Mr. Gladstone makes a treaty with a foreign Power, he makes it in the double capacity of chief administrator and chief legislator, and if it needs any legislation to make it operative, can promise to bring that legislation about. But even the Prime Minister cannot always make such promises with the certainty of fulfilling them. Lord Palmerston made just such a promise to the French Government in the Orsini case, but when he attempted to fulfil it he was driven from office.

In the second place, the President, though he shares in the treaty-making power, can only recommend legislation. He may create offences by treaty, but the courts will not take any notice of them without a statute defining the offences and prescribing the punishment. Therefore, no matter how solemn the engagement into which he might enter with Great Britain to indict and punish dynamite and murder conspirators, it would not have the slightest value as a deterrent without an act of Congress. Treaties, to be sure, are part of the supreme law of the land; but when treaties relate to matters of internal regulation, legislation is necessary to make them operative, and President Arthur could not promise any foreign Power to procure such legislation; he could only promise to ask for it. That authority to create new crimes is included in the treaty-making power of the President is a doctrine which even the loosest constructionists have never ventured to produce. Congress alone has the power to add to the list of offences against international law, and to provide punishment for them, and in our humble opinion it is vastly more likely to exercise this power, in the case of the Irish-Americans, of its own accord, or on a simple Presidential suggestion, than under a treaty concluded with Great Britain for the express purpose of helping her out of her Irish troubles. In fact, we can hardly conceive of a greater hindrance to such legislation than such a treaty would be. It would wound the national pride at a great many points, and would be vigorously opposed by tens of thousands who care nothing about the Irish question, and loathe the dynamiters as much as Sir William Harcourt.

One great objection to it in the minds of this class would be the familiar one that there would be no reciprocity in it. It would be entered into solely for English benefit. No American, in his wildest dreams, foresees the possibility of the United States having to ask for the assistance of foreign governments in protecting itself against plots to murder its public men, or blow up its buildings, concocted on foreign soil, by large numbers of exiled citizens. A state of things somewhat like this arose, it is true, during the late war, but arose during a war, and the cause of the war has absolutely disappeared. Let the galled jade wince, therefore, would be the answer which would occur to a great many Americans when any such treaty was asked for. Whatever the faults or crimes of the Irish agitators may be, the presence of nearly two millions of born

subjects of the Queen on American soil, animated by the deadliest hatred of her government, is a tremendous and unprecedented fact, and it is the central fact of the situation. It is this which makes the dynamiters formidable or, indeed, possible, and it is a fact which it is impossible to get Americans to regard as an isolated one, without antecedents, or as simply a result of Irish perversity. Everybody knows that it has a cause, and that that cause is long-continued misgovernment. To ask the American people to treat it as a great misfortune, common to both them and Englishmen, and for which they are responsible in an equal degree with Englishmen, would therefore be asking too much, and yet this is what such a treaty as the *Economist* describes would ask.

Finally, there does not as yet appear to be any necessity for such a treaty. No conspiracy entered into here for murder or explosion in England has yet been proved. If any has been entered into, the English law and police have proved amply sufficient to deal with it. The conspirators in the dynamite cases have been captured with very little trouble, and they are the only cases of the kind which anybody pretends to have originated in the United States. Every English newspaper received now contains boasts of the successful vigilance of the police, and of the perfect confidence felt in their capacity under the new law to discover and frustrate all such attempts in future. Why, then, should American aid be invoked at the risk of seeing it refused, and of rousing American susceptibility into the bargain? We say nothing about the *Economist's* description of the calm and quiet with which trials under such a treaty would be conducted. Its picture will amuse most American readers, but it is not yet worth while to explain to Englishmen the cause of their merriment.

POLITICAL ORGANIZATIONS—THE AFFIRMATION BILL DEBATE.

LONDON, May 3.

ONE of the most conspicuous signs of the growing intensity of party feeling in England is to be found in the establishment during the last few years of so many new political clubs in London and so many party associations over the whole of Great Britain. Thirty years ago there were only two great political clubs in London—the Carlton for the Tories, the Reform for the Liberals, since White's and Brooks's, the older local homes of the two parties, had already become rather social than political bodies. Then the Conservative Club, in St. James Street, was created as an adjunct to the Carlton, intended to receive those for whom the latter had no room, or who were not thought quite qualified for it by position. So things went on till seven or eight years ago, when the Liberals set up a new club, the Devonshire, while the Conservatives, still keeping ahead of their rivals, erected opposite to the old Carlton, in Pall Mall, a Junior Carlton, rivalling its mother in size, if not in selectness. The next step forward has just been taken, but this time by the Liberals, in the foundation of their gigantic National Liberal Club, which celebrated its birth by an inaugural dinner last night, with Lord Granville in the chair, and Mr. Gladstone, the club president, coming in after dinner to deliver a party manifesto.

This last creation of the passion for political organization is remarkable in two ways. It is due not merely to the increasing number of persons who come on political business to London, but to the disgust of the Liberals with the old Reform Club. That institution used to be a sort of centre of party action. It had—indeed, it still has—a political committee which looked after elections. It used to raise funds to help candidates to fight costly constituencies. Liberal members of Parliament were expected to join it, and to use it as a place of meeting with the influential party leaders of the great towns of the North and West. But the Reform fell by degrees into the hands of another class of persons. It was famous for its cookery, and plenty of people joined it who cared more for cookery than for politics, and accepted the profession of faith in peace, retrenchment, and reform required from them just as easily as nationalist Irish or English republican members of Parliament accept the oath of allegiance to the Crown, regarding it as a mere old-fashioned formality. Besides, the general change in the political sympathies of the wealthier inhabitants of London, which has made London Society, as it calls itself, almost wholly Conservative, told upon the older as well as the newer members of the Club. Men who were earnest reformers in 1850 had become substantially Tories in 1882; and this new attitude has repeatedly shown itself in the disposition of the Club to blackball persons associated with radicalism. The most notable instance was the rejection last summer of the brothers of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, apparently for no reason except that they were his brothers, and that he is the most prominent figure in the ranks of the Radical organizers. Hence the desire for a club of a more pronounced and vigorous liberalism, the political allegiance of whose members to the party leaders should be more unqualified. The second and more novel feature in this new club is the attempt which it makes to gather to a focus the immense number of local Liberal associations and clubs which have sprung up during the last few years over England and Scotland. These associations are permitted, and indeed invited, to affiliate themselves to this central club, and thereby to obtain privileges for their members and the right of being represented on its committee. A great number have done so, and in consequence the Club has already become a centre for the whole Liberal party throughout the country, such as never existed before, able to receive impressions from the country and bring them to bear upon the party in Parliament; able to convey instructions from the Parliamentary leaders to the local managers and the rank and file in the constituencies with a celerity and completeness which rivals, if it does not surpass, that of your party machinery in America. It is perhaps in one point more effective than yours, because in England, and still more in Scotland, the party managers are less distinct from the mass of party voters than with you, there being here no office-seeking class because there is no longer any appreciable party patronage.

How far the organization will work as it is intended to do, remains to be seen; all that we can do now is to indicate the results expected from it by its founders. They hope by it to remove the centre of political action to London from Birmingham, hitherto the seat of the executive of the Federation of Liberal Associations. They desire to counterbalance—by the pressure which local Liberals coming frequently to London, and there meeting their representatives in Parliament, will exercise upon those representatives—the social influences in favor of conservatism under which the zeal of many waxes cold. And above all, they seek to maintain the unity of the Liberal party—a unity often threatened, and likely to be threatened more seriously than ever by the approaching withdrawal of Mr. Gladstone, whose ascendancy has silenced for the last few years the controversies of discordant sections. The inaugural banquet of which I have just spoken was an imposing manifestation of this unity as it now exists. Nineteen hundred members, representing every corner of Great Britain, sat down to dinner. Most of them were doubtless Radicals, but the Chairman was a typical representative of the old Whig governing class, and the reception given him was only second to the enthusiasm which welcomed Mr. Gladstone.

The Conservative party has far less occasion to consolidate itself by means of an elaborate organization. It hangs together by its own nature, being divided by no such differences, either of speculative doctrine or of material interest, as those which threaten the Liberals. There have been indeed patent signs of jealousy among the leaders, and charges brought by some of the younger members of the House of Commons against their seniors of sluggishness, timidity, and want of skill. The Liberals make merry over these recriminations, and are lulled by them into a sense of security. While the enemy quarrel, they say, we are safe. Their incompetence to administer the affairs of the country is proved by the criticisms their own subalterns pass upon them; so the country will not think of turning us out to put them in. This is a superficial view. The country cares a great deal less about such jealousies than men in Parliament fancy. Its votes are determined by other considerations, and though the Conservative party would doubtless be stronger if it had a bold and skilful helmsman like Sir Robert Peel, or even like Lord Beaconsfield, still there lies at the bottom of every Englishman's mind the notion happily and simply expressed by that typical Englishman, King George the Third, that every man is good enough for any place he can get. If the Liberal Ministry were to commit any grave mistake, or even to be involved in any grave misfortune, or if, on Mr. Gladstone's retirement, differences of opinion were to prevent the whole party vote from being cast in support of the same chief, the Tories might come back to power forthwith. The natural cohesion of the party is strong enough to survive the dissensions of its leaders. However, it is wisely endeavoring to emulate the progress its foes have made towards organization. A great Constitutional Club has been formed, which will doubtless in due course be inaugurated with as much pomp and zeal as the National Liberal Club was yesterday, the only difference being that the Tories do not possess any leading figure so imposing by age, eloquence, and character as is Mr. Gladstone.

The Ministry of that statesman do at this crisis need all the support his popularity can give them, for as the debate on the Affirmation Bill draws to its close the prospects of carrying that measure seem worse and worse. It is now understood that the Irish members of every shade of opinion—not only the ultra-Protestant, Tory Orangemen, and the ultra-Roman Catholic section of the Home Rulers, but also the Protestant Nationalists and even the Ulster Liberals and moderate Catholics, who usually support the Government—will either vote against the bill or withdraw from the division. You will know tomorrow morning what the result has been, but, so far as calculations go now, it is believed by those who look closely into these matters that the Government will obtain a majority just sufficient to save their credit, but not sufficient to make it worth their while to go on with the bill. The House of Lords would of course reject it, or any other measure brought forward by the present Ministry, if the Tory leaders asked it to do so; and, according to our constitutional usages,

it would be within its right in rejecting what had passed the House of Commons by a majority considerably less than the normal one at the command of the Government. And if it were clear that the bill would fail to pass the upper house, it would be thought foolish to waste precious time in pressing it through its remaining stages in the lower. The Conservatives would, of course, give it a relentless opposition there; and, as the Ministry dare not employ the new rule of closure in such a matter, many nights might be fruitlessly consumed. So intense are any feelings that connect themselves with religion, and so little in the English Parliament can a majority effect against a resolute minority!

The debate has been tedious and uninstructive, illumined only by one remarkable speech, that of Mr. Gladstone, delivered a week ago. People talk of it as one of his greatest efforts, but perhaps this is because the merits of his oratory are more fully realized now when they must soon pass into the realm of tradition. It was less of a sustained effort than several other speeches have been of late years, those, for example, which he delivered on the Eastern Question. But there were in it several passages of wonderful power, and one or two which rose to the height of a philosophy worthy to be compared with Burke's. Perhaps the most striking thing was the way in which he recited six lines in which Lucretius sets forth the Epicurean conception of the gods, as far removed from human ken and interest in human affairs. There were probably not more than half-a-dozen people out of the four hundred who listened to him who followed the sonorous hexameters which he declaimed, but the way in which the solemn majesty of the poet seemed to penetrate him, and express itself through his voice, as it rose and sank in exquisite cadences, held the assembly spell-bound, and carried to its mind an emotion if not a meaning. The impression produced on the country by this speech has been profound. It has so far explained Mr. Gladstone's own views and principles, that he will not suffer in public opinion for having taken up the question; and it has probably decided the votes of a number of Scotch and Welsh members, who had previously feared to offend their constituents by appearing to "vote for Bradlaugh." But to the Irish members it has apparently made no difference. The people of Ulster are very largely Presbyterians, like their cousins in Scotland; but they are either more strictly orthodox or less disposed to regard ecclesiastical questions from a political point of view. Religious opinion is evidently a more potent influence in determining men's political course among Irishmen of all creeds than it is among the Teutonic population of England, or even the semi-Celtic population of Scotland and Wales. It is long since we have had a question which brings out more curiously the difference between the minds and tempers of the various races which make up the United Kingdom.

Y.

RENAN'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

PARIS, April 27, 1883.

I ONCE tried to analyze the influence of the Celtic genius on the modern literature of France, and chose for my analysis Chateaubriand and Lamennais, who were both pure Celts, and Victor Hugo, who is half a Celt and half a Frank (the name of Hugo is the same as Hugh, or Hughes). Renan would add many interesting elements to this study, and he has kindly consented to collect the "Memories of Infancy and of Youth"* which first appeared in parts in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. There could hardly be a more interesting work than this study of himself by a superior man. In vain did Pascal say "le moi est haïssable"; the old philosophy answers him with its "γνῶθι σεαυτόν." We read such books as Rousseau's 'Confessions' with a passionate pleasure; it seems as if we were brought by such works deeper into the knowledge of human hearts than by any novel or any drama.

The greatest merit—in fact, the indispensable merit—of a personal "memoir" is an absolute candor. We cannot be deceived; we shall soon know whether an author is telling the truth or not when he speaks of himself. Renan is absolutely candid, and small merit to him for being so, as he has a profound disdain of public opinion. He does not take the trouble to distort the truth, though he does not understand the truth in the ordinary sense of the word. "All," he says, "is true in this volume, but not of that ordinary kind of truth which is required for a 'universal biography'"; by which he means that he has written many things *cum grano salis*, with reserves, sometimes altering proper names, or names of places, as many people are afraid of publicity. He has given us the history of his soul, of his ideas, with complete exactitude; his autobiography is a moral analysis. As such, it is invaluable, as it shows us the most extraordinary development of a man brought up in the Catholic Church and for the Catholic Church, and drifting into a sort of moral *Nirvâna* of indifference to all dogmas, and finally treating religion merely as a scientific and historical phenomenon.

At the beginning of his Preface he speaks of an old legend of Brittany, of the city of Is, which, in past ages, was swallowed up by the sea. On the days of great tempests the sailors think that they see in the trough of the waves the tops of the spires of its churches; on calm days one hears the distant sound of their bells, drowned by the ocean. "It seems to me," says Renan, "that I have in my own heart a town of Is, which still has its obstinate bells that ring for the sacred offices and call for men who hear no more. Often I stop and listen to these trembling vibrations, which seem to come from infinite depths, like voices of another world. As age comes on, I take pleasure, especially during the summer, in collecting these distant noises of a lost Atlantis." Is not this a beautiful and delicate comparison? This autobiography is, indeed, full of these exquisite memories of a past which is in full contrast with the present. Renan has in himself, and he has never been able to destroy it, the old Celtic spirit, the love of the miraculous, of the unreal, of the unattainable: the boundless idealism, the sincere contempt for facts, for wealth, for all the temporalities; he lives in a dream. Even when he is dealing with history, and follows the laws of modern philology and criticism, he is a pure spirit. What would be a heavy stone in the hands of another becomes in his hands an ornament in a fantastic structure. He is ubiquitous, diversified, full of contrasts; he contradicts himself incessantly; he sees things under a thousand different aspects. He is like a musician who cannot help modulating and going from one key to another.

Renan takes us first to his native place, Tréguier. An old monastery was founded there at the end of the fifth century by Saint Tual, Tugdual, or Tudwal; an admirable cathedral was built in the thirteenth century, and it surrounded itself with convents. There was nothing at Tréguier but the bishop, the priests, and the monks, with a few noblemen and sailors. Renan spent his early years in this little ecclesiastical town. "The cathedral, a masterpiece of lightness, a mad attempt to realize in granite an impossible conception, first disturbed my ideas. The long hours which I spent in it are the cause of my utter practical incapacity. This architectural paradox made of me a chimerical man, a disciple of Saint Tudwal, Saint Iltud, and Saint Cadoc, in a century during which the teaching of these saints has no longer any application." Renan grew up in the shadow of the old cathedral; he felt uncomfortable when he was taken at times to Guingamp, where he had relatives. In the neighborhood of Tréguier were some curious churches, which all had their legends. On the death of his father, his mother gave him Saint Yves as a tutelary saint. "I cannot say that Saint Yves marvellously conducted my affairs, nor that he gave me a remarkable understanding of my interests. I owe him something better than that: he gave me contentment, which passes wealth (*contentement qui passe richesse*), and a natural good-humor which has kept me joyous till this day." It is quite true that Renan, poetical as he is, is not addicted to melancholy, like so many Bretons; but we shall see that there were some southern and Gascon elements in his blood.

His spiritual teachers were all priests; all their words were oracles to him. He had never had a doubt till the age of sixteen, when he came to Paris. "I feel that my life is still governed by a faith which I possess no longer. Faith has this peculiarity, that, even when gone, it still acts. Grace survives by habit the living sentiment which it first produces. One continues to do mechanically what was first done in spirit and in truth. When Orpheus was torn in pieces by the Mænads, his lyre could only say: 'Eurydice! Eurydice!'" The point on which the good priests most insisted was chastity. "Their sermons on this point made me chaste during all my youth." The teaching of these sermons was itself enveloped in an extraordinary decorum; in order to warn men against all pleasures, the priest remembered the words of Jonathan, dying for having tasted a little honey—"Gustans gustavi paululum mellis, et ecce morior." The moral lessons were always in this style: "Tetigisse periisse," and so on. The youth of Renan was spent in a school of respect, of faith, of humility, of grave virtue; even superstition seemed to him natural. The Bretons of Tréguier believed of an old nobleman that he could cure the sick by touching them with his saliva. In order to have such a power it was necessary to have a great number of *quartiers de noblesse*. The poor old man would never receive any pay from the peasants who brought him their sick children, sometimes from a great distance. As he was almost in a state of misery, he would receive a few eggs, butter, potatoes, fruits. "The nobles of the cities laughed at him. They were quite wrong; he knew the country; he was its soul and incarnation." At the time of the Revolution, the "broyeur de lin" (the peasants always gave him that title, as he was usually occupied with preparing flax) emigrated to the Island of Jersey. He came back at the time of the Restoration, and, poor as he was, he would receive no part of the indemnity of the *émigrés*. He was the last representative of a race; he had but one daughter, who became mad. Renan gives us the sad history of her mental disease; but I prefer to select in his work what chiefly concerns him and his family.

His education and his surroundings had made him an idealist. He was born prematurely, so sickly and weak that it was thought he could not live. An old sorceress, Gode, took one of his little shirts and threw it into the pond. "He can live! he can live!" said she, because, thrown on the water, the little shirt swelled and did not sink at once. His ancestors were all peasants or sailors; his grandfather, though a patriot, would not buy any lands which had belonged to the

Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse. Par Ernest Renan. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

Church or to the nobles. His father was a sailor, who had been in the fleet of Villaret de Joyeuse, and spent several years in the English hulks. He was very poor, as was also the uncle, Pierre. Renan speaks of this uncle with entire freedom: "He was the best creature in the world, but he could not be made to work. He was always here and there, spending his nights and days in the cabarets; withal, good and honest. It was impossible to give him an occupation." He was the life and soul of the cabarets, very popular, fond of telling amusing stories, which he drew from books, arranging them for the men of the port. He finally became a "pur vagabond," but he was "gentle, excellent, incapable of hurting a fly." He was found dead on the road to Langoat. Renan imagines a conversation between himself and his own mother, and puts these details in the mouth of his mother. I cannot help thinking that he would have done as well to leave "Uncle Pierre" in oblivion, and I do not much like such remarks as this: "Poor Uncle Pierre! I have often thought of him. This tardy esteem will be his only recompense."

Let us complete the family circle. His father, he informs us, was very different from the joyful Pierre; he was mild and melancholy. Renan had a sister, called Henriette, who became one of the great affections of his life. He says in the preface: "The person who has had the greatest influence on my life—I mean my sister Henriette—occupies hardly any place in this memoir." In September, 1862, a year after her death, he wrote a little memoir of her, of which only a hundred copies were printed and given to intimate friends. His sister was so modest that Renan did not feel at liberty to republish this memoir. "I will not," he says, "expose a memory which is holy to me to the rough judgment which one who has paid for a book has a right to make on it." He informs us that this memoir will only be republished after his death.

On his mother's side, Renan touched the world of the bourgeoisie of Lannion. His grandmother had been handsome, never left off her bourgeois *coiffes*, and never would be called otherwise than *mademoiselle*. There were many aunts, unmarried. When the Revolution broke out, his grandmother, who had all the ideas of the old régime, lent her *salon* for the secret mass. She took the place of the noble ladies who had emigrated. The uncles of Renan, on the contrary, were great patriots. The good grandmother played for two years with the guillotine, and it was a miracle that she escaped the fate of her dear friend Mme. Taupin, who was guillotined at Lannion. Renan tells us that his mother was not as hostile as his grandmother to the Revolution. "By my descent," says Renan, "I was divided between contrary forces. There were in the family of my mother elements of Basque and Bordelais blood. A Gascon, without my knowing it, played terrible tricks with the Breton. . . . My family was divided. My father, my paternal grandfather, my uncles, were far from clerical. But my maternal grandmother was the leader of a society in which royalism and religion were not separated. . . . This complexity of origin is in great part, I believe, the cause of my apparent contradictions. I am double: sometimes one part of myself laughs when the other cries. . . . As there are two men in me, one is always contented."

Speaking of his own mother, he says: "My mother belonged quite to the old world by her sentiments and her memories. She spoke Breton admirably; she knew all the proverbs of the sailors. . . . She was all people (*tout était peuple en elle*), and her native wit gave a surprising life to the long stories which she used to tell." She lived to the age of eighty-five years without infirmities, when she was seized by a cruel malady, of which she died rapidly. We must now follow Renan into the details which he gives on the subject of his literary education, first in Brittany, and afterward in Paris.

Correspondence.

THE COLUMBIA SCHEME OF HIGHER EDUCATION FOR WOMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to deprecate your comments in the *Nation* of the 10th instant upon the second report of the Committee to whom was referred the petition presented last February to the Trustees of Columbia College by the Association for Promoting the Higher Education of Women in New York?

The public has become so accustomed to trust the *Nation*, both as an organ of the soundest and most liberal opinions of our day and on account of the acumen which usually characterizes its own judgments, that the views editorially expressed in the present case are likely to reconcile the minds of many persons interested in the improvement of female education to a deplorable mistake.

It will scarcely be gainsaid that on this subject we have everything to learn from those who have conducted to such decisive results the reform in England; but these persons have been uniformly actuated by two main principles—common tests of proficiency for both sexes as a *sine qua non;* common instruction whenever, as is for the most part the case in superior education, the supply of a given quality of instruction is so small that there is not enough to divide between men and women students. The Columbia committee has reported in direct contravention of these principles; it has improvised a special programme of study, and special examinations, which, whatever their particular merits may be, are open to the radical objections that apply to all systems especially intended for women. Such systems command no public confidence, appeal to the ambition of no intelligent woman; they are as lifeless and as liable to abuse as other measures intended solely for a comparatively small and insignificant class. It is only extensive and important interests that compel vigorous administration.

I need not now refer to the subject of common instruction, or co-education, which, as regards Columbia College, seems to be, for the present, out of the question. Upon the importance of common tests—*i. e.*, common examinations, against which the Columbia trustees as a body have not yet irrevocably decided—no one is more competent to speak than the woman who, more than any other person, initiated and guided the English reform. I mean Miss Emily Davies, late Mistress and still Honorary Secretary of Girton College. In a pamphlet on "Special Systems of Education for Women," published in 1868, Miss Davies discusses the subject of examinations as follows (the italics are my own):

"Authority; wise choice of subjects; so much skill in the construction of questions that at any rate they do not invite shallow and unthorough preparation; practicability, and due severity—these are the requisites which most people will agree in regarding as essential. But the agreement does not go much further. As to authority, what constitutes it? Is it the personal reputation of the examiners, or is it their official position? Or is it the prestige acquired by prescription? Or has the quality of the candidates anything to do with it? It is as to the two last points that opinions differ. We can agree so far as this—that an examination by men of high repute will carry more weight than one by men unknown, and that an examination by an official body such as a university will be more readily believed in than one by any self-constituted board, however respectable. But supposing these two points secured, *is a new examination conducted by competent examiners appointed by a university all that is to be desired?* Will an unknown standard, having expressly in view candidates drawn from a limited and notoriously illiterate class, be worth much as regards authority? Mr. Matthew Arnold remarks that 'High-pitched examinations are the result, not the cause, of a high condition of general culture, and examinations tend, in fact, to adjust themselves to studies.' There is much reason to expect that such a scheme as has been supposed would from the outset be, whether justly or unjustly, regarded as in some way accommodated to the inferior attainments of the class, and that starting with small repute it would have to contend with the natural tendency of all things to justify their character. The most highly cultivated women would not care to submit themselves to an ordeal in which to fail might be disgrace, but to pass would be no distinction. The mere fact of its special character would in itself repel them. . . . An examination limited to a class, and with which the élite of that class will have nothing to do, is not likely to command very high respect."

Those who have watched the working of any system of education designed especially for women can bear melancholy testimony how true it is that such systems, "starting with small repute," tend to "justify their character." Such a system, when the attempt is made to connect it with any institution for the education of men, is soon felt to be a mere excrescence. Cut off from the life-current of the institution, it must become a dead member; the disproportionate amount of trouble that it involves relatively to the number of persons benefited, as compared with the regular work of the institution, soon renders it irksome to those officials who have charge of it. Irregularity, the uncertainty of continuance, every species of mismanagement, eventually extinguish what public interest the scheme awakened at the start.

An apparent exception to the rule that special examinations are inexpedient is found in the success of the Cambridge "higher local examinations," originally intended for women only, and still, I believe, mainly used by them; in that of the Oxford "examination of women over eighteen years of age," and in that of some other special schemes. It should, however, be remembered that these special examinations have flourished in the midst of numerous schemes of common instruction and examination; that female examiners have in England rapidly become a large and important body, and that the theory of sex in intellect has waned with corresponding rapidity, especially among examiners. If the special examinations had been instituted apart from the general movement in England, their history would probably have been very different.

The mere fact that a special scheme is officially organized does not show that it is entitled to compare in value with such opportunities as Girton offered before its recognition by the University of Cambridge, nor with such opportunities as the Annex students enjoy. To secure the regular tests of the College or University, whether by the decree of its ruling body or merely by their indulgence, is the prime point.

The statement that "The offer [contained in the plan of the Columbia Committee] is substantially more than the London University offers to men" must surely be an instance of that irony for which the *Nation* is famous.

The conclusion of your article urges the promoters of the movement which produced the petition to Columbia College to provide the means for a course of instruction corresponding to the proposed scheme of examination. I greatly fear that any who accepted this advice would find that they had built upon the sands. Every one is aware that in any educational scheme the

prospect of permanence is of the first importance; education cannot be rapidly forced into new channels, or abruptly adapted to the phases of popular opinion. Can it then be supposed that the plan improvised by Dr. Dix will continue for any considerable time to satisfy the needs of female education, or that schools will conform their preparation to a scheme that must be as ephemeral as the prejudices that gave it birth?

To sum up: If the indefinite and indefensible hypothesis of sex in intellect is retained, the whole basis of reform in female education is wanting; if this hypothesis has been abandoned, what advantage is gained by special tests of proficiency?

I have only to add that although I am a member of the Association for Promoting the Higher Education of Women in New York, I do not in any way represent that Association, and I write in entire ignorance of its sentiments with regard to the report of the Columbia Committee.

E. T. M.

New York, May 15, 1883.

THE BRICK-AND-MORTAR POLICY OF OUR COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in the *Nation* of May 3, on the "Real Weakness of American Universities," requires some qualification. Undoubtedly the poor salaries of the professors, as compared with the remuneration of any other skilled labor in the country, is one source of that weakness; but it is hardly fair to charge this wholly on the trustees as preferring a brick-and-mortar policy before the rights of the teachers. The buildings regarded by trustees with favor are dormitories, because they are profitable investments, bringing in the chief income available for the present wretched salaries of the professors. The fact is, that the attitude of the public toward college salaries compels the trustees to bid for cheap professors, and, until the community comes to their relief, no change for the better is open to managers of university trust-funds, usually appropriated to special objects, and generally insufficient for their appointed purpose.

It is, however, not true that enthusiasm will take the place of adequate buildings and apparatus, or that, given a sufficient thirst for knowledge, a modern university can be carried on without them. Nor will salary alone secure the services of an eminent professor. The facilities at his command for original research as well as for instruction will determine his choice of a residence perhaps more than anything else. A glance at the most fortunate German universities at the present moment will illustrate this. Why do students of all nations go to Berlin, to Leipzig, to Vienna, to Heidelberg, etc., etc.? Not simply because they find there Helmholtz, Bunsen, Hofmann, or Ludwig, but also because they find there the best-equipped laboratories for physics, chemistry, physiology, etc., etc. These laboratories owe their existence to these very men, who, when called to their present chairs, insisted on having the best tools they needed both for instruction and research.

This is the true object of the brick-and-mortar policy, and it will succeed in securing an eminent man when the mere question of salary will not affect him. Pay the professors good salaries, but by all means let them have all they want in the way of libraries, of collections, of apparatus, of laboratories, of facilities for publication, of assistants; and do not expect them to waste their time in applying a powerful stimulus from a barn or tent to students thirsting for knowledge in those branches of learning which require all the refinements of modern science for their successful prosecution. A.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The notice in your issue of May 3 of the meeting of Alumni of Cornell University to inquire for the "causes of decline in number of students, general interest, etc.," is indeed a significant fact; it would be of high value to touch the real point of difficulty and so establish a precedent. Each of the causes suggested carries with it a certain weight, especially "co-education, and the attacks of the religious press." The design of the founder also affords some clew to the difficulty—encyclopedic past hope of accomplishment.

Concerning the suggestion which found most favor with the *Nation*—viz., "falling off in quality of the professors owing to the smallness of salaries paid them"—is it not a fact that as soon as the professor's salary is made commensurate with his high ability, say from three to eight thousand dollars, he at once escapes from the drudgery of teaching, and we have, instead, the "assistant professor," or the "fellow," doing the duties of the chair, while the professor proper becomes a student at leisure, giving a few hours weekly to the lecture-room, or a student at large, or a sojourner abroad, or a foreign minister, etc.? Faithful teaching involves a drudgery which no one appreciates who has not performed it. Pegasus will not be harnessed willingly—he feels his wings. Great men have been teachers, but it was only a stepping-stone, only to fill a gap. How many first-class names have remained in the profession? Men like Emerson, Seward, Webster, Garfield, and a multitude more, entered it but to quit it speedily for higher or more congenial spheres. The President of the University in question is an apt illustration. The actual teacher at last will be the small salaried assistant.

There are hundreds of admirable and faithful educators all over the country, doing excellent service on moderate salaries; but if these salaries were raised to $5,000, the dignity of the position would at once call for the "assistant professor." It is a question, too, whether the man of brilliant talents, if he could be held to his post, makes the best teacher. The distance between him and his pupil is too great—intellectual sympathy is wanting. Patient, skilful plodders are best for the average brain to be trained in our schools and colleges. There is no question, however, that the profession of "educator" is entitled to greater honor if not to the larger stipend.

W. S. F.

Baltimore, Md., May 14.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to correct possible misconceptions from your representation of the position of the woman-suffrage question in this country?

Women householders have *every* vote, in Great Britain and Ireland, except the Parliamentary franchise, which, by the by, they did *originally* possess. The agitation to regain this right is everywhere allowed to be increasing, and meetings grow more and more earnest every year. Only this spring, at Manchester, unanimous resolutions were passed by a gathering of 5,000 women citizens. Petitions in favor of the movement are largely signed by all classes, and it is very probable that the next extension of the suffrage may equalize men and women householders in Parliamentary, as they now are in local, matters. In local elections the proportion of women voters to names on the register is usually as high as among men. Women sit as poor-law guardians and as members of school-boards. So highly are their services appreciated, and so judiciously have women candidates been chosen, that few fail of election, while their reëlection is practically certain.

Is there not, possibly, a very close connection between the indifference of American women to this question and that of your "respectable" classes to general politics, of which, especially in former years, we used so often to hear? You justly condemned the latter, and now there is a decided change. But you seem to oppose such a change of view as to women's duties. Do not the arguments against the indifference of men apply with equal force to those women who regard an interest in politics as if it were meddling with pitch? My wife, an American lady, used to regard the question from precisely the standpoint which you seem anxious that American ladies should assume. Living in England has entirely changed her views, and she is now ready to do all in her power to favor a cause through which thinking English women wisely perceive that they can best further every reform affecting the status of their less-favored sisters. No small factor in her conversion was the good fortune of visiting the homes of ladies prominent in the movement—homes which specially struck her by the beauty of their family life. Thus a very common prejudice was entirely removed.

Turning to another matter, there is a slight error in your issue of the 12th of April, to hand this morning. Our one-shilling telegram of twenty words is *exclusive* of the name and address of sender and receiver, not inclusive.

J. Edmund Clark.

York, England, April 26, 1883.

CATHOLIC CASUISTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I take the liberty of calling your attention to Letter XVII. in the little pamphlet, Witherspoon on 'Romanism,' in which there is a full account of Saint (!) Liguori's book, and several of the references of your Pittsburgh correspondent are confirmed. As you will see from the prefatory note, in the first issue of this letter there were some mistranslations, through the wrong MS. reaching the printer, which Bishop Keane (of Virginia) made the subject of a long rejoinder, thus *practically endorsing the accuracy of the quotations in other respects.* These quotations are sufficient to show that Jesuitism to-day is the same as in the days when the "Little Letters" exposed it to shame.

I am, sir, very respectfully,

Peyton H. Hoge.

601 W. Main Street, Richmond, Va., May 9, 1883.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent H. L. Richards "thinks it time for our intelligent Protestant friends to cease taking the opinions of St. Alfonso de Liguori at second hand." Will you kindly allow us to quote the opinion of Cardinal Newman, who is certainly *now* a Roman Catholic, though doubtless his training as an Englishman and a Protestant must influence his views?

"St. Alfonso de Liguori, it cannot be denied," he says in his 'Apologia,' "lays down that an equivocation—that is, a play upon words in which one sense is taken by the speaker and another sense intended by him for the hearer—is allowable if there is just cause, that is, in a special case, and may even be confirmed with an oath. I shall give my opinion on this point as plainly as any Protestant can wish; and therefore I avow at once that in this department of morality, much as I admire the high points of the Italian character, I like the English character better; but in saying so I am not, as will be

seen, saying anything disrespectful to St. Alfonso, who was a lover of truth, and whose intercession I trust I shall not lose, though on the matter under consideration I follow other guidance in preference to his. . . . I plainly and positively state, and without any reserve, that I do not follow this holy and charitable man in this portion of his teaching."

Cardinal Newman then shows that he can quote from Protestant writers opinions that appear to justify equivocation in certain cases. We think, however, that it is no longer proper to accuse Protestants of misrepresenting the views of the Saint when Cardinal Newman declines to accept his teachings. M.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to express my surprise that the editor of a paper of such standing as the *Nation* should be so influenced by the vulgar prejudices of the ignorant as to pen the article about Catholic criminals in your issue of April 19.

You are surely wrong in asserting that Catholic criminals asseverate their innocence at the last moment after receiving the rites which the Church only gives to the penitent. There may have been cases in which so-called Catholics have asserted their innocence at the last moment, but such have not received the sacraments, and have not been accompanied to the scaffold by a priest. No arrangement *could* be made with their spiritual advisers to declare their innocence if they were guilty. There can be no condition of conscience in which a man can feel that he is a good Catholic and yet be engaged in the commission of crime; unless, perhaps, he is for the moment maddened by some excitement, or by a feeling of intense wrong, which might warp his judgment and lead him to an action which in his calmer moments he would deplore. The "admissions" of an informer are not always to be relied upon, and it is a well-known fact that no Catholic who is a member of a secret society can receive the sacraments. There can be no reservations in the confessional, and no pardon without a sincere sorrow for past sin, and a firm purpose of amendment.

I enclose an article which, I think, well explains why there are such criminals as those now under sentence of death in Dublin, and which, though published in a New York paper, may not have come under your observation.

Respectfully yours, A. B.

PIKESVILLE, MD., May 7, 1883.

HUMAN NATURE—NORTH AND SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "L.," in the *Nation* of May 10, addresses himself to "the easy task of refuting" an "insulting insinuation" of mine in the *Nation* of the previous week. A word on that phrase, "insulting insinuation." What is his ground for the use of it? Simply that in endeavoring to account for what seemed to have surprised Mr. Plimpton, to wit, that at an examination in the University of Virginia a student from Indiana "was detected consulting his books while out, not by members of the Faculty, but by his fellow-students," and that "the sentiment among his classmates was so strong at what they considered an outrage, that they immediately warned him that, unless he left within so many hours, violence might be done to his person," I asked two questions:

1. "Is not a natural explanation of these facts suggested by the title ["College Honor and College Honors"] I have given this communication?" 2. "If not—if the action in this case proceeded purely from unselfish indignation—how happens it that these same students in a case of 'outrageous' violation of college law, *not* threatening their relative rank in scholarship, not only would not have taken the discipline into their own hands, but would, to a man, have refused to aid the faculty in it, even by so much as testifying to what their own eyes had seen; and that, too, when suspicion might fall, perhaps had, to their own knowledge, already fallen, on the innocent?"

Now, what is there "insulting" in the first of these questions? Have I suggested any unworthy motive as the "natural explanation" of the action that seemed so noteworthy to Mr. Plimpton? Would there be anything dishonorable in the students' being (to use "L.'s" phraseology) "indignant at any unfair advantage taken by one of their fellows"? On the contrary, such indignation would be highly honorable in them. The dishonorable thing would be the lack of indignation in the case supposed in my second question. But to that "L." takes no exception. He is shrewd enough to see that to answer that question would *not* be an "easy task"; so he very prudently gives it a wide berth. But the first question he thinks he can grapple with. "The mere fact that there is no competition whatever in the University of Virginia" seems to him destructive of my "theory." "All who attain the required standard of distinction are," he says, "on an equal footing" of reputed scholarship. Yes, and for that very reason they who attain it dishonestly do a personal injury both to those who attain it honestly and to those who fail to attain it; and therefore every honest student is *personally interested* in seeing that dishonesty does not succeed. The "natural explanation" suggested by me, then, is as applicable to the University of Virginia, with its pass examination, as to Harvard, with its competitive.

Having thus disposed of "L.'s" "easy task," let me suggest to him that he address himself to the difficult task of learning to state things without overstating them:

"The very fact," he says, "that a youth knows that he is watched seems to make him desirous of eluding that watch. At the Naval School in Annapolis, where a system of espionage is most rigid, there is probably more cheating than anywhere else in America. *But even here it is confined to the men from the North.*"

As we read the first of these three sentences, we assent to it mentally as a sound general observation; but when we come to the last, we find that we have been too fast—that the observation is not a general one at all, but only a very particular one; that while there is a good deal of human nature in "the men from the North," there is none at all in the men from the South. I doubt very much if the authorities at the Naval Academy will agree to these statements of "L."; nor do I think that the facts regarding the late disturbance there will bear him out in them.

"I, of course," says "L.," "agree with 'X.,' that 'to err is human,' but I believe that the average college student in the South is more free from the meanness of lying and cheating than is usually the case." Here "L." talks sensibly (though not very consistently, considering the last of the three sentences quoted above from his preceding paragraph), and I go along with him in believing it; and, what is more, I can account for it naturally. For "the average student from the South" comes from a higher social stratum than the *average* student from the North, or the West, where so many rise from the ranks. The comparison, to be a fair one, should be between institutions having a similar constituency. Take, for instance, St. Paul's School, Concord, N. H., where the high charge, $500 a year, makes its constituency a select one. Put it alongside of Mr. McCabe's University School, and I will guarantee that the student of the former shall be found the peer of the student of the latter in scholarship, in character, in breeding, in manliness and self-reliance, in chivalrous devotion to "whatsoever things are true, whatsoever things are honest, whatsoever things are just, whatsoever things are pure, whatsoever things are lovely, whatsoever things are of good report." Justice, however, requires of me one qualification. While the St. Paul's boys would undoubtedly send the cheat and the liar to Coventry, I do *not* believe they would threaten to lynch him. They don't do things that way there.

"Repudiation" "L.," in reply to "X.," admits to be a reproach, but he represents it to be the work of "a majority of ignorant negroes, led by reprobate white men." But from what stratum of society do these reprobate leaders come who now hold the chief offices of the State? Are they not mainly from "the youth of gentle nurture"? Such, at least, is my impression. If I am wrong in it, I should rejoice to be set right.

Very respectfully yours,

E. J. STEARNS.

FAULKLAND, DEL., May 14, 1883.

A TRANSLATOR'S GRIEVANCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Miss Marie A. Brown, of Stockholm, formerly of Boston, Philadelphia, and Chicago, has labored, with no little prodigality of hektograph circulars, to convince the American press, and through it the American public, that she has experienced some grievance at our hands in connection with our publication of Topelius's "Surgeon's Stories" in English. We have thought it not worth our while to notice these efforts to injure us, and have suffered enough by her financially to make us unwilling to contribute to her fondness for notoriety; but since a few journals have been deceived by her statements, and have made allusions to the matter which, in the absence of the facts, might be injurious to us, we will, with your permission, answer all Miss Brown's charges by a simple presentation of the facts.

Miss Brown's grievance, which she has paraded so industriously and with which she has sought to elicit the sympathies of two hemispheres, is no grievance. She owes us reparation, not complaint. She induced us to purchase her translations of "The Surgeon's Stories," and we paid her her price for them. In our transaction with her we trusted altogether too much to Miss Brown's supposed ability as a translator, and not enough to actual knowledge of the quality of her work. Her translation proved to be fatally defective. To publish it would have been disgraceful to us and a shameful injustice to the author. Without the slightest ill-will toward Miss Brown, we did the only thing that seemed left: having announced the stories, and having the fullest confidence in their literary merits, we procured new translations, and proceeded with the publication. We preferred to admit frankly that Miss Brown had got the better of us in the bargaining, and to shoulder the entire loss ourselves, rather than saddle any portion of it upon the public in the form of a poor translation. Miss Brown now thinks her name should appear upon the title-page of our new translation. Having got us to pay her for a translation which we could not use, she complains because we do not put her name upon a translation which she did not make.

Our grievance is a real one. Through our transactions with Miss Brown we have lost heavily. Yet we have made no outcry; we have employed no hektograph to assail her through the public press. We did not even make the matter public in any form until absolutely compelled to do so, in response to Miss

Brown's misstatements. For the publicity given to anything discreditable to her in the whole affair she has solely herself to blame.

The superiority of our new translation of 'Gustav Adolf' over the one purchased of Miss Brown has been authoritatively pronounced by some of the most expert critics in the country, and we feel ourselves clearly entitled to approval for our efforts in presenting these works to American readers in a form worthy of their high merits. If, as she pretends, Miss Brown has gained from Professor Topelius some expressions of sympathy, the fact will have but little significance for those who have had the fortune to know her, and who remember that she is now a resident of Sweden and has the good Professor's ear.—Respectfully,

JANSEN, MCCLURG & CO.

CHICAGO, May 12, 1883.

Notes.

PORTER & COATES, Philadelphia, have just received the concluding pages of the advance sheets of the third volume of the Comte de Paris's 'History of the Civil War in America,' and will be ready with their translation in about a month. The new volume represents the French volumes v. and vi., and deals with the operations of the Army of the Potomac in the East and the Army of the Cumberland and Tennessee in the West during the year 1863. In interest it can hardly be second to any other of the series.

Renan's 'Recollections of my Childhood and Youth' will be published by the Messrs. Putnam in a few days, from the authorized translation. The book is just now reaching this country in the original French.

J. R. Osgood & Co. will shortly bring out Mark Twain's new volume, 'Life on the Mississippi.'

Estes & Lauriat, Boston, will be the publishers of a work by Mr. Fred. S. Ober, describing his travels in Mexico and life among the Mexicans, to which the author is now giving the finishing touches on the spot. The illustrations will be from original photographs.

A 'History of Pembroke, N. H., 1727–1783,' by J. N. McClintock, editor of the *Granite Monthly*, Concord, N. H., is now in press. Only a small number of copies beyond those subscribed for will be printed.

John E. Potter & Co., Philadelphia, have in press an historical novel, 'The Life and Adventures of Lewis Weitzel,' Indian scout and Virginia ranger of a century ago.

'How to Get on in the World,' as demonstrated by the life and language of William Cobbett, is the title of a forthcoming work by Robert Waters (New York: J. W. Pratt). It will contain Cobbett's 'English Grammar,' with notes.

Robert Clarke & Co. publish immediately a 'History of Tuberculosis, from the time of Sylvius to the Present Day,' by Eric E. Sattler, M.D. In the main it is a translation from the German of Dr. Spina.

We have received some specimen pages of the new fourth edition of Chitty's 'Equity Digest,' or 'Index,' which will be brought out in this country (by special arrangement with the English publishers) by Soule & Bugbee, of Boston. The price to subscribers is much lower than the English price. The work will appear in five or six volumes, the first of which is to be ready in May; the others during the year. This edition will bring the work down to the date of publication. The title Bankruptcy is to comprise all the cases on that subject at common law, as well as in equity. The last edition was published in 1853, and since that time the number of cases has doubled. The work will unquestionably be one of great value.

The New England Manufacturers' and Mechanics' Institute will hold an art exhibition in Boston in September, and artists who contribute are invited to furnish one or more drawings of their pictures to adorn the catalogue, with which extraordinary pains will be taken. The direction will reproduce them without charge, and return the originals if desired. For particulars, Mr. Frank T. Robinson, P. O. Box 5340, Boston, should be addressed. "Besides the usual biographical and index contents of all catalogues," says the prospectus, "this will contain carefully prepared articles on contemporary art and such other matter as may be deemed suitable." The typography will be very handsome, and the edition large.

The two latest additions to the charming Parchment Library of the Messrs. Appleton are the works of Horace, and 'French Lyrics,' selected by Mr. George Saintsbury. Of the latter we shall have something to say hereafter. Of the Horace what need be said, except that it fully meets the intention of the Etonian editor, Mr. F. W. Cornish, "ne foris petendus liber utendo habilis formæque elegantioris"? It is without notes, and in the choice of a text Mr. Cornish has gone no further back than the best editions. In short, it is a handy book for one who knows his Horace and loves him; and why, we ask again, are not more books brought out in such a style and at such a price? Each of these volumes, by the way, has its etched frontispiece.

We must call the attention of the publishers of 'Harper's Handbook for Travellers in Europe and the East' to the liberties taken with the English language by the editor, Mr. W. Pembroke Fetridge. In the preface to the edition just issued for the present season, this gentleman says that he "spent most of the year 1880 in Switzerland, Russia, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, and 1881 in Great Britain, Ireland, France, and Spain, and 1882 in Italy and the East. All of these countries have been entirely rewritten, as well as the whole of Vol. II.," etc. Long residence abroad has doubtless impaired the author's mastery of his mother tongue, for it is a fact that so far are the chapters in question from being "entirely rewritten" that it requires a very painful search to discover many changes in this, the twenty-second year of the book, from last year's edition. It gives one a sad idea of the laborious monotony of a guide-book editor's life to read in last year's preface that the author "spent most of the year 1878 in Switzerland, etc., and 1879 in Great Britain, etc., and 1880 in Italy and the East," and that "all of these countries have been entirely rewritten, as well as the whole of Vol. II.," etc. However, Mr. Fetridge has at last caught up with the St. Gothard Railway, and in other ways past easy discovery has improved his guide-book. Repeating the full index with each of the three volumes has the inconvenience of sometimes referring the reader to a page not within the two covers he holds in his hand.

Mr. Cable's inimitable 'Creole Days' has been brought out afresh by Charles Scribner's Sons in a pretty form with paper covers, and in two parts, each complete in itself. They are timely summer reading.

Cheap paper editions, too, of Longfellow's 'Evangeline' and Whittier's 'Snow-bound, and Among the Hills' initiate a "Riverside Literature Series" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Holmes and Hawthorne will follow, with other authors associated with this Boston house.

Dr. Hugo Riemann, the author of the best musical lexicon in existence, and of several valuable theoretical works, has just published a 'Neue Schule der Melodik,' which teaches counterpoint according to an entirely new method. The first chapter is devoted to the question of modifying the system of scales, and the last contains remarks on *Metrik*, *Rhythmik*, and *Phrasirung*. The days of the artificial systems of harmony and counterpoint which have made the study of musical anatomy and grammar so irksome to gifted pupils, because they felt convinced of their unnaturalness, are evidently numbered.

An English translation of Haeckel's interesting 'Indische Reisebriefe,' by Mrs. S. E. Boggs, has been added to Lovell's Library, under the title of 'India and Ceylon.' As Haeckel forms his sentences after English and French models, rather than the complicated German style, he offers no great difficulty to the translator, who in this case has done her work smoothly, and, as far as we have compared it, correctly.

The 'Technological Dictionary,' in English, German, and French, first published about 1869 by Kreidel, in Wiesbaden, had reached a third and much enlarged edition in 1877. The first volume of a work rivalling this in elaborateness and importance, but confined to English and German, has just appeared in Brunswick (Fr. Vieweg & Sohn; New York: Westermann), under the editorial supervision of Prof. Gustav Eger. Architecture, engineering, mechanics, and chemistry are the departments most thoroughly represented; but, subsidiary to these, a great many others receive a fair share of attention, as, mathematics, astronomy, mineralogy, botany, commerce, political economy, navigation, etc. The print is very clear and accurate, and the characters Roman. It is to be remarked, also, that the *definition* as well as the corresponding word or phrase is given. We think the names of the various craftsmen might properly find place in such a dictionary, but this is all we miss. The work deserves a hearty welcome, if only for the enormous labor expended upon it.

We are glad to observe that M. Jules Lévy's *Le Français* (Cambridge, Mass.) has prospered so well as to warrant enlargement, with a slight increase of price. In this beautifully printed and exceptionally well edited journal there has been a growing tendency to take account of public affairs, while not forsaking the educational purpose of the editor. Next year (1883–84) *Le Français* will have a special Paris correspondence and special articles by French writers of repute. In other words, those already proficient in the language will have a motive for subscribing.

In nothing is the speed of this age shown so much as in the honors paid to authors and the efforts to explain their work. Homer waited for nearly thirty centuries before Damm compiled his lexicon. Herodotus and Plato waited almost as long for Schweighäuser and Ast. It was five centuries after the death of Dante, and two after the death of Shakspere, before the Dante Gesellschaft and the Shakspere Society were organized. But the Browning Society and Robert Browning are flourishing contemporaneously. Perhaps, as millionaires are advised to give their money while they are alive and can watch over the disposal of it, the Society last named thought best to commence the study of their idol's obscure verses while he was still with them to help them when they were utterly baffled. Victor Hugo has been apotheosized before he has ceased to be human; and Wagner is hardly buried when a Wagner-Lexikon is announced for the latter part of May. It is to contain all the words and phrases which he has used in a peculiar sense, and those which he em-

ployed to express his favorite ideas, both explained, so far as possible, in his own words. C. F. Glasenapp and Heinrich von Stein have prepared it. Cotta in Stuttgart will be the publisher.

The beauty of Spemann's Stuttgart publications is almost proverbial, and their extraordinary cheapness is well known. No handsomer magazine comes to our table from any quarter than this publisher's illustrated *Vom Fels zum Meer* (New York: F. W. Christern). The contents, too, are of a high order for popular reading, and very varied. In the March number the four-hundredth centenary of Raphael is commemorated by a fine series of examples from his works, particularly his drawings, several of which are reproduced *en sanguine* in the midst of the text—a feat which our best American monthlies have not yet essayed. On the other hand, the April number has some bird illustrations borrowed from our American designers and wood-cutters. It also contains an interesting article on stage-machinery, showing, for example, the contrivance by which the Rhine maidens swim under water in the opening scene of "Rheingold." In the May number, Moscow is described pictorially, in view of the approaching coronation.

Nature for April 26 is accompanied by the twenty-first steel portrait in its series of "Science Worthies," with the usual biographical sketch. The subject is William Spottiswoode, President of the Royal Society. From the same number we learn that Professor Tyndall has this month been giving a course of three lectures at the Royal Institution, on its originator, Count Rumford.

The bound volume of the *Century* for November-April (1882–83) makes the third of the new series. Cole's masterly portrait of Emerson would alone give it distinction, but those of Marshall, of Darwin, of Henry James, jr., of Florence Nightingale, of Leonard Bacon, of George William Curtis (though we regard this as the least happy), are superadded. Here, too, are to be found the fine engravings after the Pergamon sculptures, and here are the beginnings of Mr. Cushing's fascinating articles on the Zuñi Indians—to mention the merest fragment of the rich contents of this volume.

The latest publication of the Bureau of Education is 'Answers to Inquiries' about its work and history.

The pictures of B. Narishkine lately sold in Paris brought 1,072,830 francs. The largest price was for P. de Hooge's "La Consultation," 160,000 fr. Among famous names were Teniers, "Le Gastronome," 6,500 fr.; G. Dow, "La Marchande de Poissons," 50,000; a portrait by Dürer, 78,000; one by Reynolds, 18,100; Rubens, "Étude de quatre Têtes de Nègres," 55,000. The Aguado collection, with more famous names, did not bring such prices, the highest being a Murillo, 50,000 fr., and a L da Vinci, 34,000.

The artists who devised the topsyturvy and otherwise eccentric pictures of the Exposition des Arts Incohérents have extended their ingenuity to gastronomy; but it appears that they could invent nothing more novel than a banquet in reversed order, the cart before the horse, beginning with coffee and liqueurs, proceeding to fruit and dessert, then to the roasts and vegetables, ending with the hors d'œuvre and soup. It must require high spirits to extract amusement for any length of time—say the duration of a dinner of an exhibition—from such jokes.

Any student of sociology desirous to be brought face to face with the "human document," yet rejecting an introduction to it by Zola, would do well to subscribe for "Les Ouvriers des Deux Mondes," published by the Société d'Économie Sociale at 174 Boulevard St.-Germain, Paris. All the parts except the second of vol. i., which is out of print, are procurable. The plan is to interview the heads of mechanic and other laboring families, and make a faithful report of their domestic economy, their religious and social ideas, etc. Thus, the second *fascicule* of volume v. contains the monograph of a locksmith's family (*serrurier-forgeron*), and an abstract of the monograph of a bronze-mounter (*monteur en bronze*). The sceptical character of the Parisian workman is well exemplified, we are told, in both these families. The locksmith and his wife abstain from all religious observance; the bronze-worker thinks such observances are well enough for the rich with plenty of leisure, etc. Their earnings are respectively, say $725 and $925, but they make no savings, and sickness or loss of work throws them upon public charity and the hospital. The light thrown by these monographs upon the condition of the laboring class is clearly very great and of great utility.

—The highest qualities of Mr. Randolph Caldecott's draughtsmanship are perhaps not displayed in his designs for 'Some of Æsop's Fables, with Modern Instances,' newly translated by Alfred Caldecott (Macmillan). He is not at home with all the beasts, and occasionally his landscape is neither suggestive nor beautiful in line. But as a social and political satirist he is here seen to great advantage. With his customary versatility, he lavishes four designs upon each fable—a vignette at beginning and end, the illustration appropriate to the text, and the "modern instance" as an aside. Some of these last are extremely clever, and not unworthy to be compared with Cruikshank. Thus, the Fox and the Crow is parodied by the suitor who flatters mamma away from the sofa to the piano, and takes her place beside his adorable. The Lion and Other Beasts is reflected in a shareholders' annual meeting, at which the Chairman reads off the list of directors' fees and official salaries, and winds up with a dividend of one-eighth of one per cent. The Fox and the Stork is taken off by an exchange of gifts between Mr. F., who receives Harvey's 'Meditations among the Tombs,' and Mrs. S., who has had the *Sporting Magazine* imposed upon her. An odd fancy finds a parallel for the Cock and the Jewel in a storm-beaten traveller who encounters a tavern sign with "Beerseller" changed into "Bookseller." This last design has a truly Bewickian flavor. Mr. Caldecott's politics crop out in his finding a Jackdaw among the Doves when a reader of the *Daily News* disturbs a pleasant Jingo circle; and in his picture of the Irish clambering over the despised King Log of a Land Bill and entreating Britannia for the Stork Home Rule. Altogether this book, which might have appeared in the holiday season, will amuse both young and old.

—Mr. S. A. Schoff has recently, after a labor of nearly three years, completed a superb line engraving on steel after the late Wm. M. Hunt's much-admired picture entitled "The Bathers." This work cannot fail, we think, to awaken a renewed interest in the line-engraver's art, which has, under the influence of the modern mechanical processes of reproduction on the one hand, and of hasty and less exacting styles of engraving on the other, been too little cultivated of late. Such a work as this does honor to modern art. It is truly a masterpiece of interpretation and of technical skill, which will justly rank among the finest achievements of the burin. Mr. Schoff's command of the technics of this difficult art seems absolute. He appears to use the engraving tool as freely as an artist uses the pencil or brush. Such, indeed, is his mastery of means that they are thoroughly subordinated to expression; and hence this plate is raised out of the category of mechanical performances (against which there is a well-founded objection, and to which the productions of so many modern engravers, such as Raphael Morghen, for instance, more or less properly belong), and becomes a true work of art, in which the engraver's own poetic genius finds expression, while he yet remains faithful to the original. There is evidence in every part of this engraving that the artist has worked in that spirit, now certainly not as common as it ought to be, of single-hearted aspiration to do his very best, which is the fundamental condition of all genuine artistic accomplishment. The task of the engraver is not only that of producing delicate and finished effects of flesh, drapery, or accessories by cutting lines and dots into the surface of a plate of metal. It is also that of translating the qualities of a painting into the very different terms of simple lines, light and shade, and texture; and of passing everything of the original through his own mind, and rendering it into its nearest equivalents in another artistic language. It is this latter part of the task which calls forth the artistic rather than the technical ability of the engraver. But, in the work of a master, even the technical part of the art becomes highly interesting and instructive. In a design like this the choice of means by which are expressed the varying textures, the purity, transparency, and color in the flesh tones, the mysterious intricacy of the leafy background, and the surfaces of the quiet, and of the rippled, water—all bespeak the exercise of a high order of artistic intelligence and feeling. This plate will, we hope, receive the attention of connoisseurs which it so highly merits and will richly repay. It is published in Boston by John A. Lowell & Co.

—Mr. Theodore Bacon has reprinted two papers of considerable interest to lawyers: one on "professional comity," the other on "professional ethics"—the first originally read by him before the State Bar Association, the second before the Social Science Association, in September of last year. In both of them he strongly insists upon the low tone of the bar, and in the first urges that the discouragement of professional comity ought on this account to be one of the objects of respectable members of the profession. Professional "comity" is a very general term, and Mr. Bacon apparently means by it a special indulgence, growing out of membership in the same profession, for lapses from a proper standard of professional ethics. So limited, we can hardly conceive any lawyer believing that comity ought to be encouraged. In another sense, nothing is so likely to drive out comity altogether as the low condition of the profession of which Mr. Bacon complains. Comity in the sense of deference, good-feeling, a willingness to consult an adversary's convenience when it can be done without any sacrifice of a client's interest, grows out of a generally entertained assumption that all observe the same standard of honor and decorum and decency. But if the time should ever come when all such standards should be swept away, comity would go with them, because it could only be kept alive by a hollow mockery which would soon be felt to be useless. The bar, in its present condition, owing to the facility of admission, is said to be growing more and more like a trade; but no trade could really ever sink so low as a bar without professional standards. When we find, therefore, that it has been necessary for the Supreme Court of the United States to pass on the question whether a lawyer may be disbarred for lynching a prisoner in the custody of the court of which he is a member, or for the Court of Appeals of this State to decide that a convicted felon may be disbarred, notwith-

standing that he has been relieved by the Governor from serving out his entire term (86 N. Y., 536), it is the queerness of the fact that such matters are treated as doubtful that stirs our sense of the grotesque. There is one kind of "comity" not unknown in this city, which has never been thoroughly analyzed—we mean the "comity" by which attorneys engaged in receiverships or testamentary proceedings agree not to object to exorbitant bills drawn up by their adversaries, in consideration of similar favors in return. This, however, perhaps more properly belongs to the domain of criminal law than to that of professional ethics.

—Mr. Bacon calls attention to the curious fact that most of the questions which laymen think must give lawyers so many twinges of conscience rarely trouble them at all. Lord Brougham is responsible for a good deal of the ignorance which prevails on this subject, through having, in his celebrated defence of Queen Caroline, declared that an advocate's only duty was to "save his client," regardless of the consequences, even though he should involve his entire country in confusion. Mr. Bacon points out that this remarkable proposition was in reality a threat of Brougham's, which was understood well enough at the time of the trial by all concerned, that if the prosecution persisted, he would raise the question of the marriage of the King with Mrs. Fitzherbert, which would have been very confusing to the entire country. But few lawyers have ever to consider the question involved in Brougham's declaration, or, assuming them to be respectable, that other question, whether a good lawyer can undertake a case when he knows that his client is in the wrong, or guilty; as a matter of fact, he hardly ever does know anything of the kind. A much more difficult question is that of defences strictly legal in character, but supposed to be open to some moral objections—such as the statute of limitations, or the defence that a contract is against good morals. The courts used strongly to reprobate their use by defendants, but within the last generation they have wholly changed their tone, and the view generally taken in the profession now is that such defences are morally indifferent. That is to say, a lawyer is not thought worse of for interposing them. This, however, is due in a great measure to the fact that these defences are seldom presented singly, but are complicated with other grounds which are not open to any moral objection. A man, for instance, has a substantial defence on the merits, but may be poorly provided with evidence to sustain it, so that, if he relies upon this alone, he may be beaten. Shall he not resort to all the weapons which the law allows? Besides this, it is for the interest of society at large that stale claims shall not occupy the time of courts, and that contracts which involve a breach of morals shall not be enforced. But no universal rules can be laid down about such a matter. Such defences may be utterly unconscionable, and, when they are, a lawyer shows that he is himself as great a rascal as his client if he allows him to have the benefit of them.

—We extract from a biographical sketch in the April number of the *Deutsche Rundschau für Geographie und Statistik*, published in Vienna, the following particulars concerning the career of the late Purdy Pasha, an American officer in the service of Egypt. The notice is from the pen of the editor, Professor Friedrich Umlauft, and evidently derived from a trustworthy source, which is, however, not indicated. Erastus S. Purdy, who was born in 1838, in the State of New York, joined in 1857 the exploring and surveying commission under the future General Stone, sent by the Mexican Government to Sonora and Lower California. After two years' useful labor in this field he worked for some time as surveyor at the construction of the United States military road from New Mexico to the Colorado. On the outbreak of the civil war he entered the Union army, fought bravely in the Virginia campaigns, and attained the rank of major. In 1870 he accompanied General Stone to Egypt, entering the service of the Khedive as lieutenant-colonel and chief of the third section of the General Staff, which had the charge of geographical explorations. Soon promoted to the rank of colonel, he explored the regions east of the Nile from Cairo to Keneh and from Suez to Kosseir, traversing the desert in every direction, and exploring the shores of the Red Sea as far south as ancient Berenice. In 1874 he was placed at the head of an exploring expedition sent into the lately annexed territories of Darfur, a country previously very little known. The expedition returned in 1876 with stores of varied information—much of it personally gathered by Purdy—respecting the geography, climate, fauna and flora, mineral resources, and dialects of Darfur. For these excellent services Purdy was rewarded with the rank of pasha or general; but economical reasons prevented the publication of his charts, and, in 1878, even led to his dismissal from service. Reappointed in 1879, he was again dismissed early in 1881, and died in June of that year. Purdy's personal character is spoken of in very high terms.

—Herr K. J. Schröer has published an account of the production of "Faust" at the Burgtheater at Vienna. He is enthusiastic over its success, and so, it appears, was the audience, which was very large. The first part of "Faust" occupied two evenings, the second, one. There can be no longer any doubt, he says, about the fitness of the second part for acting. It carried away the audience, and has gained the same foothold upon the stage which the first part won fifty years ago. The first evening was made to end with the witch scene, the second was the *Gretchentragödie*. All the scenes of this tragedy deeply moved the audience. *Faust* was admirable; *Marguerite* (Fräulein Vessely) surpassed all expectation; *Helen* (Fräulein Wolter) was enchanting; the stage setting was all that could be desired, including the "Walpurgisnacht," which, as presented, was frightfully effective. In short, Herr Schröer, who wrote this account on the spur of the moment, was in a high state of excitement; but he is one of the most eminent of modern Goethe scholars, and he would not be satisfied with anything that is unworthy of his idol.

—The tables of the last census of Cisleithan Austria which exhibit the classes of the population according to occupation, are not without features of general interest. Out of the 22,000,000 inhabitants which the western division of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy numbered on Dec. 31, 1880—the Transleithan or Hungarian numbered 15,700,000—there were 94,500 persons of the clerical order, counting all the members of their families, who cannot be numerous, considering that the vast bulk of the Cisleithan population are of the Catholic religion. There were nearly twice as many soldiers in active service—185,000. The number of teachers in all kinds of schools, and of all persons belonging to them, fell short of that of the active soldiers—but few of whom are married—amounting only to 152,000. There were 162,000 officials (always including the families) in the active service of the Empire, the provinces, or the communes, and 90,700 employees in non-official public service. There were nearly 70,000 gendarmes and other guardians of order and safety. Art—this is characteristic of Austria—was represented by 31,000 actors, dancers, musicians, and singers, and by 15,000 painters and sculptors, while literature and journalism supported only 6,000 persons. Architecture and civil engineering supported 20,000; the law, 37,000 (lawyers and notaries); the higher sanitary occupations, 39,000, and the lower just as many. The number of persons living on pensions was 188,000—that is, greater than the army roll—and nearly three times as many (543,000) lived on incomes from *rentes* and houses. Banking and other monetary business engaged 33,600; commerce, 840,000; transportation by land of men or merchandise, 315,000, and transportation by water, 44,000. Only 10,600 persons were sustained by the sea fisheries of the short maritime border, but mining sustained 316,000; manufactures and trades, 4,700,000; and agriculture and forestry, 12,000,000 (including 450,000 tenants and permanent farm hands)—that is, more than half of the entire population. There were 1,650,000 day laborers of varying employment, 202,000 servants not living with their employers, 67,500 persons of unknown occupation, 24,000 inmates of educational establishments and orphan asylums, and 98,000 inmates of other charitable institutions. The relative numbers of supported consumers and producers or earners in a thousand were 525 and 475.

—The professors in the University of France have often expressed their regret that nowhere could they find complete sets of the German academical dissertations. The Minister of Public Instruction has therefore made arrangements with thirty German, Swiss, Dutch, and Scandinavian universities by which he will receive eighteen sets of each of these publications for distribution to as many university libraries. They are already coming in at the rate of at least a thousand dissertations a year. A great deal of valuable matter appears in this most inconvenient form, and the German libraries are full of the little quartos; some even have a separate department for them, and the proper method of cataloguing and cheapest way of binding them is the subject of discussion in all the treatises on library economy. The custom of attaching a short discourse of each professor to the semi-annual programme of lectures in his department is almost exclusively German, although there is something similar in the Italian fashion of excusing one's desire for fame by issuing one's pamphlets *per le nozze*, on the marriage of one's friends. In this country the Boston University has added an occasional dissertation to its annual catalogue, but we have not seen that its example has been imitated. We hope it will not be; it is not a convenient practice. The *Bulletin* of Harvard College Library, the *Circulars* of Johns Hopkins University, perhaps hereafter the *Library* of Cornell University, and the ordinary periodicals, are much better vehicles of publicity, and they have the further advantage that they are, or will be, included in 'Poole's Index,' so that their contents will not be buried, but can be readily referred to.

AUTHORS AND PUBLISHERS.

Authors and Publishers: A Manual of Suggestions for Beginners in Literature; comprising Description of Publishing Methods and Arrangements, Directions for the Preparation of MSS. for the Press, Explanations of the Details of Book-Manufacturing, Instructions for Proof-Reading, etc., etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A TREATISE of this kind could come from no house in the country with more appropriateness than from one the name of which was early

associated with the pleasantest relations existing between authors and publishers. The work itself, though a small one, is of great value. It modestly purports to be merely a manual of suggestions for beginners in literature; but there is much in it which the most experienced literary veteran can read with profit, not merely for the views it suggests, but for the information it contains. On the latter account, it is not going too far to say that the work ought to be in the hands of every one who purposes to make authorship either a vocation or an avocation.

We say this the more willingly because the treatise not unnaturally represents the publishers' view of the everlasting questions in controversy between them and authors. It is right that this view should be stated, and in the volume before us it is very temperately stated. Yet it is inevitable that a work so produced should be one-sided; and that the unavoidable inference drawn from reading it is that the complaints of authors about publishers are due to ignorance, to inexperience, or to the desire to impute to others a failure which is the result of their own misconduct or incapacity. The assertions made in it are precisely the ones which much reading of the special newspaper organs of the book trade, or of magazines that bear the imprint of publishing houses, has made rather drearily familiar to most of us. The real complaints of the author are either ignored or evaded, and the attention is steadily directed to those that can easily be shown to be mistaken or trivial.

We are assured, again and again, that the publisher is first and foremost a merchant. His mission is not to encourage literature, at least directly; not to rush to the relief of struggling authors; not to convince an indifferent or incredulous world of the merit which it has hitherto failed to recognize or reward. His business is to study the taste of the reputable reading public: to print what it likes, and to refuse to print what it does not care for or actually dislikes. On no other principles can he achieve success. It is, therefore, the height of unreason and injustice to ask him to rob or ruin himself out of a sentimental regard for unappreciated merit. Equally absurd is it to demand that he shall immolate himself on the shrine of personal friendship. On the other hand, it is self-evident that he has the keenest desire to get hold of anything new and good, and which he believes will succeed. He is on the look-out constantly for rising talent. He yearns for the sight of the new poem or the new novel which is to make the sensation of the season. Even if he has no genuine sympathy with letters, he is actually prevented from going far astray by the manifest fact that the interests of literature and his own personal interests are identical. Surely that must be a perverted nature which can find fault with a being so beneficent, who makes mistakes, it may be, but makes them only because the profession which fairly constrains him to be all-merciful cannot at the same time enable him to become all-wise.

This is the view honestly taken by the publisher, and constantly set forth by his advocates. Nor are we disposed to deny that the complaints made against him owe their origin more often to disappointed vanity than to lack on his part either of judgment or of good-nature. If anything would lead to a different opinion, however, it is a statement in this volume which is evidently looked upon as being a crushing reply to the complaining author. We are assured that, according to probable estimates, one-fourth of the books printed in the United States are a positive loss, one-half do no more than pay their cost, and whatever profit is made is made upon the one-fourth that are successful. We have little faith in a general statement of this kind, and no faith at all when an application of it is made to the transactions of any particular establishment. But, assuming the truth of the assertion, what an extraordinary picture of mercantile sagacity it presents! For it is to be kept in mind that, according to the view repeated with "damnable iteration"—to call in Shakspere—the publisher is above everything else a man of business, and it is on that ground that he asserts his superiority of judgment to the incredulous writer, and justifies himself against his complaints. But fancy a man engaged in any other trade than that of bringing out books furnishing to his fellow-men as a reason for placing the most implicit confidence in the wisdom of his conduct and conclusions such a statement as this: "From one-half of my ventures I get nothing at all; on one-fourth I lose money; on the remaining fourth I reap the pecuniary harvest which enables me to save myself from the consequences of the blunders and miscalculations I have made on the other three-fourths. You will therefore do well to embark in any enterprise I advise, and refrain from taking part in any of which I disapprove."

It is not, however, with this branch of the subject that we care to deal. Articles and books have been rejected in the past, and will be rejected in the future, sometimes unwisely, but usually with justice. Writers will continue to vent their complaints on that score, sometimes with reason, more often without. But it is not the grievances of authors who do not get their works published that are the real ones, but the grievances of those that do. These may be imaginary, but they are the ones to be considered. They are the ones that are constantly talked of by authors among themselves; they are the ones that breed that suspicion and distrust and dislike of which the publisher at times complains. The existence of such feelings is conceded at the outset in this very work. It is even admitted that there are things in the "reminiscences" of certain authors that might serve as a justification of the unfavorable opinion sometimes entertained of the publisher. Among these authors are mentioned Milton, Johnson, Goldsmith, Voltaire, Balzac, Heine, Byron, and Thackeray—none of whom, certainly, complained because men were unwilling to print what they wrote. It must be confessed that this is a rather formidable array of names, and it is without the intention of expressing the slightest personal disrespect that we remark that the counterbalancing favorable testimony found in this volume of the Rev. Julius H. Ward and Mr. Frederick B. Perkins is hardly sufficient to keep the balance even between the two sides. It is therefore the merest act of justice to the publisher to say that a fuller study of literary history would relieve several of the names in this list from the charge of seriously entertaining or expressing hostility to him. On the other hand, we confess to a good deal of incredulity as to the existence of "the hundreds of thousands of cases" that this volume mentions in which "authors have, through the successful coöperation of their publishers, received from the public a satisfactory return for their labors," and who in consequence have no criticism to make, but only praise to offer. It is certainly to be wished that this roseate picture were also an accurate one; but a tolerably wide acquaintance with writers has not as yet to us revealed the particular representative of the class who goes about telling people quietly he owes his little all to his publisher, and tenderly murmuring the latter's name in accents of gratitude. His existence we cannot deny, only it has not been our fortune to meet with him; and, unless directly in the pay of publishing houses, it is hard for us to imagine him.

On the contrary, we are disposed to say, in direct contradiction to what is asserted in this volume, that the complaints of authors which never come to the ear of the public are infinitely more numerous than those which are brought to its attention because recorded in published letters and journals; that the latter, indeed, are but a slight fragment of the great total. The first grievance is the inadequate share the writer receives of the profits. In the method of publishing generally adopted in this country—which is essentially a partnership between author and publisher—the highest rate ordinarily paid to the former is ten per cent. of the retail price of the number of copies sold. The author, then, contributes to the partnership his labor, his knowledge, his invention, his imagination—in fine, the very things which make the permanent success of the work, if it has any success at all. The latter contributes the money that is needed to bring this product of thought before the eyes of the public. If the book fails, the author has lost his time and labor, and any expense he may have incurred in preparing or working up his material. The publisher has lost the money paid for the material, the manufacture of the volume, and the subsequent agencies needed to put it in the hands of the purchaser. On the other hand, if it succeeds, the author receives at best ten per cent. on the price of the book sold as his payment for the time, the labor, the thought, and it may be the genius, that have been put into the work. The publisher's profits are made from the wholesale, and not from the retail price; and though booksellers assure us that in the volume before us the profits are understated, we accept for the occasion the account here given. According to that, they are just five times those of the author—that is to say, where the former receives fifteen cents, the latter receives seventy-five. On what principle that regulates the business dealings of men with one another is this (asks the complaining author) a fair division of profits?

It will be said on the part of the publisher that he cannot afford to give more than ten per cent. in the case of a writer whose reputation is yet to be made. But how often does he exceed it in the case of men whose reputations have been made? And again, a common practice of the publishers is calmly stated in this volume as the very quintessence of justice. This is to make no payment to the author at all until a thousand copies have first been sold, for it is not until this number has been disposed of that, according to the work before us, the expense of bringing out the book has been fully reimbursed.

> "The royalty," it says, "is paid simply as a commutation of profits, and it is in order, therefore, for the payments not to begin until the profits begin. . . . It seems reasonable that if the publisher has consented to assume the risk and investment of bringing a work before the public, he should not, if the venture bring loss instead of profit, be called upon to swell such loss by a compensation to the author. However much labor may have been invested in a work, it seems equitable that if it does not prove itself capable of earning anything, the author shall receive nothing for it."

This is a deliciously frank statement of the publisher's view of equity, and is important because it is the one universally held in theory and enforced wherever possible in practice. It may strike the author, however, that it is a legitimate corollary from this proposition that, if the eternal equities are to reign, he ought necessarily to receive, instead of a beggarly ten per cent., fifty per cent. at least of the proceeds after the first thousand copies have been sold and all expenses attendant on bringing out the book have been paid. We do not notice that there is any reference to such a possible inference in this volume.

The proportion of profit received is not the only grievance. There is yet another. The au-

thor has written his book, the publisher has accepted it, and sets to work to print it. The former has signed a contract, in the drawing up of which, however, he has never once been consulted, and it is needless to say its provisions are not strained in his favor. By the terms of this contract, the publisher is to furnish him semi-annually the amount due from the sales of the preceding half-year, though actual payment of this amount, it is usually provided, shall be made some weeks or months after the returns are rendered. At this point comes in a disturbing element, which has the peculiarity of operating entirely to the advantage of one of the parties to the agreement and to the disadvantage of the other. It has been stated over and over again in private, but it will bear a more frequent repetition in public. The author is not merely a business partner with the publisher so far as a particular investment is concerned, but he is often a personal friend—at any rate, the relations existing between them are understood to be the relations that are supposed to exist between gentlemen. The result is that during the negotiations for the bringing out of the book the publisher maintains the character of a business man pure and simple, but as soon as it is brought out, and his accounts come to be rendered, he poses at once as the personal friend or the gentleman. The author must accept without question his statement as to the number of copies sold, and the amount in consequence due to himself. To insist upon any examination of his books would be a direct imputation upon the honor of the man with whom he lives, perhaps, on terms of intimacy. The publisher is therefore at liberty to make any returns of sales he pleases. At best, he usually pays but ten per cent., but even of that ten per cent. the author cannot be sure, because he knows nothing at all of the success of his work beyond what his theoretical business partner chooses to tell him, nor outside of that has he, in most instances, the slightest means of knowing anything.

This does not imply that publishers are dishonest, or that they cheat authors; it would require far more than ordinary evidence to make us credit for a moment such a charge, if brought against any one of the leading houses of the country. Still, if the bringing out of a book is merely a matter of business, it had better be business throughout. Let the publisher act in accordance with the principles that regulate all other partnerships; let him not merely submit to but insist upon complying with the conditions of all fair dealing; let him not practically set up the plea of business when it inures to his own personal advantage, but the plea of sentiment when the business plea inures to the advantage of the author.

Much more might be said that must be omitted. We remark, finally, that by the nature of his profession the publisher is trading largely in the necessities and vanities of men. His object is naturally and properly to make money; and he is aided in it more or less by many who are influenced primarily by a desire of reputation which is indifferent to, if it does not actually spurn, all pecuniary considerations. This feeling, at once the source of the strength and the weakness of the author, not unfrequently makes him willing to submit to any terms whatever to get his book brought properly before the public. That the publisher should be under a constant temptation to take advantage of such a feeling is inevitable; that he should sometimes yield to it is not wonderful.

EGYPTIAN ART.

A History of Art in Ancient Egypt. From the French of George Perrot and Charles Chipiez. Illustrated with 598 engravings in the text and 14 steel and colored plates. Translated and edited by Walter Armstrong, B.A., Oxon. Two volumes. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1883.

THE authors of this admirable work remark truly, in their introduction, that the effort to fix the exact place which art occupied in the life of ancient times has never thus far been successful, because the historians who have treated of those times have not possessed enough special knowledge of the arts. Art, they say, has a method and language of its own, with which a scholar who would successfully deal with the civilization and culture of the past must acquaint himself. In the case of Greece, they say further, that the only competent one, from this point of view, of the many learned writers who have attempted to trace its history is Ernst Curtius; and they go on to show that "Greece without its architects, its sculptors, and its painters—without, in fact, its passion for beautiful form: a passion as warm and prolific as its love for poetry—is hardly Greece at all. . . . 'Literature,' we are told, 'is the expression of social life,' and so the history of literature is written for us. All this is true enough; but there is another truth which seems to be always forgotten: that the art of a people is quite as clear an indication of their sentiments, tastes, and ideas as their literature." This is an important consideration in its bearing upon general scholarship no less than upon that which relates to art. The fact that literature does not by any means include all that is of highest significance and value as an expression of social life and of feeling and thought, is not yet sufficiently appreciated. Consequently, the high importance of the fine arts as a branch of liberal culture is not yet practically and in an unqualified manner understood in our institutions of learning, though there are some signs that it may ere long become so. The remarks of our authors are therefore timely, and are especially instructive in showing that the mere study of art through literature is not enough, but that in order to acquire a real knowledge of the subject, so as to be able to think and speak of it with intelligence, one must cultivate an intimate acquaintance with actual objects of art, and must cultivate, also, in himself a love for beautiful forms. As an instance of the importance of art as a record of the life of a people, they cite the case of the Etruscans, whose whole literature has perished; and, in further illustration of this point, one may call to mind the fact that Venice, with all the nobility and beauty of her social life, produced no important literature whatever, but expressed herself entirely through the arts of architecture, sculpture, and painting.

The two volumes before us are but the beginning of an extended work which is intended to embrace the entire history of the arts, from the earliest historic antiquity down to the commencement of the Middle Ages. But the subject of Greek art will occupy the chief place, since it is on account of the light which they throw upon its formation and decline that the antecedent and subsequent arts of the world are treated. Prehistoric art is not included in the scheme, because, according to these authors, it belongs to a period much nearer to primitive barbarism than to that of civilization; and the arts of Japan and China are omitted because they have never been connected with those of Europe. The authors show that the various works upon ancient art already existing, though some of them are in many ways excellent, are incomplete in one respect or another. That of Winckelmann, for instance, is inadequate because he had but very slight knowledge of Egyptian art, and had none whatever of the arts of Chaldea and Assyria, Persia, and Phœnicia—all of which contributed largely to the formation of the art of Greece. Even the art of Greece was very imperfectly known to him. The painted vases were, in his day, yet hidden in Etruscan and Campanian cemeteries, and the Greek sculpture accessible to him was that of the post-Phidian time only—the art of Praxiteles, Scopas, and Lysippus. The works of Phidias and the other great masters of the fifth century were then wholly unknown in real examples. Winckelmann, however, did valuable service in opening the field for later investigators, through whose labors our knowledge has been vastly extended, so that whereas formerly the art of Greece had been chiefly known through that of Rome, the materials had, by the end of the last century, accumulated so abundantly that it could be studied extensively at first hand. About 1830 Carl Ottfried Müller, a scholar of rare and varied genius, wrote his 'Handbook of Ancient Art and its Remains,' a work so thorough and judicious, within the limits which the materials then accessible would permit, that there is as yet no other book to compare with it. But even Müller had not the materials for the study of the true antecedents of Greek art, and he was led to entertain the mistaken notion that "the Greek race extracted from its own inner consciousness all that made its greatness and its glory."

More recently the field has been greatly widened by the bringing to light of these antecedents. The discoveries in Egypt and in the other countries of the East have enabled archæologists to solve many difficult problems, and the discovery of the Tanagra figurines has enlarged our conception of the genius of the Greeks by showing its playful and lighter sides in the familiar treatment of domestic life, and by giving accurate information as to dress and social customs. Indeed, there is only one branch of Greek art remaining in which the paucity of materials is deplorably great. We have absolutely no means of determining the character of that art of painting which the ancient authors put upon the same level with their sculpture. By a comparison of the finest sculpture, and the outlines on vases, with existing remains of Etruscan and Pompeian mural painting, various, more or less plausible, conjectures can be formed, but that is all. In the departments of architecture and sculpture, however, recent discoveries have been so extensive and so important as to render it necessary that the whole history of ancient art should be rewritten in the manner which our authors have so ably undertaken. In this work they do not propose to go elaborately into details which would needlessly swell its proportions. Their task is rather to gather faithfully, from all sources of information, both in literature and remains, that which should contribute to a comprehensive and trustworthy compend. We are, therefore, warned that we should not look in these pages for any exhaustive treatment or circumstantial description of particular monuments, but only for that general presentation of the subject, founded upon trustworthy authority, which is necessary to a correct understanding of the origin, progress, and decline of Greek art. The present book is, by this wise limitation, relieved of that bewildering mass of dry details which makes the works of most Egyptologists so bulky and so tedious. The student, however, who may desire to investigate any part of the subject more closely will find abundant reference made throughout the work to the best authorities. And these

references constitute a bibliography from which the authors intend to omit nothing important.

The first of these two volumes consists of four extended chapters, which treat respectively of The General Characteristics of Egyptian Civilization, Principles and General Characteristics of Egyptian Architecture, Sepulchral Architecture, and The Sacred Architecture of Egypt. The second volume has six chapters, on Civil and Military Architecture; Methods of Construction, the Orders, Secondary Forms; Sculpture; Painting; The Industrial Arts; and The General Characteristics of Egyptian Art, and the Place of Egypt in Art History. Almost every page gives evidence that the authors are eminently qualified for their task, both by native aptitudes and by cultivation. Their justness of perception is shown most clearly, perhaps, in their occasional remarks upon the character of Greek art, as where, on page xi. of the Introduction, they call attention to the fact—too little noticed by other writers—that emphasis and striving for effect mark the decline of sculpture very soon after the time of Phidias; so that the art of Praxiteles, Scopas, and other later sculptors is inferior, not simply because these artists were less highly gifted, but also in consequence of a growing tendency to disregard the just restraints which had governed design in the forming and fully formed art. They call attention, also (vol. i., p. 60), to the discriminating particularization by which the Greek sculptors distinguished one god from another—a characteristic which, under the imperfect idea that has widely prevailed concerning a predominant generic ideal of form in Greek sculpture, has received insufficient attention, so that some of the most instructive lessons of Greek sculpture have not yet had their due effect upon the arts, and the art ideas, of modern times. The authors show (p. 67) that "the Greek sculptor had nothing beyond the bodily form and features of man with which to give a distinct individuality to each god and goddess of his mythology; he was, therefore, obliged to make use of the most delicate and subtle distinctions of feature and contour." This faculty for clear definition and individual expression they rightly affirm to be among the most important qualifications for the attainment of high excellence.

Not the least interesting portions of the work are those in which the light of recently acquired knowledge is thrown upon certain traditional theories of architectural construction—as upon the theory of the antiquity of the voussoired arch, which is shown, upon the authority of Mariette, to have been constructed as early as the sixth dynasty. This investigator, too, gives it as his opinion that the true arch was well understood from the earliest times. Our authors conclude that we have no reason to believe that the *offset* arch is older, in Egypt, than the voussoired arch. Again, as to the hypothesis of Champollion regarding the derivation of the Greek Doric shaft from the Egyptian fluted column with square abacus, it is shown that the two forms are not really alike; and the opinion is advanced that, as these fluted shafts were archaic at the time when the Greeks penetrated into Egypt, it is not likely that they would have been taken as models.

The developments of the pier and column respectively are minutely traced; and the manner in which the capital is allied to the shaft below and the architrave above, is considered with artistic as well as scientific acuteness. The twofold function of the capital, as marking the point where the upward lines of the column terminate, and where it prepares itself to carry superincumbent weight, is admirably illustrated; and the fact that it must so fulfil this function as to satisfy the eye, no less than the actual constructive requirements of the material—that, in short, in architecture "what seems to be necessary is so"—is clearly recognized. Nor do the authors fail to remark upon the singular fact that the broad upper surface of the campaniform capital, the most beautiful of all Egyptian capitals, is not used for the support of the architrave, which is, on the contrary, carried on the comparatively small cubic abacus. And they justly add that "without this fault the composition of which it forms a part would be worthy, both in proportion and decoration, of being placed side by side with the most perfect of the Greek columns." A possible explanation of this singular form is offered in the course of some remarks concerning the resemblances which exist between certain details of architecture and the forms of some plants—as the lotus and papyrus. These resemblances have given rise to various well known theories respecting the direct derivation of the forms of column and capital from those of these plants. But MM. Perrot and Chipiez think it improbable that the slender and yielding forms of growing plants should have inspired the architects. They suggest, however, that on fête-days they may have been used to decorate pillars and posts of more substantial construction, by being bound around them, and that from the square pillar thus decorated the architectural forms in question may, very probably, have been derived.

The belief has extensively prevailed, as far back as the time of Plato, that Egyptian art was of a uniformly immobile and unprogressive character throughout its course. But upon this point the light of modern research is clearly thrown, and the art of Egypt is shown to have a progressive history no less than that of other civilizations, notwithstanding its long periods of convention and apparent fixedness. This history, however, is of a very puzzling character, especially so in the department of sculpture, the oldest of which is the most remarkable for likeness to nature, and consists, apparently, of portraits only. Some of these are "masterpieces of realistic expression," and they are certainly wonderful for animation, for articulation of form, for freedom of attitude, and for diversity of character. A number of figures from the Memphite tombs, brought to Paris by Mariette as lately as the year 1878, exhibit these characteristics in a remarkable degree.

To painting, which formed so large a part of the Egyptian modes of decoration and expression, we think the authors hardly do full justice. They remark very truly upon its conventional and elementary character, its entire failure to express rotundity of form, recession of planes, tonic relations, etc.; but they do not appear to recognize how good and instructive it is in its very limited way—how in frankly resolving the colors of objects into their simplest conditions, it establishes the fundamental principle which underlies all good painting whatever.

The style of the book is perhaps a little too diffuse, but it is everywhere clear. The translation is smooth, and the typography is excellent. The abundant illustrations in the text are good enough for their purpose (those on architecture are drawn to a uniform scale), and the steel plates are uncommonly good.

THE EARLY MANHOOD OF CAVOUR.

Lettere edite ed inedite di Camillo Cavour, raccolte ed illustrate da Luigi Chiala. Volume Primo [1821–1852], dall' Accademia Militare alla Presidenza del Consiglio. Torino: Roux e Favale. 1883.

As the years carry us away from that period in which Cavour worked for and achieved the unification of Italy, we are able to estimate more justly the vastness of his ability and the acuteness of his perceptions. If he seemed great in the midst of his activity, he seems greater now that his acts have become history, and that he is measured by the dispassionate standards of a new generation. In the formation of the Italian kingdom there were three factors—Victor Emmanuel the King, Cavour the statesman, and Garibaldi the popular hero. Of the three, each did his part manfully, but Cavour alone was indispensable. Without Victor Emmanuel and Garibaldi the liberation might have been postponed; without Cavour it would hardly have been possible. Such a man was needed to harmonize the discordant elements, to understand, as if by intuition, when the time was ripe, and to convince Europe, by serious and calm determination, not only that this great movement toward constitutional liberty was just and commendable, but also that it in no wise resembled the chaotic convulsions of Mazzinians and Carbonari.

The first volume of Signor Chiala's work brings Cavour's correspondence down to the year 1852, when he became President of the Council of Ministers and the acknowledged backbone of the Italian cause. Nearly two hundred and fifty letters are here given, many of them for the first time, which throw much light upon that part of his career which is least known. As we read them now, we are struck upon almost every page with the unmistakable proofs of the genius of the writer, and we wonder that his contemporaries did not earlier recognize his remarkable character. We are also astonished and puzzled to watch the development, in that retrograde, Jesuitical, despotic, enervating court of Turin, of a character as honest, practical, cool, and self-sustained as Lincoln's, and endowed also with oratorical and diplomatic gifts of the rarest kind. In the present review we shall confine ourselves to a hasty glance at the first thirty years of Cavour's life, which is made particularly clear and interesting by the letters now published. Signor Chiala prefaces the correspondence with a biographical commentary, in which he follows year by year Cavour's career, illustrating it by copious extracts from all previous memoirs and records. In this way, while his work is not so polished as the more pretentious biography by Massari, it is rich in anecdotes and details which are usually wanting in more finished books; and it is safe to predict that any future biographer of Cavour must perforce go to Signor Chiala for many of his materials.

Camillo Benso di Cavour was born in Turin, August 10, 1810. His father, Don Michele, married, in 1805, Adele Susanna Sellon, a young lady of Geneva, sprung from a French family which had emigrated to Switzerland after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Camillo was the second child, and had for sponsors Prince Camillo and Princess Paulina (Buonaparte) Borghese. When six years old, the boy was taken to Geneva. He was already remarkable for his decided opinions, but, beyond this, gave no signs of juvenile precocity. At ten years of age he entered the Royal Military Academy at Turin, where he proved himself fond of pranks and averse from studies, except mathematics. His father wished him to be enrolled among the royal pages, and his wish was granted on July 9, 1824, when the "polite and interesting" Camillo was appointed to the service of the Prince of Carignan. The youth was ill-pleased with the service, and in later years Cavour used to relate his feelings of disgust at having to wear livery like a lackey. When, in 1826, he was appointed sub-lieutenant in the royal corps of engineers, he expressed his satisfaction at escaping from his menial office so loudly as to incur the displeasure of the King. He was first

stationed at Ventimiglia, and then at Genoa, where he formed many warm friendships and became acquainted with the political situation. In 1829 he writes to an English friend:

"While all Europe journeys on the road of progress, our wretched Italy is ever crushed under the same system of civil and religious despotism. Pity those who, with a soul made to nourish the generous principles of modern civilization, are constrained to see their country ravaged by Austrian bayonets. Tell your countrymen that we are not unworthy of liberty, and that, if we have rotten members, we have also men worthy to enjoy the benefits of light."

For a moment the French revolution of July led him to hope for the dawning of a new era in Piedmont; but he soon saw how vain were his hopes. Added to his disappointment was a personal inconvenience, since the new King, Charles Albert, transferred him from Genoa to Bard, in the Val d'Aosta, a lonely place, where for eight months the young officer passed his time in solitude. Finally, in November, 1831, he resigned from the army and returned to his father's house. The loss of two well-loved relatives plunged him into temporary melancholy, and convinced him of the "nothingness of the vanities of this world." But, though he renounced every idea of glory, he added, in a letter written toward the end of 1831, "I will continue to uphold liberal opinions with the same warmth, without hoping, or even desiring, to make a name for myself. I will uphold them through love of truth and through sympathy for mankind." At this time Northern Italy was secretly getting ready for an insurrection, under the occult direction of Mazzini and his emissaries. From the first, Cavour saw that they must fail, and in nothing did he show his sagacity more clearly than in refusing to be drawn into the alluring but fatal vortex of lawless agitation. That the temptation was great, his own declarations testify, but that his power to resist was greater, is shown in all his actions. He had the enthusiasm of the young reformer, without his extravagance. His dreams were equal to the boldest, but he did not mistake them for realities. Witness this prophetic paragraph from a letter dated October 2, 1832, addressed to the Marchioness di Barolo:

"When one throws one's self quite young into the world and into politics, bringing thereto a fresh heart and proud spirit, it is not astonishing that one should indulge in the most deceptive illusions of vanity, celebrity, glory, ambition, and I know not what besides. I, for my part, fell into them completely, and I will acknowledge to you—at the risk of making you laugh long at me—that there was a time when I did not deem anything beyond my strength, and when I should have thought it quite natural *to awake some fine morning the directing minister of the Kingdom of Italy.*"

The unsuccessful rising in Piedmont in 1833 taught Cavour the inadequacy of underhand methods, and the inability of Piedmont, unaided, to overthrow absolutism. Already, in the preceding year, he wrote to his English friend: "The intervention of France does not seem sufficient to obtain even the smallest and most reasonable concessions from the Pope: only the *voice of England*, raised in a firm and positive tone, could obtain for the people at least a bearable government, and one in harmony with the ideas and customs of our century." Thus, at twenty-two, he had discovered the necessity of interesting England in the cause of Italy before ultimate victory could be expected. Touching the futile insurrection, he wrote in April, 1833:

"They have seized some papers, and arrested a good number of under officers—matter eminently revolutionary. This conspiracy of madmen, which had no chance of success, will have no other result than to send backward our Government still further. . . . The saddest result of the July revolution, and one which nearly balances all its benefits, is the birth to which it gave place of a frantic, fierce, and absurd party, which, chasing a chimera, wishes by forestalling the future to make triumph, at any cost, a system now impossible, and which on this account pushes society to a fearful chaos whence she can only recover by means of a power absolute and brutal, despotic or aristocratic. Notwithstanding this tirade against the Republican party which does us so much harm in Italy, I will tell you that I preserve entire faith in the future of the human race and in the law of social progress, and therefore each day I applaud more and more those persons who, like my uncle, strive to hasten it by wise, impartial, and reasonable writings."

A month later Cavour defined the situation and his own position with unmistakable precision:

"Among my friends and the acquaintances who surround me an inconceivable change has followed: some, moderate reformers, have thrown themselves bodily into the movement, and now are contented with nothing short of a complete revolution; others of the same stripe have retreated in fright toward ultraism; some, who would have been enchanted with reasonable concessions, now wish the republic; and others, who fear only too much precipitation in reforms, have gone back as far as the age of Louis XIV., evoking the recollections of the great King to govern the peoples of the nineteenth century. As for me, I was long undecided among these contrary movements. Reason held me back toward moderation; an immoderate desire to make our backsliders advance cast me toward the revolution; finally, after numerous and violent agitations and oscillations, I finished by fixing myself, like the pendulum, in the *juste-milieu*. . . . My position of *juste-milieu* will not, however, hinder me from wishing as soon as possible the emancipation of Italy from the barbarians who oppress her, and consequently from foreseeing that a crisis—though it may be of the least possible violence—is inevitable; but I desire this crisis with all the caution which the state of affairs requires, and I am, besides, *ultra* persuaded that the mad attempts of the men of the movement only retard and render more doubtful the crisis."

In the early spring of 1835 Cavour visited France and England. At Paris he had an unusually good opportunity of studying the political and social aspects of Louis Philippe's Court. Mme. de Circourt, a lady whose salon was for many years one of the most brilliant in the French capital, quickly recognized the ability of the young Piedmontese, who brought an introduction to her, and tried to induce him to make Paris his home. Cavour replied in a letter of rare force, burning with patriotism, and yet displaying a calmness and self-knowledge marvellous in a man not yet twenty-five. He asks:

"What good could I do for mankind outside of my country? What influence could I exert in behalf of my unhappy brothers, strangers and proscribed, in a land where egoism occupies all the principal social positions? . . . No, no; it is not in fleeing one's fatherland because it is unhappy that one can attain a glorious aim. Ill-luck to him who abandons with disdain the land which gave him birth, who renounces his brothers as unworthy of him. For myself, I am decided. I will never separate my lot from that of the Piedmontese. Happy or unhappy, my country shall have my whole life. I will never be unfaithful to her, even though I should be sure of finding elsewhere a brilliant career. . . . How (in France) should I find a reputation and glory? The sole means in my reach would be literature. Now, madam, I tell you frankly I feel that I have no literary genius; my brain is reasoning and little inventive. I should seek in vain to develop in me the talents of the imagination; I do not possess the least germ of it. In all my life, I have never succeeded in making up the merest fable, the smallest tale to amuse a child. Whatever efforts I might make, I should never be more than a mediocre writer, a third-class man of letters. Now, madam, that is a prospect which does not tempt me. In point of art, I conceive only one tenable position—the first rank. But if literature could not be my refuge, should I not have all the vast domain of science? It is true, I might become a savant, a profound mathematician, a great physician, even a distinguished chemist. . . . 'Tis a way quite like another of obtaining renown; only it has little attraction for the Italian with his rosy complexion and child's smile. I forgot the moral sciences, a vast field where one finds many a furrow to plough. I love the moral sciences—I love them passionately—but do you believe they can be cultivated only in Paris? I think not; on the contrary, it seems to me that this artificial society is an environment little favorable for him who wishes to study the laws of humanity. The great philosophers, the great moralists, the celebrated economists, have not lived in the large capitals. They worked in the silence of their obscure retreats; it was thence that they caused the rays of their genius to burst upon the world."

Guizot was the only Frenchman who awakened Cavour's enthusiasm. In England he studied the policy of Sir Robert Peel; he examined the poor-laws; he visited the centres of trade and commerce; he familiarized himself with the system of education and suffrage; and, in a word, he profited by all he saw in that country, which he recognized as the most advanced and liberal in Europe. Upon his return to Piedmont, Cavour, in accordance with the wishes of his father, took charge of the large family estates. He would have preferred to devote himself to intellectual pursuits, but before many weeks he threw himself into his agricultural duties with all his natural energy. "There are doubtless more brilliant careers," he wrote a friend, "but *in my position* there is none that suits me better." His position, it may be surmised, was one of unpopularity at the despotic court of Charles Albert, where the well-known liberal views of young Cavour were not passports to royal patronage. As early as 1833, the man who was destined to drive Austria out of Italy had the honor of incurring the enmity of the Austrian legate at Turin. The latter wrote to the Governor of Milan that Cavour was about to undertake a journey through Lombardy, adding: "I consider him a very dangerous man; and all the efforts made to reclaim him have been fruitless. He merits, therefore, a constant surveillance." So great became the anxiety of the Austrian authorities that they finally refused to give the very dangerous young man a passport, and his trip was accordingly abandoned.

In 1836, however, he was permitted to go as far as Villaco, in Lombardy, on business. He returned shortly, and once more buried himself with his farms. Twice in the succeeding year he was called to Paris upon matters connected with the financial affairs of his family. He already foresaw the benefit which the Piedmontese must derive from closer relations with the French capitalists; "for it is from France," he wrote, "that must necessarily come the impulse destined to develop the immense unworked resources which our country still possesses." In 1839, with Boncompagni, he helped to found the infant asylum at Turin—a work in which he took a life-long interest. "A good start to a hundred children costs far less," he said twelve years later in the Piedmontese Senate, "than to repair the misfortunes of a single man who, not having received the benefits of education and instruction, follows the paths of vice." In 1840 he again visited Paris, staying there six months. Even earlier than this Cavour had assumed the methodical habits of a student to whom every waking moment is valuable. He rose at five, swallowed a cup of black coffee, and then gave himself up to Lord Mahon's 'History of England,' which he interpreted by means of a dictionary, word by word, thus learning English and English history at the same time. It was this regularity which, years afterward, enabled him to discharge the functions of four or five cabinet ministers with amazing ability and indefatigable promptness.

Here, for the present, we must leave him. At thirty, he was recognized by a few far-sighted persons as a man bound sooner or later to take a leading position. His opinions bore the stamp of profound knowledge of human nature and of the times; but it seemed scarcely possible, in 1840, that his calm and unalterable views of a constitutional government in Italy could ever take definite shape. It seemed even less probable that the young Piedmontese noble should awake one morning to find himself the Prime Minister of the Kingdom of Italy. But already, as we have seen, at thirty, he had mastered himself; he had judged aright that salvation could never come by republican turbulence and Carbonarism; and he had displayed that faith in the ultimate triumph of justice which is the secret of the success of all great reformers. He was already, by acquainting himself with the practical needs of the Piedmontese peasantry, accumulating a mass of information which was to make him the most effective legislator of Italy—perhaps of his age. He was learning by experience the exact nature of abuses to which he afterward was to apply the remedy. In closing, we give two more brief, prophetic extracts, reminding the reader that they were written nearly fifty years ago by a man of twenty-four:

"The republicans, in a distant future, may become dangerous, for they have evidently with them the tendency of the century and the movement of material and intellectual levelling which is working among all the classes of society. We cannot deceive ourselves: society is marching at long strides toward democracy; it is perhaps impossible to foresee the forms which it will assume, but as to the upshot, to my eyes at least, that is not doubtful."

"What remains, then, to fight against the popular torrent? Nothing solid, nothing powerful, nothing durable. Is it a good? is it an evil? I know little enough: but it is, in my opinion, the inevitable future of humanity. Let us prepare ourselves for it, or at least let us prepare our descendants, whom it concerns more than us."

Chapters on Evolution. By Andrew Wilson, Ph.D., F.R.S.E., etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1883. Pp. 383. Illustrated.

ACCORDING to Mr. Wilson, the principal aim of his book is to present in a popular and readily-understood form the chief evidences of the evolution of living beings. In other words, it is his purpose to give an exposition of the theory and main proofs of evolution as far as zoölogy and botany are concerned. There is abundant reason to congratulate the author on his success. At present there is no other work on the subject which so fully meets the wants of all classes of readers as this, giving a very clear and comprehensive view of the question as it stands at the present date. The plan adopted is good, and is admirably followed. The first four chapters are devoted to the Statement of the Problem, the Study of Biology, the Constitution of the Animal Kingdom, and Protoplasm. The remaining twelve contain the evidence, which relates to Rudimentary Organs, Tails, and Limbs and Lungs, Homologies, Missing Links, Development, Life Histories, Colonial or Compound Animals, Fertilization of Flowers, Degeneration, and Geology. The author makes little or no claim to originality in the evidence, but his authorities are of the strongest and most reliable, and will themselves find little fault with the manner in which their ideas or researches are presented, either in text or illustrations. In what is to be credited to the author himself there is room for difference of opinion, and we shall indicate some of the views to which objection may reasonably be urged.

Discussion of plan or design in the processes of evolution is cautiously (and wisely) avoided. The theory of special creations, however, is so vigorously dealt with that at times one wonders whether previously it had not been killed, but only scotched. A little of the intolerance of its advocates may have been inherited by its opponents. Apparently, we are to take it for granted that evolution and selection are synonymous terms, and that the history of the one is that of the other. This is hardly fair. Selection is most generally regarded as a factor in evolution the value of which has not as yet been sufficiently determined—important, but only one of a number. On page 7 the author remarks that "the gist of the process may be summed up in the statement that in the process of selection the weeded-out units die off, whilst the 'selected' and stronger units, coming to the front, perpetuate their race, and thus tend, through their superiority and strength, to evolve new races and species." On page 34 "the evolution theory postulates, what observation confirms—the operation of 'a struggle for existence,' in which the weakest forms (which are those that do not vary) go to the wall, whilst the strong (those that do vary) survive." On page 345:

"Differences of opinion certainly exist as to the share which the internal constitution of the living being plays in the drama of life and progress. It seems, however, most reasonable to conclude that two parties exist to this, as to every other bargain; and regarding the animal or plant as plastic in its nature, we may assume such plasticity to be modified on the one hand by outside forces, and on the other by internal actions proper to the organism as a living thing. Examples of such tendencies of life are freely scattered everywhere in nature's domain. For instance, we know of many organisms which have continued from the remotest ages to the present time, without manifest change of form or life, and which appear before us to-day, the living counterparts of their fossilized representatives of the chalk, or it may be of Silurian or Cambrian times."

Terebratula, Lingula, Limulus, and Beryx are examples. It would seem as if the right of the so-called "persistent" types to the title of strongest and fittest was as well proved as that of any other type. In fact, however, we know no species which do not vary or which may not become extinct. We may not calculate the death-rate or predict the time, but we know that the disappearance of the present species, and their replacement by others, is inevitable. And there is every reason to suppose the present species of men are not to be excepted. It is not yet proved that a great deal of the weeding-out is not due to what we at present, for want of a better name, call accident, and that the principal result of competition is not to force into exercise diversifying characteristics or features. Adaptation and compensation give A with strength no better chance than B with activity, or C with intellect, or D with local abundance, or E with fewer requirements, and so on. But suppose these to represent species locally distributed, and suppose one or two to be exterminated by pestilence, famine, stress of weather, tidal wave, subsidence, or elevation, and what splendid examples of the "survival of the fittest" the others become. When one has admitted that the weeding-out of certain species, causes aside, has rendered possible the continuation of others, fitness aside, and that in certain cases what we might consider the fittest survive, he has gone about far enough for safety in the present state of zoölogy. To say that the cause of the existence of the present species was the non-existence of others, and that because the former have survived they were the fittest, is absurd. Throughout nature the strong exist by the side of the weak and insignificant, and interdependence is the rule. The effect of the struggle for existence varies under different circumstances: in some cases its tendency is to extinguish, in others it produces wider distribution, and thus insures safety from extinction that might occur from local causes. A tidal wave that sweeps the species of one island out of existence may carry those of another beyond the reach of such dangers. Weather that freezes or starves one species impels another to migration that perpetuates it. An epidemic, such as is not unfrequent among men or lower animals, as that among the marine forms on the coasts of Florida, may close the account of certain races, while others in more extensive or varied dwelling-places are apparently unaffected. The able-bodied go to war and fill the trenches; the weak remain at home and continue the family. In such case, can we accept the fact of survival as proof that the survivor was the fittest? Carried too far, the theory becomes nearly or quite as unscientific as was the "wonderful display of goodness and wisdom," etc., of pre-scientific times.

In illustration of interdependence, on page 339 we have the following:

"British brain and sinew depend (according to a foreign estimate) on home-fed beef, whilst the quality of that nutriment is said to be dependent upon the clover on which the ox subsists. But clover owes its continuance to humble-bees; humble-bees, in turn, are killed by field-mice; whilst cats extirpate the rodents. As old maids conserve the feline race, it is alleged that the continuance of the British intellect is dependent upon such conservation—so that a scientific justification of spinsterhood is thus rendered possible."

A good deal of selection argument is fairly represented by this; you are simply required to admit the premises, allowing them to be selected, without proof.

Life is defined as "a collocation of the forces and energies and of the material substances which make protoplasm. Life is a property of protoplasm—such is the latest product of scientific thought and research. The forces which make protoplasm are regarded as those which make life; and, although the exact relationship of these forces is as yet unknown, analogy leads us to believe that they are not materially different, if they are different at all, from those which have made the world of inorganic matter what it is." Why not define life as a combination of modes of motion? Segmentation might then be defined as a resultant of the rhythmic waves or pulsations, and the extent and number of the segments might be said primarily to have been determined by those of the beats or waves, while some, or many, of the resemblances in the generalized beginnings of animals might be said to have been impressed upon them by peculiarities of the constituent modes.

The following, from page 349, is likely to convey an erroneous idea: "We may not fail to note, lastly, that the simpler and more uniform these latter [external] conditions are—as represented in the abysses of ocean, for example—the less incentive is there for the progress and evolution of the races which dwell in their midst." In the light of recent developments, it would seem as if the conditions at great depths favored variation and differentiation, possibly results of competition. Many strange additions to the oceanic fauna, mere suggestions of what is yet to come, have been brought to light by recent investigations, and those who have followed them hesitate before saying that the variety is so very much greater anywhere else. The statement that the Port Jackson shark (*Cestracion*) of the Australian seas is "elsewhere known only by fossil representatives from the Oolitic rocks" (p. 30), is not sufficiently exact. It is found in Japan, the East Indies, and China. A closely-allied species of the genus occurs in the

Galapagos Archipelago, and another is common along the shores of southern California.

"Occasionally horses are born with several toes—this fact being explicable only on the idea of reversion to a multiple-toed ancestry." Here one looks for an explanation of cases in which there are more than the normal number of digits, as in men or cats with six fingers or toes; and for contrasts between organs useful from their inception—which have their origin in use, in necessity, which are never rudimentary—and the superfluous which are dropped, and also the rudimentary, formerly useful, remaining for a longer or shorter period as marks of descent.

Heretofore a work such as this would not be considered complete without a genealogical tree. Of late some of the best minds, classing it with early ideas, which, as Spencer puts it, are not usually true ideas, are inclined to regard the single tree as a better expression of our ignorance than of our knowledge. Our inability to detect distinguishing characters—which may or may not have existed—in the earlier generalized stages, is insufficient proof of common descent in a single line, as represented in the trunk of the tree; and it is about all we have. Conservative minds see a better representation of the present state of our knowledge in a horizontal section through the tops of a grove of trees, at whatever levels the various roots may be. Mr. Wilson's scheme includes two trees, both rooted in the protozoa: one reaching upward from the Sponges to the Cœlenterates—Corals, Anemones, Hydræ, and Zoöphytes; the other from the Infusorians upward to the Worms, whence a branch leads to the Molluscs, another to the Vertebrates, another to the Articulates, and another to the Echinoderms. The Molluscoida—Polyzoa and Ascidia—are placed at the end of a branchlet leading from the lower part of the vertebrate stem.

The illustrations, mainly copies, form a valuable feature of this work.

Mexico To-day. By Thomas Unett Brocklehurst. With colored illustrations from sketches by the author. London: John Murray; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1883.

Mr. Brocklehurst tells us that when he arrived in the United States, at the conclusion of a tour around the world, from England, he had not thought of going to Mexico. His friend, the Belgian Minister at Washington, however, was appointed to Mexico, and he was glad to accompany him. He passed seven months in the country, kept a diary there, and the very handsome book he puts out is the result of it.

Mr. Brocklehurst is a very amiable traveller. Whatever may have been his views of the rest of the world, with Mexico he was much pleased. He is even inclined to apologize for seeing things so much *couleur de rose*, and accounts for it by saying: "During my residence in the country I enjoyed perfect health, was introduced to most agreeable society, and enjoyed opportunities for seeing something of the home-life of various classes, besides all the ordinary objects of interest presented by a great capital." The characteristic of his book is a careful and appreciative observation. He does not philosophize a great deal, but tells in a frank, engaging way what he saw. At the present moment information about Mexico has to be gathered from many sources; there is no one book that can be called comprehensive. The work of Mme. Calderon de la Barca, though written in 1839, is as yet the best that has appeared. Though apparently so remote in date, too, a great deal that it relates of manners and customs and habits of feeling is nearly as true to-day as ever, since it deals with a country that has but recently felt the first impulse of change. Mme. de la Barca, Scotch by nativity, but of American education, married the Spanish Minister to Mexico, and went to that country to reside. Much of what she has to say owes its value to her exceptional social opportunities. The present work appeals, though in a less degree, not being at all so detailed or voluminous, to the same personal kind of interest. Mr. Brocklehurst mentions by name his various travelling companions, and they seem to have been very agreeable people. He saw statesmen, dinner-parties, clubs, balls, capitalists, ecclesiastics, librarians, and heads of scientific departments, at one end of society, and peons, market girls, hospital patients, and prisoners at the other. If he falls in with an Englishman from Manchester, gaining his livelihood by keeping a bit of a restaurant after having served as an operative in cotton mills for many years, or with a Cornish miner, at Pachuca, he does not fail to take down his views of the country.

This universality of his interest bespeaks a happy balance of faculties in the author. At one moment we find him inquiring into the condition of the finances or of an institution for the blind, and giving an entertainment at his hotel for which the pupils of this latter furnish the music. The next he is poking over the collections of the junk dealers in the plaza of San Domingo for an old head painted on copper, or a silver spur. Not a few of his descriptions have a picturesque force, though wholly unpretentious:

"A rose-pink light crept into my apartment, robbing me of my last forty winks. With the light came the clang, clang, clang of the harsh and discordant bell attached to the little belfry on the Profesa church, my next-door neighbor. On gazing out of my window I found the main street thronged with pedestrians all en route for 6 o'clock mass, the ladies in veil, mantilla, and high comb, as it is *de rigueur* to attend early service in this most graceful of costumes. Later in the day, however, the señoras and señoritas don gaudy and singularly unbecoming French fashions, of which more anon."

Mr. Brocklehurst urges the reëstablishment by England of diplomatic relations, which, it will be remembered, were ruptured, by a question of debt, at the time of the joint occupation, and the imposition of Maximilian on the throne. There has been no English Minister in the country since, the duties of the place falling somewhat, on account of a common language, upon the American Minister. This subject might have been further developed. The oversight will no doubt soon be remedied, as a nation can hardly afford to sulk like an individual. Perhaps even the writer of these accounts might not inaptly fill the place, the conditions of which he has so well investigated. His volume can hardly be a popular handbook, as it appeals to rather long purses. It is beautifully got up. The numerous illustrations alone give a graphic idea of what he has seen. The colored plates, it is true, here and there raise a volcano some few thousand feet above its natural level, to be the more imposing; but this is a slight matter compared with the once extensive license of "tales of a traveller." The author has engraved elaborately the bits of potteries, arrow-heads, and the like, sometimes even of an insignificant character, which he brought home.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Cottages. Forty-four Quarto Plates. Wm. T. Comstock.
Anderson, Dr. J. W. Lectures on Medical Nursing. Second edition. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Art, L'. Vol. xxxii. J. W. Bouton.
Ashwell and Wilberforce. Life of Samuel Wilberforce, Lord Bishop of Oxford, etc. Abridged from the English edition. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Authors and Publishers: a Manual of Suggestions for Beginners in Literature. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Barnett, Matilda J. Tontine. London: F. Pitman.
Battle of Coney Island; or, Free Trade Overthrown. A Scrap of History, written in 1900. Philadelphia: J. A. Wagenseller.
Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo-Ausgabe. Parts 77-80. B. Westermann & Co.
Browning, R. Jocoseria. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Burnett, Mrs. Frances Hodgson. Through One Administration. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Cable, G. W. Old Creole Days. In two parts, each complete. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Caldecott, R. Some of Æsop's Fables, with Modern Instances, shown in Designs. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Carnegie, A. An American Four-in-Hand in Britain. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Century Magazine. November, 1882, to April, 1883. The Century Co.
Chalmers, M. D. Local Government. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Church and Brodribb. Livy. Books 21-25. The Second Punic War. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Ciccolina, Sophia M. A. Deep Breathing, as a Means of Promoting the Art of Song, etc. M. L. Holbrook.
Clarke, Rev. J. F. Ten Great Religions. Part 2. A Comparison of all Religions. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Club Almanach: Annuaire des Cercles et du Sport. Première Année. Paris: W. Hinrichsen: New York: E. Steiger.
Cobb, J. F. Martin the Skipper: a Tale for Boys and Seafaring Folk. Thomas Y. Crowell. $1 50.
Cook, M. Vandyke-Brown Poems. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Croffut, W. A. A Midsummer Lark. Henry Holt & Co.
Douglas, Amanda M. Whom Kathie Married. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 50.
Ellis, T. J. Sketching from Nature: a Handbook for Students and Amateurs. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Fetridge, W. P. Harper's Handbook for Travellers in Europe and the East. In 3 vols. Harper & Bros.
Flint, Dr. A. Medical Ethics and Etiquette. D. Appleton & Co.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions. Vol. xliii. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Fremantle, W. H. The Gospel of the Secular Life. Oxford Sermons. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Galton, F. Inquiries into Human Faculty and its Developments. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Gizycki, G. von. Grundzüge der Moral. Leipzig: Wilhelm Friedrich.

Henry Holt & Co.

JUST PUBLISH:

Palmer's Folk Etymology.

A Dictionary of Verbal Corruptions, or Words Perverted in Form or Meaning by False Derivation or Mistaken Analogy. By Rev. A. Smythe Palmer, Curate of Staines. 8vo, $6 50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK THURSDAY, MAY 24, 1883.

The Week.

MR. WALTER EVANS, of Kentucky, the new Commissioner of Internal Revenue, seems to have been President Arthur's second choice for that place, the appointment having been offered to Mr. Silas B. Dutcher, of this State, who declined. The choice of Mr. Dutcher, who undoubtedly is a man of great business capacity, was not a fortunate one, inasmuch as it would have exposed the President to the suspicion of intending to use the patronage of the Internal Revenue Office for political purposes in this State. This suspicion might have been ever so unjust, yet the President would hardly have escaped it, as few men would have been willing to believe that Mr. Dutcher, as Commissioner of Internal Revenue, could resist the temptation of using his official power and opportunities for some political end. This suspicion, a very injurious one in these times, will not attach to Mr. Evans unless he provokes it by the management of his office. He is described by those who know him as a man of undoubted integrity, of active and industrious habits, and a good lawyer, possessing general business ability enough to encourage the hope that he will fill his office with credit. The duties of the Internal Revenue Commissioner are among the most complicated and difficult in the Government, and in no branch of administration is it more necessary to guard against a mixing up of politics and business, if the integrity and efficiency of the service are to be maintained.

It is pleasant to learn through the *Tribune* that Mr. Chandler, the Secretary of the Navy, has appreciated the compliment paid him by Mr. Dezendorf, who addressed him as a hearty and zealous friend of civil-service reform—a compliment which by some was suspected of an ironical flavor. Mr. Chandler has answered Mr. Dezendorf's letter complaining of the use Senator Mahone makes of public servants in the employ of the Navy Department, and promises to have the charges concerning the violation of the Civil-Service Law and the use of the Norfolk Navy-yard for political purposes "thoroughly investigated." The Secretary is further credited with the declaration "that the navy-yards shall not be used for political purposes by anybody, if he can prevent it." And as there cannot be the slightest doubt as to his power to prevent it, if he so desires, nor as to his thorough knowledge of the things to be prevented, it may justly be said that complete success in performance will be the only conclusive proof of the sincerity of intention.

Colonel Bob Ingersoll began his speech in the Star-route trial on Monday with a withering denunciation of informers, and he declared that he had "an absolute contempt for any government that called for informers and spies." As all civilized governments are under the disagreeable necessity of sometimes doing this, it seems to follow that the gallant Colonel's scorn must embrace all existing systems. This is very painful, but it can, of course, be remedied by any government that desires to do so by the simple passage of a law forbidding the use of the testimony of accomplices. The reason such testimony is used is, of course, that it is needed to secure a conviction, and that if it were not used crimes would go unpunished; but then a government that would use an informer as a witness would always have some such low practical reason to defend the practice with.

The Republican Harmony Committee has at last furnished an excellent plan of reorganization in this city. It provides for a complete new enrolment on the first three Tuesdays in September, 1883, on which every voter shall be entitled to place his name, if he voted for the Republican candidate for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency at the last Presidential election, or if, not having done so, he declares his intention to vote with the Republican party at the election next fall. But he must fortify this declaration by pledging himself on oath not to take part in the primaries or caucuses of any other political organization during the year. When this enrolment is made the books are to be open for inspection and challenges for six days, at the expiration of which the enrolling officers are to strike out, on proof, all names improperly placed there. The existing "district associations" are then to pass out of existence as primaries or caucuses, though "the boys" may still keep them up as clubs, if they please. A County Committee, elected by the enrolled voters, will take charge of the party management in the county, and will provide for another new enrolment in 1884 and in every year afterward. Each year there is to be a new enrolment and a new County Committee; so that it will be impossible, if the voters now do their duty—that is, take the trouble to get themselves enrolled and to vote for the County Committee—for any more professional Jakes, Mikes, or Barneys to arise. Of course there will always be men in politics known by these names, but there need never again be men wearing them as quasi-official titles.

The new plan has evidently been framed on the great theory that it is desirable for a political party to be numerically as strong as possible. This seems at first blush so patent a truism as to be a little ridiculous when produced as a basis of reorganization. But it is not at all ridiculous to those who know that for over twelve years the Republican party has been managed in this city on the theory that it ought to be difficult for voters to get into it. Access to it was accordingly impeded in a variety of ways which Mr. George Bliss has more than once described in print, some of them simply tricky or fraudulent, others downright oppressive. The story of the Connecticut deacon who discouraged a converted scapegrace from joining the church, on the ground that "it was about full," has always been considered a good one, but it is not half as good as the story of the arrangements made by Republican workers in New York to keep the party small and select. They acted, in fact, as if it was a great privilege to be allowed to vote the Republican ticket, and that applications for it ought to be discouraged. All this, if the new plan be adopted, will end. There will be no difficulty now in the way of any one's voting the Republican ticket and taking part in nominating the party candidates, who has ever voted it, or who means to do so in future, except the inevitable precautions which every party must take against having its primary meetings perverted or overwhelmed by fraud.

The presence of "No. 1," otherwise Tynan, in this city has been settled by a correspondence between his counsel, Mr. Roger A. Pryor, and Mr. Marbury, the counsel for the British Consul. Mr. Pryor says his client, who is a modest, unobtrusive man, with eight children, is here, and ready to surrender himself at any time if called for. What his occupation is Mr. Pryor does not know. His willingness to surrender is doubtless based on a belief that he will not be extradited, for there appears to be little question that if he can be got over to Dublin, where he has been indicted, it will go hard with him. According to Mr. Marbury, no application for him has yet been received, but that he will be applied for seems very probable. The indictment in Dublin would not have taken place if it had not been intended that an attempt should be made to bring him to trial. Perhaps the most extraordinary thing about him is the size of his family. Usually a large family turns a man's attention away from the organization of murder societies, and inclines him to some money-making business. If he should be asked for by the British Government, he will be useful as a text for the discussion of the important question what is and what is not a political offence under the treaty.

It seems now as if there was really nobody behind Tynan, and that he was in fact, as well as in name, the "No. 1" of the conspiracy. Nothing appeared on the trials to show that the murderers knew of any higher authority for their performances than he. If this be true, it would really seem as if, in the present state of the Irish mind, it was possible for any man with plausible address to go over from this country or England and found a secret society, and find plenty of men ready to be "sworn in" by him, to obey his orders of whatever kind, and even commit murder under his instructions, without ever inquiring where he came from or who sent him. In fact, a certain amount of mystery about the head man, or "inner circle," combined with a little glamour of patriotism, seems to be all that is necessary to secure conspirators among the class from which the Careys, Bradys, and Curleys were drawn.

There could hardly be a better illustration of the condition in which the city of Chicago is to-day, as regards the essentials of good government, than the acquittal of Dunn for the murder of Elliott. The jury apparently held that because Elliott had been heard to threaten Dunn's life at some time or other, Dunn was justified in lying in wait for him and killing him by taking him unawares, just like a savage in the woods. The verdict is of course tantamount to notice to all the dangerous and brutal class of the city that the law will not meddle with their quarrels, and that they may fight with deadly weapons and butcher each other with impunity. It is not surprising, therefore, that there was a festive gathering of roughs immediately afterwards to celebrate the acquittal in bumpers of champagne. In fact, one hears nearly every week now of verdicts in various parts of the country which seem to sanction the notion that the law makes no provision for the protection of threatened men, that there is no process by which ruffians who put people in bodily fear can be reduced to harmlessness, and that the peaceable citizen has to secure himself against them, just as the first settlers did against the Indians, by going armed and keeping a sharp lookout.

In the London *Economist* of May 5, Mr. Thomas B. Moxon criticises Mr. Goschen's speech on the "appreciation of gold," by showing, first, that there are sufficient causes to account for the slight fall of general prices which has taken place since 1873, irrespective of the transactions of the German, American, and Italian Governments; and, second, that the observed course of prices does not show any general correspondence with those governmental transactions. The causes which have lowered prices have been in part reduced cost of production and transportation, in part a reaction from the speculative activity which existed prior to 1873, and in part a reduction of middlemen's profits. If the absorption of gold by Germany, the United States, and Italy had been the determining factor, or even an important one, the decline in prices ought to have been continuous, and ought to be more marked in the present year than at any other time, seeing that Italy has only within a few months accumulated the stock needed for resumption. If any business man were asked at what time the depression following the panic and crisis of 1873 ceased to be felt, and times began to grow better, he would say at the beginning of 1879, in corroboration of Mr. Moxon's table. This period, indeed, happened to coincide with the resumption of specie payments by the United States, but the importations of gold by this country continued to be heavy for more than a year after that event, and must have had the same general effect as the previous accumulations of the Government in preparing for resumption. These importations continued until near the time when the operations of Italy began, yet general prices advanced 15 per cent. in 1879–80, and although there has been a slight reaction since, they have at no time been as low as they were in January, 1879.

The stern tone which the Pope has taken in dealing with the Irish clergy, touching their support of the Parnellite agitators, is apparently a triumph of English diplomacy at Rome, and will undoubtedly be so regarded in Ireland. It can hardly have been taken under sound advice or information from Irish quarters, for the best observers of what is passing in Ireland agree that the adhesion of the Catholic clergy to the Land League was a necessity of their position, or, in other words, the only mode of retaining their already greatly diminished influence over the people. Those bishops and priests, in fact, who have ventured to hold aloof from the agitation or denounce it, have been rudely reminded—in one instance by half the congregation rising and leaving the church—that the good old days of clerical power in Ireland are gone. The Irish people were really led in politics by the priests down to 1850. Under O'Connell they were all-powerful. The Young Ireland movement was the first sign of a desire on the part of the laity to act independently. Since the American Irish appeared on the scene, the displacement of the clergy as political leaders has been very rapid, and is probably now an accomplished fact. Priests are still prominent at meetings and conventions, but not, as formerly, as priests, with their sacred character kept constantly prominent, but as some of the very few men of any education or of speech-making power the new agitation possesses. It is in some of its aspects, in fact, the most democratic attempt at revolution ever made, for its promoters are now nearly all peasants or sons of peasants. All Irish revolutionary movements since 1688 have suffered for lack of leaders of the higher social grades, but none of them have had nearly so few as this one. The Irish clergy are well aware of the change in their position. The hostility to the secret societies, like the Fenians, is due largely to the fact that these societies help still further to diminish their influence. They know, too, that the breezes which blow from the United States are charged with hostility to clerical as well as other authority. In taking part with the Parnellites they are, therefore, beyond doubt doing what is best for the Church under the circumstances. That the Pope should not know this shows how ill informed he probably is with regard to a very important part of his spiritual dominions.

Mr. F. H. O'Donnell, the Parnellite member of Parliament, whose opinions are of no particular consequence, except as they reflect in a rough way those of his colleagues, has written one of his savage letters to the *Freeman's Journal*, denouncing the Pope's circular to the Irish bishops as the work of Mr. Errington, an English Catholic gentleman who has been acting during the past year as a sort of unofficial emissary of the British Government to the Vatican. He accuses him of having imposed on his Holiness. This is probably the view which the Parnellites and their press will take of the affair. They will treat the Holy Father as the victim of misinformation and imposition. They would probably take even stronger ground if Parnell were not a Protestant. This makes his position very delicate indeed, as there are probably not many even "bad Catholics" in Ireland who could bear hearing the Pope criticised by a heretic. The Irish-American Catholics will probably be bolder and follow the lead of Mr. Finerty's paper, the Chicago *Citizen*, which abuses the Pope roundly almost in the terms which are employed for Gladstone and Forster, and proposes to hold indignation meetings against him, and stop his Peter's pence. We suspect he will be sorry before long that he has meddled in the Irish question, if it be possible for the Pope, as Pope, to regret an official act—which, we suppose, is doubtful. But he will, at all events, regret it as a man, and he will certainly find out that, humanly speaking, he has accomplished nothing.

The Special Commission appointed to try the Phœnix Park murderers finished its labors on Thursday, having convicted every man engaged in the affair except the two informers, and also a batch of the conspirators who made the attack on Mr. Field, the juror, and plotted the murder of Judge Lawson. In fact, the only one of them who seems to have got off thus far is Tynan, or "Number One," and Carey, the informer, whose future is pretty dark, although he has got a pardon. The way in which the panel of special jurors did their duty appears to have been admirable, although there was enough in the situation to try very strong nerves. The brother of Brady threatened the life of the foreman of the jury who convicted him, but was caught, pleaded guilty, and has been forgiven. Another group of young men, who distributed circulars holding up the members of the jury panel to reprobation, have also been caught, and will probably get a little penal servitude. In fact, the police arrangements seem now to have been brought to such perfection that the murderers and intimidators have hardly time to open their mouths before they are nabbed, and they are probably thoroughly cowed. But the evident sympathy of the populace in Dublin with the condemned murderers is a painful symptom of deep-seated social disease. How deep-seated it is may be inferred from the fact that an Irish Catholic priest in this country the other day publicly glorified Brady as a martyr.

The acquittal of Little Phil Thompson by the jury at Harrodsburg, amid the enthusiastic plaudits of the audience in the court-room, was, of course, what was expected. All trials of this kind have somewhat the same character in the eyes of some Kentuckians as the great state trials in which the principles of constitutional liberty were vindicated had in England. That is to say, all such trials are attempts to restrict the exercise of what they think their dearest right—the right of every man to kill his own enemies Their failure, therefore, always causes some popular rejoicing, like the acquittal of the Seven Bishops. The occasion is, of course, all the greater when there is a woman in the case, because this gives the killing an air of being a bit of social police. This is not necessary to make a homicide justifiable, but it adorns it, and makes it easier to put a good face on it to the carping critics of other

communities. The interest of such trials as Little Phil's is also increased by the fact that there is always danger of a regular set-to with firearms in the court-room between the friends of the slayer and those of his victim. There was much fear of it in the present case, every one present, probably including the Judge and jury, being fully armed. The Judge's charge, if we infer from the heads of it as telegraphed, was fair enough. The greatest speech of the occasion was that of Senator Voorhees, of Indiana, known in politics as the "Tall Sycamore of the Wabash." The Sycamore maintained two propositions, which were, for him, rather coherent: namely, that the killing of Davis was justified by all laws, human and divine, and that Thompson when he did it was "emotionally insane." He also laid it down that there was only one period in history, to wit, the reign of Charles II. of England, when it was considered proper, or not improper, to do what he said Davis did, showing that the Sycamore is more erudite and a sterner moralist than most people in this part of the world have been in the habit of considering him.

One paper in Louisville—the *Commercial*—to its honor be it said, keeps its head cool amid this general blood mania. It points out, in answer to some of its local contemporaries, the contrast presented by the Judge's expression from the bench of his deep sympathy with Thompson, and the article apropos of the murder in the *Courier-Journal*, glorifying the shot-gun, written just as the editor was starting as a university lecturer against homicide, with the spirit which in Pennsylvania "has made Dukes an outcast in his native town, and driven away the jurors" who acquitted him. This is part of the *Courier-Journal's* contribution to the literature of the Thompson case, written while the trial was pending. It reads like a Zulu's apostrophe to his assegai, during a war dance, after a double ration of grog:

> "The shot-gun is mightier than the courts. It is a universal leveller. It simplifies and cheapens the law, and brings it to the door of the poorest when need is, and long may its policy prevail, mute sentinel by the fireside, guarding the honor of our women, protecting our cradles and our children; a menace to wives that are weak, and a perpetual terror to libertines and libertinism."

They have been having a terrible time with the pistol and knife at the South. Last November C. M. Burgess killed R. M. Donley at Henrietta, Tex., but, having jostled W. R. Curtis the other day, when the latter was getting his mail at the post-office, Curtis killed him. Then Deputy United States Collector W. S. Gravely, losing patience with Dr. Q. C. Hall at Floyd Court House, Va., killed him promptly. In Louisiana also, when old Mr. Pierce Lanier was killed last winter, James and William Curley were suspected of doing it. Consequently, young Pierce and Guion Lanier resolved to murder the said James and William by way of avenging their father's death. They murdered James first; but William then lay in wait for them with a friend, and, in the fight which followed, three were killed, which seems to settle that little matter. At Petersburg, Va., however, one Newson, a colored man, having asked S. Lewis, a white Readjuster, for payment of a little bill, Lewis as a Readjuster felt that such conduct on the part of a creditor could not be quietly passed over, so he killed him at once, which disposed of that claim. We are sorry, also, to have to record the murder of Sam Thompson, the editor of the Oxford *Eagle* (Mississippi) by Butler, the City Marshal, who had him under arrest. Finding him unwilling to go with him, he put a pistol to his prisoner's heart and killed him. We are sorry, too, to hear that the citizens of Vicksburg are deploring the death of Joseph T. Hazelett, who has just been shot down in the street, and whose "honored father," the Vicksburg *Evening Post* says, "was borne from his threshold to the grave a few years ago, also the victim of the deadly pistol on our streets." The *Post* adds:

> "To our poor human minds it would seem that this distressed family had, before this last calamity, suffered more than enough from the dread custom which curses our section; but the ways of God are inscrutable, and we can only bow in humble submission to his will."

Our "poor human minds" do not see it in that light. Our advice to the *Post* is not to set down these awful crimes among "the ways of God," and wail over them, but to get these wretches who do the killing tried and hanged. Enforce the law, and you will soon find out that "the deadly pistol on our streets" is not one of the instruments of God's Providence.

A less cheerful feeling has prevailed during the past week in regard to trade and industrial prospects, and yet it is difficult to specify a single feature less favorable than it was a week ago. On the contrary, there has been an actual improvement in several respects, for example, the crops. The speculation in wheat, which was the means of advancing prices beyond the exporting margin, has begun to subside, and the legitimate course of trade in that line may soon be resumed. There have been some strikes among the coal miners at the West, and the proposed strike among the iron workers in the Western mills on June 1 is still pending, but the coal strikes are in a fair way for adjustment, and that among the iron workers is likely to be compromised. The past week has witnessed the advent of the usual season of plethora of loanable funds at the banks, and money has loaned at lower rates than at any time for the past ten months. Call loans have been made at 2 per cent. per annum, and the rates of discount for mercantile paper have declined ½ of 1 per cent. in the week. The extreme ease in the money market here—making money cheaper than in London—together with the scarcity of exchange, owing to the decrease of exports of breadstuffs, has caused an advance of 1½ cents on the pound for foreign exchange. The effect of the large expansion of the railroad system—especially by the increase of lines parallel to the previously existing lines—during the last year or two, has been shown in the prices of stocks during the fortnight more perceptibly than at any previous similar period. Within the last two days many stocks have touched lower prices than at any time since January, 1881. Declining prices for grain and stocks have doubtless had some influence in creating the less cheerful feeling at first referred to, but the result of these lower prices will unquestionably be a healthier situation.

The despatches from South America on the subject of the treaty said to have been signed between representatives of Peru and Chili, read somewhat as if they were the result of a championship "news" match between some rising young South American journalists. First one of the contestants declared that the "provinces" of Tacna and Arica were to be taken by Chili, but that their ultimate fate was to be decided by a plébiscite after ten years. As "news" this was very fair, because Arica is not a province but a city, and nothing was said about the disposition of Tarapaca, so that it looked as if the combatants had suddenly forgotten all about it. But presently a new man went to work, and sent a despatch saying that it was Tarapaca (or "all territory south of the River Camarones") that was to be ceded; that at the end of ten years a plébiscite was to be taken to decide which of the two countries Tarapaca was to belong to, the country getting it to pay 10,000,000 pesos to the other, notwithstanding which the cession is to be "unconditional" in the first place. The Peruvian Minister in Washington, Mr. Elmore, as was no more than fair, had his attention called to the treaty by a reporter two or three days ago, and stated that he had received no advices on the subject, but that it was not impossible that some secret understanding with a view to a treaty might have been arrived at. According to Sunday's despatches, it is an "agent" of Iglesias who has signed the treaty, subject to his approval. The secrecy with which the negotiations have been conducted accounts for the difficulty in guessing accurately at the result of them.

Rear-Admiral Garcia, of the Peruvian Navy, and Secretary-General of Pierola during his short term of power, has written to the London *Times* describing the process by which Chili has been completing the conquest of Peru; and if his story be anywhere near accurate, there is something very thorough about the Chilian policy. Not only have the Chilians, he says, levied enormous war contributions, but they have pillaged every literary, scientific, and artistic collection in the country. They have carried off the State Library and the University Library, containing together 300,000 volumes, and used the bookcases to make packing boxes. They have also carried off the instruments from the Observatory and from the laboratories of the Medical College, also its collections, and those of the School of Arts and Manufactures, and have even levelled the University buildings. They have removed the national archives, and the national collection of pictures, and all portable statues, bronzes, fountains of every description. In short, either Admiral Garcia is a man of very vivid imagination, and fond of exaggeration, or the Chilians have been exercising the rights of conquest in ways unknown to the modern world. The exactions of the first Napoleon, which were considered so barbarous, never went nearly as far as this.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 16, to TUESDAY, May 22, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR on Monday afternoon appointed Walter Evans, of Louisville, Ky., Commissioner of Internal Revenue to succeed Green B. Raum, resigned. It is said that the place was refused by Mr. Silas B. Dutcher. Mr. Evans is a native of Kentucky, about forty-two years old. He was a Union officer during the war, and is a lawyer by profession. He has been a State Senator, and a candidate for Congress, for United States District Attorney, and for United States Marshal. He was a Grant man at Chicago in 1880.

Secretary Folger has under contemplation the reduction of the number of Internal-Revenue collection districts from 126 to 92. The Cabinet considered the question on Saturday, but took no formal action.

Attorney-General Brewster on Tuesday decided that national banks under the new tax law are not required to pay any taxes on their deposits and capital stock for the period between the date of the act of March 3, 1883, and January 1, 1883, and that the tax on the deposits and capital of other banks and bankers is not to be paid for the period between the date of the same act and December 1, 1882.

The Civil-Service Commission on Thursday published certain regulations which they have adopted for guidance of the Chief Examiner, Secretary, and local Boards of Examiners.

Postmaster-General Gresham has issued an order directing all postmasters to coöperate with the custodians of public buildings in aiding the Civil-Service Commissioners in all reasonable ways in the discharge of their duties.

A naval review of the North Atlantic Squadron of United States vessels took place at Fortress Monroe on Wednesday.

Advices received in Washington on Monday say that General Crook is now in Sonora, Mexico, in pursuit of the Indians who murdered Judge McComas, and that he will in all probability remain across the border until he either subdues the hostiles or is routed by them.

Complaints to the Signal-Service Office at Washington, that the weather predictions have not been as trustworthy of late as they formerly were, are answered by the statement that Congress refused to make an appropriation sufficient to maintain the service, and that for that reason the operations of the bureau have been materially restricted. The consequence is that there is insufficient information at hand to make strictly accurate reports.

A reunion of the Society of the Army of the Potomac was held in Washington on Wednesday and Thursday. There was a procession on Wednesday of 2,500 men, 700 being members of the Society. They were reviewed by the President. A business meeting was held in the afternoon, at three o'clock, at which General Newton was elected President, defeating General Grant. There was considerable opposition to the latter because it is alleged that he has not shown great interest in the reunions. Brooklyn was selected as the next place of meeting. The Society went on an excursion to Mt. Vernon on Thursday.

In the Star-route trial, Mr. Wilson concluded his speech for the defence on Wednesday. A sick juror on Thursday caused an adjournment of the court. Colonel Ingersoll spoke for the defence on Friday, Monday, and Tuesday.

The quarrel among the colored men on account of the call for a convention of that race is increasing in bitterness, especially in Washington. Fred. Douglass, who is the promoter of the plan for the convention, published on Tuesday an open letter in which he sharply attacked Professor Greener, one of the few colored men who have ever had the courage to place themselves in opposition to the views of Douglass. This is to be followed by a reply from Professor Greener.

The deaf mutes of the United States raised a subscription of $1,400, in sums ranging from one cent to one dollar, for a bust of General Garfield. This bust was unveiled on Wednesday at the Government Asylum at Kendall Green, Washington.

There was a rumor in this city on Thursday morning that a warrant had been issued for the arrest of P. J. Sheridan, of the *Irish World*, on a demand for his extradition to England, and that Sheridan was missing from the city. Sheridan, however, made his appearance at the Astor House at 2 o'clock. No arrest has yet been made.

Governor Cleveland has signed a number of important bills during the week, among them the bill to suppress political assessments, dividing the State into Congressional districts, and amending the act establishing Cornell University. He has vetoed the bill transferring to the Court of Appeals the duty of making contracts for the publication of its reports; also, the bill to extend the scope of the securities in which fire-insurance companies may invest. On Saturday he vetoed the Page bill extending the list of securities in which savings banks may invest.

President White, of Cornell University, has declined the appointment as State Civil Service Commissioner, because of duties to which he is already pledged.

A memorial has been prepared by a committee appointed for the purpose at the April meeting of the Council of the University of the City of New York, setting forth the needs of the University, as well as referring to the work that has been accomplished during the past fifty years of its existence. The aggregate sum asked for to supply present needs is $250,000.

The General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church of the United States met at Saratoga on Thursday. The annual sermon was delivered by the retiring Moderator, Dr. Herrick Johnson. The Assembly of the Southern Presbyterian Church met on the same day in Lexington, Ky. A delegation of the Northern Assembly was present—the first since the war. A delegation from the South was also present at the Northern Assembly. Organic union of the two bodies was deemed impracticable by one of the latter committee. Another member, Dr. Hoyt, expressed the sentiments of those who desired such a union.

J. Proctor Knott was nominated for Governor by the Democratic State Convention of Kentucky on Thursday. A tariff-for-revenue-only platform was smothered in committee, and a revenue plank adopted capable of almost any interpretation. Capt. J. R. Hindman, late of the Federal army, was nominated for Lieutenant-Governor on Friday. There has been considerable dissatisfaction expressed with the way in which Mr. Knott secured his nomination. It is charged that the necessary votes were purchased.

At a Democratic joint caucus of the Illinois Legislature on Thursday night a resolution was passed endorsing Mr. Springer for Speaker of the Forty-eighth Congress.

The mystery which has for so many months surrounded the personality and whereabouts of Tynan, the famous "Number One" of the Dublin Invincibles, has at last been removed. It is now definitely known that he is not only in this country, but that he holds himself in instant readiness to deliver himself up for examination whenever the British Government makes a demand for his extradition. Gen. Roger A. Pryor, his counsel, so informed the British Consul in this city on Saturday, but the latter replied that he had no instructions to proceed to his arrest. Mr. Pryor says that Tynan is a quiet, scholarly gentleman who desires to avoid publicity, and that he has been in this country for about a month. He denies, it is said, being connected with any revolutionary society.

An Inter-State Convention of coal miners was in session at Pittsburgh, Pa., during the latter part of last week. About fifty delegates were present. On Wednesday they passed a resolution sympathizing with the striking miners of the Pittsburgh district.

The United States Brewers' Association met in Convention in Detroit, Mich., on Wednesday, with a good attendance. A report was made on the Association's contest against prohibitory legislation.

The Harper High-License Bill, providing for a license of $150 for beer saloons and $500 for whiskey saloons, was ordered to a third reading in the Illinois House after a hard fight on Thursday.

Jerry Dunn was acquitted at Chicago on Friday of the murder of James Elliott, the prize-fighter. The verdict occasioned much surprise, as the Judge's charge was against the accused.

Congressman Thompson, who recently shot Mr. Davis, was acquitted at Harrodsburg, Ky., on Wednesday, the jury being out a little more than an hour. The ground of the verdict was emotional insanity. The verdict gave satisfaction in that city.

The steamer *Granite State*, which runs between New York and Hartford, was burned about five o'clock on Friday morning while approaching her dock at Goodspeed's Landing, forty-one miles from Hartford. Five lives were lost, and the complete cargo. She was valued at $55,000; insured for $40,000. Her owners were the New York and Hartford Transportation Company of Hartford.

A terrible cyclone passed over the city of Denison, Texas, and its neighborhood on Thursday, causing great destruction of property. The eastern portion of Nebraska was visited on the same day, and valuable buildings were wrecked. At 7 o'clock on Friday evening a cyclone struck Racine, Wis., passing through its extreme northwestern part, demolishing 150 houses and barns and killing about 25 persons, besides injuring 100 others more or less seriously. Great damage to life and property was done in about a dozen counties of Illinois and in Minnesota. There was a heavy snow-storm in Ohio and Indiana on Monday afternoon, and at Hagerstown, Md. At Lima, Ohio, the snow was twelve inches deep, and the trees were breaking down. On Tuesday many wrecks were reported on the lakes.

A steady rain and the melting snow caused a great rise in White Wood Creek, that runs through Deadwood, Dakota, during the latter part of last week. More than one-half of Deadwood was swept away, but, fortunately, the substantial part of the city, on Main Street, was left standing. The loss in the city is estimated at $200,000. Three persons are known to have been drowned. Other towns in the gulch suffered severely.

Bishop Jesse T. Peck, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, died in Syracuse on Thursday, at the age of seventy-two. He was at one time President of Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa. He was one of the founders of Syracuse University, and a short time ago presented it with all his property.

Dr. John Dickson Bruns, one of the most eminent of the physicians of New Orleans, died at 7 o'clock on Sunday morning of congestion of the brain.

FOREIGN.

The police of St. Petersburg have been informed of a plot to frighten the horse of the Czar during the coronation procession, and in the confusion to kill him. An officer of the Erivan Regiment has confessed that several

officers of the Guards are members of a revolutionary club, but says that they have no connection with the terrorists. A number of the officers were on Friday arrested on suspicion. The Czar wanted to postpone the coronation, but has been dissuaded.

The Czar and Czarina arrived at Moscow at six o'clock on Sunday evening, and proceeded to the Petroffsky Palace. The Czar was received at the station by a number of grand-dukes, princes, and generals. The city is decorated with flags, and the streets are crowded with people who have collected to witness the coronation. Great precautions are being taken to prevent the execution of Nihilist plots.

The ceremonies in connection with the coronation of the Czar of Russia began on Tuesday in Moscow. An unconfirmed report was published on that day that previous to the departure of the Emperor from St. Petersburg for Moscow an explosion occurred under the washstand and in the fireplace in his dressing room, but nobody was injured, the Emperor and Empress having been in the dining-room at the time. Tuesday morning found Moscow crowded with visitors. The city was elaborately decorated for the state entry of the Czar. The route of the procession was from the Petroffsky Palace to the Kremlin, 4¼ miles in length. The Czar left the former place at noon, riding a magnificent charger, and wearing the uniform of a general. He was greeted by the people with unbounded enthusiasm. The Empress was also greeted with cheers. The entire route of the procession was lined with troops. The Governor-General of Moscow met the Emperor at the city boundary. The procession reached the Kremlin at 1:25 o'clock P. M.

A meeting of the Irish National League was held in Dublin on Wednesday, at which Mr. Biggar, member of Parliament, commented on the Pope's recent letter, saying that it should be received with respect, but at the same time they should express their opinions in plain language. Mr. Mayne, a Parnellite member of Parliament, said the Irish people should take their theology, but not their politics, from Rome. Mr. O'Donnell, member of Parliament for Dungarvan, in a letter to the *Freeman's Journal*, referring to the Pope's circular to the Irish bishops, says that the Vatican has been misled by the specious mendacity which has availed itself of the monstrous ignorance of Irish affairs prevailing at Rome.

Michael Davitt, in a letter, says the Pope's letter is unjust, and must evoke a strongly painful resentment on the part of the people. There is a strong sentiment against it all over Ireland, and subscriptions for Mr. Parnell are still solicited and received. The fund now amounts to £9,000, and it is proposed to raise £50,000.

A correspondent at Paris has had an interview with Archbishop Croke, in which the latter said that he returned to Ireland from Rome with unchanged and unchangeable views. He denied that he had been rebuked by the Pope. He admitted, however, that at present the result of his visit to Rome did not look very favorable to the national cause.

The Papal Propaganda has issued a supplemental circular to the Irish bishops, enforcing previous injunctions and containing answers to many priests who asked for advice on matters of conscience.

Daniel Curley, the second man convicted of participation in the Phœnix Park murders, was executed in Kilmainham Jail, Dublin, on Friday morning, at 8 o'clock. He made no statement. There was a crowd gathered outside the jail at the time of the execution, many praying for the condemned man.

James Carey, the man who was concerned in the Phœnix Park assassinations, and who turned informer and was the principal witness for the Crown against his companions during their trials, was on Saturday released from custody. He declares that he intends to remain in Dublin. The reward for the detection of the Phœnix Park murderers is to be distributed among the informers. Carey is still held as a witness for the cases of Sheridan, Tynan, and Walsh.

Fitzharris, the cab-driver, was convicted in Dublin, on Wednesday, as an accessory after the fact to the murder of Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke, and was sentenced to penal servitude for life.

Delaney, one of the Phœnix Park murderers, has been reprieved.

James Mullet, Edward O'Brien, Edward McCaffrey, Daniel Delaney, William Moroney, and Thomas Doyle, all of whom had pleaded guilty in Dublin on Wednesday to the charge of conspiracy to murder, were arraigned in court for sentence on Thursday. The first five mentioned were each sentenced to ten years' penal servitude, and Doyle to five years' penal servitude. The Crown decided to drop the criminal charge against McCaffrey of having participated in the murder of Mr. Burke.

Patrick O'Brien, formerly Secretary of the Liverpool Land League, Michael Hynes, a printer, and Patrick Slater, the foreman of Hynes, were arrested in Liverpool on Wednesday for printing and spreading the circulars forwarded to tradesmen in Dublin recently, which were termed "An analysis of special juries on eighteen trials under the Crimes Act," and in which persons having goods of those jurors were threatened. They were remanded for trial and admitted to bail. Six persons were arrested at Ballina on the same day charged with conspiracy to murder landlords. An infernal machine and a number of firearms were seized.

The dynamite conspirators, Kennedy, O'Herlihy, O'Connor *alias* Dalton, Deasy, and Flanagan, were arraigned in court in Liverpool on Saturday, and formally charged with conspiracy to murder, as well as treason-felony.

A murder conspiracy was unearthed in County Mayo, Ireland, on Tuesday, and a quantity of arms and cartridges were discovered under a bridge at Sligo.

The police of Liverpool on Wednesday denied the story of an infernal machine having been placed on board a transatlantic steamer. The London *Times's* correspondent, however, reaffirmed its truth.

The London *Pall Mall Gazette* asserted on Monday that the Governor-Generalship of Canada, in succession to the Marquis of Lorne, had been offered to the Marquis of Lansdowne, who had accepted it, and will probably sail for Canada next October to assume the duties of the office.

The London *Times* says the Irish emigration scheme proposed by Canadian capitalists hangs fire because of the objection of Mr. Gladstone to the system of state aid.

William Chambers, LL.D., the well-known Edinburgh and London publisher, is dead, at the age of eighty-three.

Sir John McNeill, G.C.B., is dead. He was born in England in 1795, and was the author of 'Progress and Position of Russia in the East to 1854.'

Arthur Matthison, actor, author, and journalist, died in London on Monday. He at one time acted in this city. He was part author of the successful play, "The Great Divorce Case."

Emperor William of Germany has given his consent to the retirement of many high officers of the army. This, it is thought, shows that the Government despairs of passing the bill increasing pensions.

The Berlin *North German Gazette*, Bismarck's newspaper, attempts to prove by statistics that the danger of contracting trichinosis from American pork is sixty times greater than it is from German pork, and refers to the latest reports of the sanitary officers at Chicago, Erie, and Boston, and to publications in the New York *Medical Journal*, to prove the correctness of its statements.

A commercial treaty between Germany and Madagascar was formally signed on Wednesday.

The village of Duenkirchen, Germany, was burned on Monday.

It was semi-officially announced in Berlin on Thursday that the reply of Prussia to the last note of the Vatican makes no reference to an organic revision of the May laws. It is said that Prince Bismarck has informed the friends of the Vatican that it will never again receive such favorable offers from Prussia as those now under consideration, and it will surely repent if it rejects them.

Cardinal Lavigerie, Archbishop of Algiers, has been authorized by the Pope to call the attention of the French Government to the difficulty the Pope has in preventing the tension between the Vatican and France from becoming an open rupture, and to show it how impatiently the enemies of the Republic await such a result. The Government has made an amicable reply to the Cardinal's communication.

The rumor that the Comte de Chambord is dying was denied on Wednesday. On Sunday he went to Frohsdorff by an express train.

The London *Times's* correspondent at Paris says the reactionary utterances of the Comte de Chambord, which have been heard frequently of late, lend credibility to the rumor that he intends to make the son of Don Carlos heir to his claims as King of France, to the exclusion of the Orleanist princes.

Six French Anarchists were arrested in Paris on Wednesday for circulating seditious pamphlets among the troops.

The Paris *Figaro* on Thursday published a letter from Count de Lesseps, asserting that the Suez Canal Company propose to cut a second canal across the Isthmus.

The Governor of the Sudan has telegraphed to the Khedive of Egypt that a majority of the native chiefs have submitted to the Egyptians.

Lord Dufferin will visit Vienna and Paris, on his way to England from Constantinople, to exchange views with the Austrian and French Governments on the Egyptian question.

The Sultan of Turkey has agreed to convoke a parliament, which will resemble the Assembly of 1876, and will consist of representatives of all religions. It will meet in October.

The Spanish Government has agreed to pay the American indemnity. Provision will be made in the Cuban budget for upwards of $526,000, being the remainder of the award fixed by the Washington Commission.

The Spanish Chamber of Deputies has rejected Señor Moret's amendment to the budget.

The Brazilian Ministry has resigned. Señor Sarawa will probably be the next Prime Minister.

It was telegraphed from Chili on Wednesday that peace with Bolivia had been assured as well as with Peru. Later advices about the treaty with the latter country say that the principal bases are the unconditional cession of all territory south of the River Camarones to Chili. At the end of a certain term a plébiscite is to decide to which republic these places belong, the country possessing them to pay an indemnity of 10,000,000 pesos to the other. The preliminaries are signed subject to Iglesias's approval.

News has been received at Durban, South Africa, that King Cetewayo, having advanced to attack Oham and Usibepu, the latter chiefs combined their forces and utterly routed Cetewayo. The first accounts of the engagement put the loss at 6,000 men, but this is probably exaggerated. There were reports on Monday of another disastrous defeat for Cetewayo.

THE NEW VIEW OF BOOKS.

THE *Atlantic Monthly* for June contains an article on "Authorship in America" which deserves, and we have no doubt will attract, wide attention. The object of the writer is mainly to show how perfectly just and proper it is that there should be a duty on books. Last winter, when Congress was engaged in revising the tariff, a publishers' petition against the removal of the duty made its appearance, which excited a good deal of curiosity. It was a document full of interest in many ways, but what made it most talked about was the fact that among the signatures appeared the names of two or three well-known New England authors. There was a startling novelty about literary men coming forward to beg that books might be kept out of the country; and as the remonstrance itself did not explain this, it looked very much as if there must be some new view of literature at the bottom of the movement, which would sooner or later come out and make it all clear —some view which the publishers had perhaps explained to the authors privately, but for some reason had thought best not to embody in the remonstrance.

Such, it seems, was really the case, and the writer in the *Atlantic* tells us what the new view is with great plainness, so that the dullest reader may easily master it. Taking up the text of the publishers' remonstrance, he quotes the following striking passage: "The removal or essential reduction of the existing tariff on books would give the foreign publisher an advantage over the American publisher by enabling him to occupy the American market with books written and made abroad at a lower rate than they can be made in this country," and observes upon it: "This statement looks to a simple commercial fact. It assumes books to be purely objects of merchandise, subject to the laws which govern merchandise. . . . It assumes that a book is a book, and almost eliminates the element of authorship."

The writer frankly admits that this is a new view of literature; that hitherto books have been supposed to differ from other manufactured products mainly in having what he delicately calls the "element" of authorship, and that the number of readers who bought books by the pound, without any inquiry as to who wrote them, was very small. But the fact is, says our writer, that all this is a mistake. The "great public that supports bookstores" (a phrase which itself very neatly suggests what he thinks is the final cause of the existence of books) does not buy a book for any such silly reason as that "they know about the author," and want to get at his views, enjoy his humor, or imagination, or read his poetry, or fiction, but simply because they "want something to read." He admits that there are here and there exceptions; but these count for very little, for, he goes on conclusively, "the very men who have most to do with the distribution of literature" — the booksellers — "know that with the exception of a few books by men of world-wide note, and a few that are immediately advertised in an extensive way, a pound of books is a pound of books, and the public at large buys by the pound."

Every one has heard of the story of the enterprising vender of books who, on being asked whether he had a copy of Bossuet, said, "No, but we have Balzac." This story is usually told, among those who hold the old-fashioned view of literature, as an amusing illustration of the low mercantile way in which people who sell books come to look at them; but the writer in the *Atlantic* throws an altogether new light upon it by explaining that the man gave this answer because he "knew that nine out of ten chance buyers would have taken another French book by an author whose name began with B, if the one they had heard of was not to be had." In other words, the moral of the story is, that readers don't care what they read as long as they get books of the right length and price. "That young man," he says approvingly, "knew how to keep store."

Such is the view of literature and authors on which one of the best-known publishing firms in the country supports the duty on books; and now that we see what it is, we see why so few authors signed the petition. It is hard, for many reasons, to get an author to take this view of books, even when it is fully explained by a very clear-headed publisher. The publishers of the *Atlantic* are indeed very fortunate in having secured an author—for the writer declares that he is an author of some kind—through whom to put forward this frank and manly statement of their views. We are very curious, however, to know how far these views are shared by publishers elsewhere. They are views which, so far as we know, have never been seriously advanced in print before. Last winter we suggested that only some such idea as that a book was merely "something to read," would account for a belief in the desirability of putting a tax on foreign books; but that such a view should be seriously put forward in a magazine published in a literary centre like Boston, is something we did not expect, and we cordially congratulate the publishers of the *Atlantic* on the author they have caught and got into such good training. He does not disclose his name, and in his case we entirely agree with him that it is unimportant who he is, because what he calls the "element" of authorship has been apparently entirely eliminated from him.

It is, however, probable that he is not a product of our universities, for, among the gems of thought in his article, is one to the effect that authors would probably do far better work if it were not for the baleful influence upon them of the institutions of learning at which so many of them get their education. "The effect of university life upon authorship," this remarkable person observes, "is on the whole a repressive one. The university man is," he declares, "undermined by his disposition to perfect his work, and by the air of criticism which prevails about him." Fortunately, however, there is hope in another quarter—from "the publishers." "In this respect more is to be hoped from them than from the universities." The publishing houses are in the good time coming to be "great centres of intellectual force, collecting the scattered powers of literature, and redistributing them in ordered form." Yet he would not altogether do away with Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and the rest. He thinks that "the university might well range itself among the forces which are to stimulate and control letters." They have been so demoralized, probably, by their pursuit of perfection and devotion to criticism that they have altogether overlooked this. Now that their attention is called to it, we hope that they will make some effort. The publishers ought not to be left to fight the battle single-handed.

ITALY AND THE ART TARIFF.

THE French have already shown a disposition to retaliate for what they regard as a prohibitory advance in our tariff upon works of art, by excluding Americans from the gratuitous advantages of their Government schools of art, and their works from the awards of the Salon. But there is another quarter in which more decided retaliation will very probably be resorted to. The Italians are as likely as any people to object to our national theory that all nations may help our boys, teach them and reward them, but purely gratis—no favors allowed in return. They have as many of them to house and to teach as any nation has; and then there is a treaty, and under that treaty, or in despite of it, things take place which give the Italians very great dissatisfaction. This treaty of 1871 provides, as is usual in such cases, that no discrimination shall be made by either the United States or by Italy unfavorable to the imports from the other nation; that no higher duties shall be levied on Italian goods entering the United States than on similar goods, "being the produce or the manufacture of any other foreign country." This treaty being in force, the United States continues to lay a tax of 50 per cent. on Italian marble manufactures, such as fountains, tombs, and mantelpieces, and on Italian marble statuary a tax which was 10 per cent., and is now 30 per cent. Meantime, the free-list, brief as it is, includes "works of art, paintings, statuary, fountains, . . . the production of American artists." In this way there is allowed to enter, *free of duty*, into our fenced and guarded bounds any work of art in marble of which the model is the work of an American sculptor, even when all the marble cutting and finishing (a considerable piece of work) is done by Italians. All sorts of marble manufactures, also, can be entered free, if it can be made out that they come within the same category.

A drawing-room mantelpiece, with a cubic metre of foreign marble and an hundred days' work of highly-trained foreign labor in it, comes in free, if the designer of the great marbleyard who sells it to you can be sworn to as an "American artist." In Carrara the workmen get perhaps one-third of New York wages. Carrara marble is cheap, but coming rough to New York it pays sixty-five cents a cubic foot, a tax which is avoided by the neat arrangement above described, according to which the cheap foreign material and the cheap foreign labor come in free to compete with our "protected" marble and marble-cutters. That there is also plenty of room for abuses, seems pretty clear; for what is there to prevent a Carrara factory of mantel-

pieces from having its books of patterns in the hands of all marble dealers in the United States, or the marble dealers from ordering "your No. 36 B, at 1,100 lire," or the same from taking out false papers and swearing itself in as of good American parentage? But, disregarding the possible abuses, our affair is with the natural *uses*, which appear to the Italians very different from the reciprocity they look for from the treaty of 1871. They apply the *argumentum ad hominem:* if an Italian capitalist were to start a great cotton factory in Georgia, of which nothing but the owner and his money should be Italian, the rest all American—workmen, materials and processes of manufacture—would it be approved by the United States and their cotton spinners that all the produce of that factory should enter Italy free, while a solid duty was laid upon all other similar goods? If not, the Italians go on to say, and if this would produce such an outcry as to force upon Congress some change in the treaty, why is the present anomaly allowed to continue?

The American authorities refer to the letter of the treaty as justifying their interpretation of the law and the retention of it side by side with the treaty. But, urge the Italians, the spirit of the treaty is surely violated by these provisions: is this reciprocity? Put it in this way: if pictures painted, say, in England enter the United States with a lower duty than those painted in Italy, or free, while those from Italy are taxed; or if a portrait-bust designed and made in Paris enters the United States free, while one made in Florence is taxed 30 per cent., evidently the treaty is violated. But, now, what difference does it make who is the painter of the English picture, the modeller of the Parisian bust? No matter whose name is signed on the French piece of statuary; there it is, the produce of a French atelier, the handiwork of Parisian workmen who have been paid in French money; and it enters the United States untaxed, while a bust shipped from Florence at the same time pays perhaps $300 into the Federal Treasury before it can pass. The fact that some such busts going from Florence are also allowed to enter free does not change this view of the case at all. The greater part of Italian-made statuary is discriminated against in a way wholly contrary to the meaning and spirit of the treaty.

The Italian Government appears to have under consideration some kind of retaliatory measure. The subject has been discussed in the Italian Chamber. If, for instance, a heavy export duty should be laid upon the production of American artists in Italy, would the United States have any right to complain? The unfortunate artists would; for it is not they who have been heard in Congressional committee rooms. Certainly the *lex talionis* is not the choicest bit of international law, but is there any way out of the difficulty except by that sort of disguised warfare? But we are not done yet with the complaints of the Italians. The uncertain interpretation of the law, and the varying definition of the phrase "works of art," are the cause of many and earnest protests. Take the common case of a marble tomb, containing, say, $20,000 worth of simply-worked marble, and a little sculpture on frieze and pilasters of doorway. This may be brought into the United States free of duty. It *may* be—that is, such an interpretation of the law has often been given and acted upon. If the exporter will swear that the designer was an American artist, the American Consul has then to decide whether it is a work of art, and free of duty, or a manufacture of marble at 50 per cent. Ten thousand dollars or nothing in Uncle Sam's pocket! Is it surprising that there should be differences in the views of our different commercial agents in Europe, or that what is good law in 1875 may somehow be looked upon differently in 1880?

Manufactures of marble are not so easy to define as people think. Our supposed tomb may be such a manufacture, or it may be a work of art; but what should one say of a carefully-made copy of an antique statue in an Italian museum? Suppose that an American sculptor in Rome has made a reproduction of the bust of the "Young Augustus," so well known and so popular, or of the "Spinario" of the Capitol, and suppose that he employs upon the work the best skill he can procure—namely, the same workmen who transfer to marble his own original thoughts—would the resulting copy of the antique be a work of art? Not at all. But take the case where the regulations admit of no making of casts and no marking of the original for purposes of measurement; the sculptor has to take his clay to the museum, and there, beside the antique masterpiece, build up his own "free-hand" copy of it—an artistical process if there ever was one. Not a work of art at all. By the decision of the Secretary of the Treasury, any copy of an antique statue is a "manufacture of marble." How else? In order to get out of the difficulties always arising in this absurd medley of arbitrary ignorance it has been settled that a "work of art" must be the "original production" of the artist who has made the model. Comparing this instance with the former one, the odd result is reached that, while our supposed tomb has a good chance of getting in free, bringing in free tons of marble which ought to pay 65 cents for each and every pound weight, and thousands of dollars' worth of the "pauper labor of Europe," against which, as is well known, American labor must be protected, our Treasury stands by to tax at the rate of one-half of its total value a thing which the United States cannot produce at all, namely, a copy of an antique statue in a European gallery.

It is in vain to expect people who suffer in their pockets, and who tried to make with us a treaty which should be mutually beneficial and just, to comprehend the elaborate reasoning by which such incongruities are defended. Retaliation upon arbitrary decrees of mediævally-minded governments of Europe, or upon the ignorant self-seeking of as yet immature Washington legislation, will be always evil—always as hurtful to those who enact it as to those it is aimed at; but, at the present moment, it seems inevitable. The world will now proceed to take a step backward in political economy, preparatory to going forward again.

RENAN'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.—II.

PARIS, May 3, 1883.

I HAVE said that Renan received his first education in a small college in Brittany. The priests, who were his professors, taught him Latin in the old fashion (which, he says, is the best) with detestable elementary books, without method, without grammar, as Erasmus and the great Latinists of the Renaissance learned it. He received from these good priests lessons which were better than grammar. Not a word was said to him of contemporary literature: he lived in the past. The name of Chateaubriand was sometimes pronounced, but even he was dangerous—Lamartine even more so; the priests felt that he would some day be something else than the author of the 'First Meditations.' Renan received in 1830 the education which was given in 1630. "The basis of these old educations was a severe morality, considered as inseparable from religion, a way of looking at life as involving duties to truth." His masters taught him, he says candidly, something better than philosophical criticism—love of truth, respect for reason, the seriousness of life. "This is the only thing in me which never changed. I came out of their hands with a moral sentiment so well prepared for all trials that Parisian levity could only polish it without changing it." His masters, he also says, made him unfit for anything but a spiritual and intellectual life; any lucrative profession seemed to him servile and unworthy of him. Renan pays the highest homage to his classical professors: "I spent thirty years of my life in the hands of priests, and I never saw the shadow of a scandal; I have known no priests but good priests."

In the little college of Tréguier, all good scholars were looked upon as future priests. Renan was born priest, he says himself, as others are born soldiers, lawyers. In the year 1836 Renan obtained all the prizes of his class. The Abbé Dupanloup, who was looking everywhere for recruits for the seminary which he then directed in Paris, heard of this young scholar, and he offered him a place in his seminary of Saint-Nicolas du Chardonnet, and young Renan, who was fifteen and a half years old, was sent to Paris. He was thrown out of his natural orbit into a new sphere of attraction. Renan was like a tree transplanted to a new soil; he felt very unhappy at first, he became very ill. He was saved by M. Dupanloup himself, who took a great interest in him, and showed him much kindness. Renan says that the Abbé Dupanloup literally transformed him; he opened his provincial mind. After having finished his rhetoric at Saint-Nicolas du Chardonnet, Renan went to Issy, which was the country-house of the Seminary of Saint-Sulpice. Here he fell under new influences. Renan paints very exactly this extraordinary establishment of Saint-Sulpice, "which is more separated from the present time than if three thousand miles of silence guarded it." He began his Biblical and exegetical studies, and prepared himself for the priesthood.

The great Seminary of the Diocese of Paris has two great houses—the house in Paris, which stands by the church of Saint-Sulpice in the Latin Quarter, and the house in Issy. Saint-Sulpice owes its origin to Jean-Jacques Olier, a contemporary and a coöperator of Vincent de Paul, of Bérulle, and of various founders of congregations who had for their object the reform of ecclesiastical education. The result of this great movement was the creation of the clergy who filled the second part of the seventeenth century—"the most disciplined, the most regular, the most national, and the most learned clergy." Port-Royal was a sort of rival of

Saint-Sulpice; it had the same virtues, but it had no docility. Olier, the founder of Saint-Sulpice, wrote a book called 'Christian Catechism for the Inner Life'—an extraordinary book, in which the ideal life of the Christian is called "the state of death." Humility is the great virtue: the corruption of the flesh must be always before our minds. Olier himself was a saint, an apostle, an organizer, which is rare in a mystic. Saint-Sulpice stood aloof from politics, even after the Revolution and in the nineteenth century. It was neutral; it cared really for nothing but the orthodox faith; it lived by routine, and instinctively disliked all novelties. It was even afraid of excessive zeal, of enthusiasm. No attenuation of the dogma was admitted; the only sources of Christianity were the holy fathers, the councils, the doctors. The divinity of Christ was not proved by modern arguments. The Sulpicians were serious Christians; they ignored the theological pathos which has been invented by fashionable preachers; they did not care for literary effect; they wrote in the most modest, self-effacing style. They saw the vanity of talent and of words. Saint-Sulpice, says Renan, is the last place where people write like the Port-Royalists, totally forgetting care for the form, and thinking only of ideas. Before all, Saint-Sulpice is a school of virtue. "What there is of virtue in Sulpice," says Renan, "would suffice to govern a world. . . . People will never know what treasures are contained in these old schools—of silence, of seriousness, and of respect for the conservation of good in humanity." Renan speaks with tenderness of the place where he spent four years—the most critical of his life. With the plasticity of his nature, he entered at once into the spirit of the Sulpician philosophy and scholastics. The two first years were spent at Issy, near Vaugirard, in a house which once belonged to Marguerite de Valois (the first wife of Henri IV.), surrounded by a park.

The relations between masters and pupils in the Sulpician establishments are very intimate and friendly. The directors and the young men lead exactly the same life; there are hardly any examinations—all competition seems to encourage too much vanity. The pupils are free to work, or not to work; they are treated like men. The two years spent at Issy were devoted chiefly to philosophy. Cartesianism and the Scotch philosophy were the atmosphere of the place, but philosophy was completely imbued with Christianity. Malebranche, who was a Cartesian, said his mass every morning during all his life. The Sulpicians did not dread a philosophy which could live in such perfect harmony with their faith. Renan gives us the portraits of all his professors, and among them were very original types. The young pupil showed an extraordinary ardor for study and for discussion; he never played, he never went to Paris.

"M. Gottofrey (one of the professors) spoke very rarely to me, but he observed me with much curiosity. My Latin argumentations, made with a firm tone and much accent, astonished him, made him uneasy. Sometimes I triumphed too much: sometimes I showed how weak I found the reasons opposed to me. One day, when my objections had been made with much vigor, he interrupted the discussion. In the evening he took me aside. He explained to me with eloquence how anti-Christian was confidence in reason, how dangerous rationalism is to faith. He became very animated, and reproached me with my fondness for study. 'What are you looking for? Why so much research? All the essential things have been found. It is not science which saves the soul.' Then, becoming more and more agitated, he said to me passionately: 'You are not a Christian.'"

Renan felt much frightened, unbosomed himself to another professor, M. Gosselin, who calmed and reassured him. This incident shows what moral tempests can break the calm of these quiet paradises of faith. M. Gottofrey was right, as Renan confesses: the germ of unbelief had been planted in his heart; science had begun its work.

After two years of philosophy, he went to the great Seminary of Saint-Sulpice, in order to pursue his theological studies. Renan confesses now that he ought to have followed the impulse given him by M. Gottofrey. "He alone saw clearly into the future, for he was altogether a saint." "At Saint-Sulpice," continues Renan, "I learned German and Hebrew; and all was changed." Saint-Sulpice is a fragment of the seventeenth century kept in the midst of modern Paris; not materially (as the present building is not very old), but intellectually and morally. It is something like Port-Royal and the old Sorbonne together. M. Garnier, the Director, a learned Orientalist and exegete, never spoke of Bossuet otherwise than as Monsieur Bossuet, of Fénelon otherwise than as Monsieur Fénelon: it seemed as if he had lived with them.

Renan speaks at length of M. Le Hir, "who was certainly the most remarkable man that the French clergy has produced in our time." M. Le Hir, he says, was at the same time a savant and a saint; he was perfectly well versed in the German exegesis, he was a great linguist, he knew the doctrines of Gesenius and of Ewald; he remained orthodox to the end, and died prematurely in 1868, while preparing to go to Rome to the General Council of the Church. Renan speaks with a penetrating emotion of the time he spent at Saint-Sulpice. He speaks with emotion also of the mortal agitation which led him by degrees to rationalism, of his first doubts, of the first struggles between his faith and his reason. His masters, who became his spiritual directors, told him that such temptations were only too common. They did not press him to take his first vows; they told him to wait, to pray, and be patient. Renan took only the first degrees of clericity; he did not become a subdeacon, for he would thus have taken the first of the sacred orders which constitute an irrevocable engagement.

He spent the vacation of 1845 in Brittany. He felt there that his doubts were becoming more and more embarrassing, and he determined to continue his studies freely, and not to return to Saint-Sulpice. His masters showed him much kindness; M. Le Hir offered him money, if he needed any. His sister Henriette gave him 1,200 francs to help him during the first months of his independence. He left the Seminary on the 6th of October, 1845, and took a room in a little hôtel near the Seminary, called the "Hôtel of Mademoiselle Céleste"; it received chiefly priests, and was a sort of annex of Saint-Sulpice. The Abbé Gratry offered Renan a place of proctor (*surveillant*) in his school; he accepted it, but soon found himself in the old bonds, threw it up, and became a *répétiteur* in a large institution of the Quartier Saint-Jacques, a dependence of the Lycée Henri IV. He received no pay, but had a room, and took his meals with the young men. The little pension of the Rue de l'Abbé-de-l'Épée would have been a paradise for him, as he cared for nothing but study, if he had not been tormented by his religious scruples and doubts. It is hard to leave a doctrine which embraces life with as much force as does Catholicism, and to find yourself alone in the terrible struggle. "The universe," says he, "made on me the effect of a dry and cold desert. Since Christianity had ceased for me to be the truth, all the rest seemed to me indifferent, frivolous, unworthy of interest." He felt like a lover whose love had been shattered. He knew that his conduct gave much pain to his mother—her letters broke his heart. He was fond of his mother; he used to ask her ten times a day, in his childhood: "Mamma, are you pleased with me?" and now she was no longer pleased with him.

His ignorance of the world was complete. He did nothing at first to improve his humble condition. The buoyancy of youth, the love of work, a friend whom he found in his new life, preserved him from sadness; he also had the approbation of his sister, of whom he was passionately fond. The moral direction of his life remained the same; he still was a priest of the soul, though he did not wear the gown of a priest. He still kept the first vows he had taken: he remained a Sulpician in his mode of life.

There would be much to say on the last pages of this curious memoir; they constitute a sort of public confession, too proud in its assumed modesty, too unconscious in its assumed analysis. Renan examines himself on the four points which were the basis of the Sulpician code of virtue: first, disinterestedness or poverty; second, modesty; third, politeness; fourth, chastity. He prides himself on having essentially kept these four virtues of clericity. Those who are curious to verify the truth of Pascal's saying, "Le moi est haïssable," had better read this extraordinary examination of conscience. Much as I admire Renan, I confess that it has made on me a disagreeable and almost painful impression. It could be easily ridiculed, but something besides irony is mingled with the impression which is left on the mind by the 'Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse.'

Correspondence.

FEMALE EXAMINERS IN ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I call attention to a slight misprint in my letter on the Columbia scheme of higher education for women, published in the *Nation* of May 17, which made me appear to say that "female examiners have in England rapidly become a large and important body"? For examiners, read examinees. The other statement would be quite untrue. As far as I am aware, the first instance of the appointment of a woman in England as a university examiner was the recent case of Mrs. Humphrey Ward. The English *Journal of Education* of April 1 remarks that

"The University of Oxford, in the matter of Local Examinations, of University Extension, and generally of Educational Reforms, has allowed the sister university to take the lead; but, for once, Cambridge will have to follow in the wake of Oxford. A lady has been appointed Examiner for the Taylorian scholarship of next year. The number of Spanish scholars in England is limited, and it would be difficult to find a man who knows the language and literature so thoroughly as Mrs. Humphrey Ward."

I remain, respectfully yours, E. T. M.

New York, May 18, 1883.

PROFESSORS' SALARIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "W. S. F." is unquestionably right when he claims that the salary of a college professor has, within certain limits, comparatively little to do with the quality of his work. A faithful teacher will never say: "I will not do my best, because I do not receive as large a salary as I think I ought to have." Experience, I think, proves that $5,000 divided among three men will, in nine cases out of ten,

be much more fruitful in good results than when given *in toto* as salary to a single professor. This statement would probably not hold good in the case of institutions so situated as to make the cost of living exceptionally high. There are scores of colleges in the country in which several professors receive the same compensation; yet nobody will claim that they are therefore equally efficient and successful as teachers. It is well known that many German professors who are now eminent did their best work, so far as concerns their personal teaching, when they were obscure and poorly paid, and that in many cases men whose reputation has spread over two continents are found to be very unsatisfactory teachers. The American who selects his university and his professors before going abroad often finds that he has not chosen wisely, because ability to teach and scientific attainments do not always go hand in hand. Some men's writings are more stimulating than their presence.

It is claimed, too, by the advocates of small colleges, and with much show of reason, that these turn out a larger proportion of relatively distinguished men than the more numerously attended universities. This result must be chiefly attributed to the personal influence of the teachers. It is often charged that the influence of those universities which are now well endowed and able to pay large salaries has by no means kept pace with their material enlargement. Certain it is, that some of the most efficient teachers in our large institutions are graduates of small colleges, and, though they have perhaps in most cases pursued post-graduate courses elsewhere, the work which had most to do in shaping their subsequent success was done before they had left college.

I should be sorry to be understood as advocating small salaries for college professors, but I must protest against the injustice of judging this class of men or their work by the size of their pay. To the man who deliberately chooses the vocation of teaching, pecuniary considerations are usually of secondary importance.

C. W. S.

Athens, O., May 19, 1883.

FRENCH DUELLING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Thanks for your article in No. 932 on "Duelling in France and Elsewhere." I think it puts the homicide question on a somewhat broader basis, and will soothe the sensibilities of some good people which the previous discussion in your columns had left a little sore. I am glad, too, that you have in your last issue very neatly balanced the Thompson and Dunn cases against each other. This leaves the honors easy between the "sections."

I had not intended the letter to which you were kind enough to reply for publication, or I should have written less flippantly, and have foreborne the unwarrantable use of the name of the editor of the Richmond *State*, for whom I entertain both respect and esteem.

Very respectfully yours,

C. J. Harris.

Lexington, Va., May 19, 1883.

PUBLISHERS' PROFITS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit us to correct an error of figures in the review recently published in your columns of our little manual 'Authors and Publishers,' an error which is the more material as it forms the basis for some of the more important of the conclusions reached by your reviewer?

In speaking of the division of "profits" on a volume retailing at $1 50, and sold at wholesale at 90 cents, he states that the customary 10 per cent. copyright arrangement produces for the author 15 cents, while the publisher retains for himself 75 cents, or "five times as much"; and he asks, "On what principle that regulates the business dealings of men with an author is this . . . a fair division of *profits?*" This misapprehension as to what constitutes profits occasionally troubles a young writer in connection with her first book, but we should not have expected to find it causing perplexity to a reviewer in the *Nation*. It was for the purpose of meeting such occasional misapprehension that the following figures were given in the manual which your reviewer was considering:

"A customary royalty for a work of current literature is 10 per cent., which for a book published at $1 50 brings to the author 15 cents a copy, or $150 per thousand copies. It has sometimes been rather hastily imagined that under such a copyright arrangement the share of the publisher was $1 35, as against the 15 cents conceded to the author. A moment's calculation will, however, show how far this is from being the case. The publisher receives from the wholesale dealer for a book published at $1 50, not $1 50, but 90 cents, and sometimes (on special arrangement for works of fiction and books for young people) only 75 cents.

"After deducting from this the cost of manufacturing the volume, and the proportion belonging to each copy sold of the cost of the copies printed and not sold, and of the stereotyping, press copies, advertising, etc., there would rarely remain as much net profit as 30 cents, and of this 15 cents would go to the author. In fact, the customary royalty of 10 per cent. has apparently been calculated on the basis of securing for the author about half the net profits."

And although under the present much reduced prices of books it is most frequently the case that, even after the stereotyping has been paid for, the margin of profit to be divided no longer amounts to as much as 25 per cent., the customary royalty to the author remains 10 per cent.

Excepting for the greater complication of accounts and greater possibilities of friction, publishers would, as a rule, have no objection to a half-profit arrangement, and it is probable that under such arrangement the author would most frequently realize less than from a royalty of 10 per cent. of the retail price.

We will not take up your space by considerations on the general conclusions of your reviewer, but it is not out of place to say that the erroneous calculation on which these conclusions are in large part based, is a very fair example of the class of misapprehensions which form the foundation for many of the doubts and criticisms of authors.—Respectfully,

G. P. Putnam's Sons.

New York, May 19, 1883.

[It is evident, from the hastiest glance at this letter, that in the publisher's eyes the 10 per cent. received by the author is pure net profit; that while every dollar he himself has directly or indirectly vested in the material manufacture of a book must be estimated at its full value, the time, the labor, and the money invested by the author in the mental manufacture of it must be reckoned at little or nothing—at very much the same rate, indeed, as if he had accidentally picked up a manuscript somewhere in the street, and had brought it to be printed. Yet, from the business point of view, the time and labor and money spent by the author in gathering his materials and putting them into shape must be paid for out of his 10 per cent. The result is that in the large majority of instances his net profits are nothing, and he is sometimes actually brought in debt to his publisher. It is clear, therefore, that in the author's eyes five to one is an understatement of the difference between profits rather than an overstatement. On the other hand, the time and labor and money spent by the author may be honestly deemed by the publisher to be worth nothing. But this is naturally not the author's view, and it was his view that we sought to set forth. We did not say that his complaint was well founded, but we endeavored to make it understood.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish immediately a novelette entitled 'X. Y. Z.,' by Anna Katherine Green, whose 'Leavenworth Case' has met with such exceptional success among first novels.

Anson D. F. Randolph & Co. have nearly ready, 'The Jews; or, Prediction and Fulfilment, an Argument for the Times,' by the Rev. Dr. S. H. Kellogg.

The international publishing house of Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co. has been reorganized into a limited joint-stock company, under the abbreviated style—surely no small gain in itself, in this hurrying world—of Cassell & Co., Limited.

A weighty appeal is made for subscriptions to the proposed publication of a 'History of St. Paul's Parish, Baltimore,' compiled and left in manuscript by the late Rev. Ethan Allen, D.D. This work "is virtually a history of the Church in the city and county of Baltimore" for a century and a half (1686-1854), St. Paul's having been a metropolitan church. It will be issued at $5, and will be edited by Prof. H. B. Adams, of Johns Hopkins University. Subscribers, of whom there should be some four hundred, may send their names to Mr. George T. Hollyday, Secretary, No. 1 Rialto Building, Baltimore.

In Professor Adams's "University Studies" series, the latest issue is 'Old Maryland Manors,' with the records of a court leet and a court baron.

L. Prang & Co., Boston, have got out a very pretty "John Howard Payne Souvenir," consisting of a facsimile of "Home, Sweet Home," in the poet's own hand, facing a facsimile reproduction of a very striking pencil portrait drawn from life in 1848 by A. M. Freeman. Payne's head, as here shown, is markedly intellectual.

Two more volumes will complete the new Riverside Edition of Hawthorne's works (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), vols. ix. and x., just issued, consisting of the American and the French and Italian Note-Books, respectively. Mr. Lathrop's introductions reveal the habit out of which grew the sources of these selections—a heterogeneous assortment of memorandum books—and report some retrenchment upon the original edition of the American Notes as edited by Mrs. Hawthorne. In the index to the ninth volume the late George Ripley might have been more precisely designated than as "Ripley, Mr."

J. W. Bouton has received copies of the usual illustrated Catalogue of the Paris Salon, with its 300 sketches by the artists of their own paintings or statuary. Few of these suggest extraordinary merit in the originals, but the collection has a psychological interest, and this record an historical value. "Revanche" is typified in Delanoy's picture of an empty suit of armor, with flag and sword beside it, and all resting on a battle-map of Alsace-Lorraine. The dedication is, "To the glory of a general of the past—or of the future." Perhaps, too, Benner's sad-faced "Alsatian Woman" is intended for a mute appeal. Our distinguished countryman, Mr.

Evarts, is shown in Bartholdi's bust of him, but, by one of the rare errors of this catalogue, his name is transformed into Evarst.

Paris Illustrée is the title of a new monthly just begun, and carrying its programme on its face. Apparently it will make a specialty of color designs—"somptuosités de coloration" is the exact phrase. The editor is F. G. Dumas, who also edits the Salon Catalogue; the publisher, A. Lahure, 9 Rue de Fleurus.

From Mr. Christern we have the first *livraisons* of two popular works undertaken by the Librairie Illustrée: one, a 'Nouvelle Histoire des Voyages,' by Richard Cortambert, to be finished in forty parts; the other, 'Les Nouvelles Conquêtes de la Science,' by Louis Figuier. Of the former, the pages before us do not warrant us in speaking very hopefully. It is intended to overcome the proverbial French ignorance in matters geographical, and has little to recommend it to English readers. The two illustrations already given are of a kind which ought to be discarded as worthless in such works. M. Figuier's enterprise, on the other hand, can safely be recommended on the strength of this writer's knowledge and experience. He will probably take a too national view of the origin of the great modern inventions which he is going to describe, but that is the fault of every nation. He begins with the electric light. Portraits and other genuine helps form the illustrations in this case.

Mr. Spofford's annual report on the Library of Congress has been issued from the Government Printing-office. The latest census of the volumes reckoned 480,076, and there were about one-third as many pamphlets; and still Congress does nothing to provide a proper receptacle for them, and more than 130,000 are piled upon the floor or stowed away behind other books—a source of endless confusion and delay. Dr. J. M. Toner's private library of 27,000 volumes, a gift to the nation, had to be temporarily stored in the crypt under the rotunda. This is the first instance, remarks Mr. Spofford, of private giving to the National Library on a large scale.

The April Bulletin of the Boston Public Library, just issued, contains the beginning of an index of articles upon American local history, which promises to be very valuable. We hope that, when complete, it will be issued in separate form. The mere list of works referred to fills six pages. These are not merely serial historical publications, but include many State and county histories in which the town or county histories are separately treated. The extent of the work can be seen from this, that four and a half pages bring the alphabet only to Ayer.

No. 101 of the List of Additions of the Boston Athenæum is devoted to the periodicals currently taken, 265 in number, giving the title, frequency of issue, editor's name, date of the first volume which the library owns, and, when necessary, brief descriptive notes.

From the thirtieth annual report of the Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Agriculture has been extracted for separate reprint Prof. C. S. Sargent's chapter on "Forest Fires." It is a timely tract, for even as we write we read of widespread conflagrations in New England woods. The locomotive is the chief agent in this destructiveness.

Henry Stevens used to make fun of the hitherto unknown author, Ander Schiffahrt (second voyage), who appeared in one of Henry Harrisse's indexes. We find a similar increase in the literary population of the world in the catalogue of the Post Library, just issued (Leavitt & Co.), where No. 9, "Auschaung's Unterricht sur Jugend," may be conjecturally emended to "Anschauungs-Unterricht für die Jugend." The same catalogue adds a new sect of heretics to the already long list—No. 283, "Hilarius de Trinitate adversus Arianos et anos hæreticos."

Mr. Arthur Gilman, 5 Waterhouse Street, Cambridge, Mass., is prepared to furnish a pamphlet describing the courses of study for 1883-84, with requirements for admission, of the Society for the Collegiate Instruction of Women. The list of instructors is curtailed only in the case of Elocution, and gains in Hebrew and Oriental Languages, Divinity, Philosophy, Chemistry, Engineering, and Physical Training. It embraces the cream of the college professional corps.

—The *Atlantic* for June contains the end of an international play, in the last instalment of Mr. James's dramatized version of 'Daisy Miller,' and the beginning of what appears to be an international story or sketch, by Mr. R. G. White, called "Mr. Washington Adams in England." The first number of this introduces an amiable and very well-bred, but (in American matters) very ignorant English duke and two American travellers, who, it is needless to say, converse with him in such a way as to completely expose his ignorance. As Mr. Adams is evidently to appear in the next number, and is a new type in literature, we may mention in advance that his full name and title is the Honorable Washington Jackson Adams, and that he is a member of the New York Legislature. His father's name was Phelim McAdam, the owner of two well-known Mackerelville "gin-mills," a sober man, however, who saved money, and finally became so respectable that, though an Irish-American, he joined the Republican party. Phelim married the daughter of a Division Street pawnbroker, and at her suggestion he changed the family name first to Adam and then to Adams. The Adamses soon after made their appearance in the fashionable quarter of the city. The son of this couple went into politics at an early age, and we must say that we shall be rather curious to see what Mr. White makes of the type against an English background. He rather exaggerates the duke's ignorance as to the general features of American life and geography. This nobleman is, in fact, a duke of the ante-bellum period, a sort of survival from the generation which saw few Americans in England, and sent few of its own representatives to this country. "Daisy Miller," the play, brings out more distinctly than the story did that a vindication of the American girl abroad from the odious suspicions aroused by her extreme freedom of conduct is intended by the author. The Miller family, it must in fairness be admitted, does not represent the highest level attained by "culture" in the United States. There are probably few American families travelling abroad who would be capable of allowing a rascally, impudent courier like *Eugenio* to become their confidential adviser and friend; but undoubtedly it is by virtue of certain very American traits that this becomes possible—one of them being an ignorance of what a courier is, that could only come of an American bringing-up. At the Miller level there is probably as much ignorance of European ways, and customs, and conventionalities in the United States as there is at the duke level in England of many of the features of American life. What a tame world it will be when the charge or insinuation of international ignorance ceases to arouse the sensitive patriot on either side of the water!

— Mr. Frederic G. Mather has an article in *Lippincott's* for June on the "Vagaries of Western Architecture." He takes the architecture of the town of "Joinwater," "a fair specimen of a Western American city," as a text for his remarks, and shows how it developed between 1790 and 1880, and how in this brief period it produced one strictly local type of dwelling—the log-cabin; but imported types representing various incongruous orders of architecture, from that of the New England farmhouse to that of the Grecian temple, with pediment and columns. The article is written in a vein the satire of which will apply fairly enough to much modern architecture outside the limits of Joinwater. With regard to the vexed question of the roof, which has caused as much trouble to critics and occupants of houses as any other, Mr. Mather declares that the citizens of Joinwater have been "nearly one hundred years in finding out that the various Grecian and Italian roofs that they used year after year were totally unfitted for a climate in the northern latitude of Joinwater. The Joinwater roof has been too generally constructed as if the true function of roofs was to collect snow. The snow has a partiality for flat roofs, and it clings closely to gingerbread work and foolish ornaments on cornices, windows, or piazzas." This is very true; but if Mr. Mather desires to encourage the introduction of the "peaked" roof in Eastern city architecture, he will have to meet the difficulty presented by "snow-slides" such as fill the wayfarer in the older parts of Boston with such dread. A peaked roof, which first accumulates snow and finally discharges it in an avalanche upon the heads of passers-by, may be architecturally superior to a flat roof, but is open to serious practical objections in cities closely built up. In Joinwater, apparently, there is more room, and the houses of the wealthier classes are very likely set back a considerable distance from the line of the street.

—The June *Century* contains the conclusion of a little story of "moonshiner" life, by Mr. Joel Chandler Harris, whose 'Uncle Remus' has already made him well known as a close observer of one side of Southern life. It is not among the negroes that "At Teague Poteet's" takes the reader, but among the mean whites, who produce illicit whiskey in the mountains. The plot of Mr. Harris's sketch is simplicity itself. It concerns the love affair of a daughter of a leading Hog Mountain moonshiner and a young United States officer, sent down to do what he can to break up her father's business. His affection for her, however, proves too strong for his sense of duty, and he saves Hog Mountain from a raid, and in the end reaps his reward. The sketch is marked by a pleasant humor which throws a glamour over the wonderfully degraded life of the mountaineers, and makes us almost forget how degraded it is at bottom. Hog and other similar mountains, it should be said, have now been inhabited by outlaws for some twenty-three years. Before the war the mountaineers lived there to escape from the asphyxiating conventionality of town or even village life. Their most marked peculiarity, next to the affection of the men for whiskey, and of the women for snuff, was a hatred of "'ristercrats" and a genuine passion for liberty. This quality it was which led the Mountain, when it found that the inhabitants of the Plain (with which it had been on terms of a somewhat distant civility) were going to secede from the Union, to determine for itself to remain in it. The mountaineers constituted, during the war, the "Unionists" of whom we heard so much more at the North in the early stages of the conflict than we did later on. When the war was over, however, they ceased to be Unionists simply because the Plain had fallen into Unionist hands, and a new race of "'ristercrats" had appeared in the shape of army officers and revenue agents. Precisely the same democratic spirit which had led to their hostility to the Confederates, now made them enemies of the United States, and the raids upon their

mountain stills, directed from Washington, did not tend to conciliate them. All this would seem to furnish rather unpromising materials for fiction, but Mr. Harris has done very well with them. His humor and treatment, indeed, are above his subject.

—Mr. W. Gordon McCabe, Head Master of the University School, Petersburg, Va., sends us a reply to Mr. E. J. Stearns's communication last week, on the single point of an implied assertion that cheats and liars are lynched at the school in question, instead of being sent to Coventry. Mr. McCabe denies and resents this, and refers to his former letter describing the judicial method actually resorted to by his pupils. We do not publish his letter in full because we apprehend that Mr. Stearns's remark was not intended for the University School; and our readers have perhaps had enough of this controversy.

— An interval of fourteen years separates the first edition of Mr. Henry C. Lea's 'Studies in Church History' from the second, which has just been issued in Philadelphia (Henry C. Lea's Son & Co.). No part of this learned and authoritative work has escaped revision in some degree. Alterations are visible upon the very first page, and as, throughout the book, they are almost invariably in the shape of additions to text and notes, the result is an enlargement even apart from the new chapter on the relations of the early Church to slavery. The portions which show the greatest amount of reëlaboration are those on the Benefit of Clergy and on Excommunication—especially, in the latter case, in the sections on Temporal Penalties and the Abuse of Excommunication (in which the Spanish field is noticeably taken more account of), Emancipation, and the Reformed Churches. The new matter strengthens, illustrates more copiously, and enlivens with anecdote the original argument, and, by adducing modern instances, brings the work quite up to date. These instances prove the survival of the superstitious and persecuting spirit of which the growth is traced in the 'Studies'; nor are they all drawn from Europe or from Romanism. We remark that at no point, so far as a rather close comparison may be depended upon, has Mr. Lea confessed himself in error, and his candor makes it certain that this arises from his painstaking and accurate scholarship rather than from pride of opinion. There are corrections, it is true, but they are confirmatory, and such as will recommend the 'Studies' still more strongly to the Index Expurgatorius, if, indeed, they are not already under the ban. The chapter on slavery, much as it relieves the general tone of condemnation which was unavoidable in the previous discussion, will not of itself save the book from this fate. It is, however, full of instruction for a nation like our own, so lately involved in the guilt of human bondage; for it shows how far the institution, as sanctioned and guarded by law and custom at the South, and freely apologized for at the North by professors of religion, transcended Roman slavery in barbarism. Some of these not too venerable apologists may still be a little startled to find Mr. Lea citing Paul's return of the fugitive Onesimus as, in spirit and tendency, an anti-slavery action.

—Remarkable among books of its own or of any other class is the 'Club-Almanach: Annuaire des cercles et du sport' (Paris: W. Hinrichsen; New York: E. Steiger). This small quarto, if we may so describe it (the leaf is 4½ by 5½ inches), contains more than 1,300 pages, so that it is not far from being as thick as it is broad. Its scope may well be supposed to be world-wide, and so it is. Primarily, it is a guide for "the man of the world, in his two-fold capacity of club-man and sportsman"; but the statesman and the journalist have also some interest in it. It opens with a double calendar, showing on one side the significant events day by day of last year, and on the other the sporting appointments for 1883. Then comes Part 1, with (*a*) its genealogies of reigning and princely houses, giving trees, arms, etc.; (*b*) "monographs" on the nobility of various countries, a select 'Burke's Peerage'; (*c*) the orders of chivalry; (*d*) a most convenient chapter, "Parliaments and Diets," containing the *personnel* of legislative bodies, including our own Congress; (*e*) the Cabinets of the great Powers; (*f*) the membership of the French Academy; (*g*) the grandees of Spain; (*h*) the Scotch and Irish peers not sitting in the House of Lords. Still, we are but one-third through this repository. Part 2 is devoted to an account of *cercles de société* and *cercles sportiques*, with names of officers and often of members, and all necessary particulars: of yacht and rowing clubs, with lists of boats, owners, signals, etc. Part 3 is a record of international sport, and here, amid a world of information implied in the caption, we find tables showing the winners of the principal English and Continental courses from 1862 to 1882. A somewhat meagre index closes the Almanac, which must be pronounced a prodigious undertaking, and as free from typographical errors as such a mass of names and dates can reasonably be expected to be. The inertia to be overcome in starting such a compilation can hardly be imagined; but its renewal from year to year will, of course, be comparatively easy. The 'Club-Almanach' is beautifully printed, and has three photographic portraits (at second-hand, after sketches by C. de Grimm), of the Prince of Wales, the Empress of Austria, and the Duc d'Aumale. It will take an honored place on reference shelves beside the 'Almanach de Gotha,' 'Whitaker's Almanack,' Vapereau, and 'Men of the Time,' with all of which it competes while supplementing all.

—A writer in the May number of the Chicago *Dial*, reviewing the 'Imperial Dictionary,' says: "The first dawning of pictorial illustrations as an auxiliary method of defining words that I have been able to find is in the dictionary of Thomas Blount, 1656, in which three simple cuts are introduced to illustrate certain parts of an escutcheon." It is odd that a critic who claims familiarity with one hundred and thirty dictionaries should not mention Amos Comenius, whose 'Orbis sensualium pictus, hoc est omnium fundamentalium in mundo rerum et in vita actionum pictura et nomenclatura,' was published in Nürnberg in 1657. The reviewer traces Blount's three dawning stars—borrowing some light from Locke in 1690, swelling to a constellation in Bailey's dictionary of 1726, but then eclipsed for more than a hundred years, till they shone out splendidly in more than two thousand cuts of the 'Imperial Dictionary.' But in no edition of the 'Imperial,' or any other modern dictionary, is the proportion of words illustrated by cuts so great as in the 'Orbis pictus.' That is to say, the high noon of the "dawning" was just one year after Blount.

—The haste with which plausible archæological discoveries are often accepted as demonstrated truths and further built upon, needs no special illustration. Nowhere, however, are precipitate conclusions of this kind as frequent as in the domain of Biblical inquiry, in which finds confirmatory of ancient traditions are valued as antidotes to dangerous scepticism. We remarked, in No. 925 of the *Nation*, on the delight with which Reginald Stuart Poole received M. Naville's identification of the "treasure city" Pithom with Succoth and the Heroöpolis of the classical writers, believing that the French explorer had "found the very walls on which the enslaved Hebrews worked." We added that Bible critics of a more sceptical turn of mind would at most think he had "only found walls on which the enslaved Hebrews of the story of Exodus are *related* to have worked." Miss Amelia B. Edwards—like Mr. Poole, reporting and commenting on M. Naville's identification in the *Academy*—was fully as enthusiastic about it, and subsequently, in a brief notice, in the same journal, of the second edition of J. Baker Greene's 'Hebrew Migration from Egypt,' asserted that his theory of the exodus, like others, had "perforce become in some degree obsolete since M. Naville's important discovery." To this really rash assertion Mr. Baker Greene demurred in the *Academy* of April 28, justly observing that, so far as his views respecting the exodus were concerned, Egyptologists might place the "treasure cities" on which the Israelites worked in Egypt in any part of the Delta they pleased. Miss Edwards, in the same number, politely retracted her assertion so far as it referred to Mr. Greene's theory, but defended it so far as it concerned one of his chapters, dealing with Ramses, Pithom, Succoth, etc. Mr. Greene's statement, though far from lengthy, recapitulated the main points of his general view of the Hebrew migration, including the conclusions that "the released captives . . . proceeded by the ordinary caravan route across the Desert to . . . the head of the Gulf of Akaba; that the Sinaitic peninsula was never entered by them; that the so-called Desert of the Wanderings was traversed, and was forever quitted by them, in about a week's time"; and that "Mount Hor, Har ha har—the Mount of Mounts"—in Edom, is the true Mount Sinai of the Bible.

—In our review, in No. 791 of this journal, of the first (anonymous) edition of 'The Hebrew Migration from Egypt,' we pointed out the more obvious objections to the author's theory, which he supports by destructive and reconstructive arguments of equal boldness. As to Sinai, we asked, if that was a mountain of Edom—a country reigned over by David and Solomon, passed through by Jehoshaphat and Elisha, subdued by Amaziah and again by the Hasmonæans, ruled by Herod (himself an Idumæan)—"how is it that Mount Sinai is not once mentioned in connection with one of those reigns? . . . that the prophets [whose books we have] are all silent about it? . . . that the rabbis of the Mishnah knew it only, like a myth, from Scriptural accounts? that 'all that Paul and Josephus knew about the mountain was that it was somewhere in Arabia'?" And in regard to the legendary account, as we have it in Exodus and elsewhere, we remarked: "Why was the 'Mount of God' placed so far out of any natural route which the Hebrews, coming up from Egypt, would have chosen? Probably because the Hebrews only *heard* of such a mountain; hence also the vagueness in names and locations—none of the poets and narrators had seen Sinai." We are induced to reproduce these lines partly in reference to Mr. Baker Greene's succinct reassertion of his view, and partly in order to point out the close agreement with them of some remarks by the traveller Burton, contained in the *Academy* of May 5, though entirely unconnected with the former's communication in the preceding number. Captain Burton presents some "Personal Reminiscences" of the lamented E. H. Palmer, in the course of which he mentions 'The Desert of the Exodus,' containing the account of that Orientalist's walking journeys in 1869 and 1870, and says: "He had not then learned that the so-called 'Sinai' [of the peninsula] is simply a modern forgery, dating probably after the second century A. D.; that the

Jewish nation never knew where the true 'Mountain of the Law' was; that it is differently placed by St. Paul and his contemporary Josephus, who describes it after the fashion of Sinbad the Sailor. . . ." Captain Burton adds: "Much friendly banter upon these points passed between us as often as we met in London, and finally he seemed to agree in opinion with me."

—The Archæological Institute of America held its annual meeting on May 19 in Boston. Encouraging reports were read upon its work in Mexico and Central America, and particularly upon that of the Assos Expedition, of which the labors are now drawing to a close. The latest excavations at Assos have been upon the Street of Tombs, and have revealed many unopened sarcophagi, in which have been found a number of small objects of great interest, particularly some admirable archaic terracottas and several very perfect glass vases. It was decided that the discoveries brought home from Assos should, in recognition of a generous contribution made by the Boston Art Museum to secure the purchase from Turkey of as large a portion as possible of the Assian antiquities, be placed in that institution. The recent subscription from New York, and the important accessions of New York names to the list of members, are received with especial satisfaction, as indications that the metropolis is beginning to recognize the claim of the Institute to national, not merely to sectional, support. The following members were appointed a committee to endeavor to promote the interests of the Institute in New York, and, if possible, to secure the means to send out to Cyrene, or to some other rich Greek site, a New York expedition, of which the discoveries would be preserved here, and would be a permanent honor and ornament to our city: Mr. Frederic J. de Peyster (chairman), Rev. Henry C. Potter, Prof. William M. Sloane, and Messrs. Edward F. de Lancey and Thomas W. Ludlow.

—The semi-annual meeting of the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens was held on May 19, in Cambridge. Dartmouth College, and Cornell, Michigan, Virginia, and California Universities have joined the nine colleges already pledged to support the School, of which the income during the next year will amount to $3,500. This will admit of an appropriation of $1,000 toward the increase of the excellent nucleus of a library owned already in Athens by the School; but it is desirable that contributions should be secured to render possible the supply of special needs in the library which cannot be covered by the regular appropriation. The publication of the Bulletin of the School will be begun in the autumn. At Athens the School has been received with the highest consideration, and is believed to have accomplished, during its first year, work creditable to America and to its founders. Six regular students have been in attendance during the term, and one outsider has enjoyed its privileges. Each member has pursued some definite subject of study, and will embody the results of his work in a thesis, which may be published by the Committee. Among the subjects which have thus received attention are the new inscriptions found at Assos, the Dionysiac Theatre, the works of Theokritos, with a view to an edition of them, the Erechtheion, and the Pnyx. Besides these special studies, the School has met weekly to discuss papers upon archæological subjects by the Director or by its members, and also on Friday evenings for critical study of various ancient authors. Excursions have been made on Saturdays to places of historic interest near Athens, and longer tours in Continental Greece and in the Peloponnesus have been planned for the last part of the term. Professor Lewis R. Packard, of Yale, sails in June to succeed Professor Goodwin as the second Director of the School, and there is good prospect that he will have under him at least as many students as his predecessor. It is hoped that a fund may soon be procured to provide a salary for a permanent Archæological Secretary, to reside in Athens, and to coöperate with the successive directors sent out by the united colleges. Professor M. L. D'Ooge, of Michigan University, has been elected a member of the Managing Committee.

— The director of the ethnologic section of the Berlin Royal Museums, Dr. Adolf Bastian, is now busy in giving to the world the results of his last visit to the East (1880–'81), in the shape of ethnic monographs, especially on mythology and customs connected with religious ideas. Among the latest volumes of this series is 'Inselgruppen in Oceanien' (illustrated, Berlin, 1883, 8vo, 282 pages), whose rich contents are grouped under the following headings: Tahiti, Tonga, Samoa, Melanesia (Fiji), and Micronesia; Australia, New Zealand, Hawaii. The new material gathered on these Eastern shores is so oppressively large that an adequate idea of it could be conveyed to our readers only in several pages, but of the ethnologic principles which the author follows in this volume, the most important may be briefly given. Our century, he says, is still far from being able to establish general views or principles of ethnology, for many of our recent discoveries tend to upset the ethnologic theories in vogue among scientists to-day; what we have to do is to gather as much new material as possible, critically sifted. Anthropologic science must rest on the physical basis, ethnology on the psychic basis of the human race. However, the foundation of ethnology is not the psychology of the individual man, but the psychology manifested by tribal communities, by the spirit of nations, by the genius of nationality. In psychology we have to start from the characteristics of man as modified by the society in which he lives and grows up, and from the ideas he forms concerning his surroundings; in the same manner, sociological investigations have to start, not from the family as the microcosm, but from the people or nationality. Three fundamental stages underlie the social constitution of all nations, and these the ancients have expressed as follows: *gens* (γένος), *curia* (φρατρία), *tribus* (φύλη). Our task is to discover and describe their equivalents among the nations to be investigated, and whatever in any branch of ethnic inquiry is found to be similar among nations the most unlike has to be brought side by side and compared. It will then appear that customs referring to the family were subsequently put to sociological and political uses.

—Although Vienna is a sort of German Paris, Viennese *chic* is quite a different thing from French *chic*. It is less keen, smart, and pungent, more sentimental, insinuating, and roguish than the Parisian article, which is deficient in *Gemüthlichkeit*. The difference is well illustrated by the manner in which Suppé's pretty operetta, "Boccaccio," is interpreted by Frau Geistinger and Mme. Théo, with their respective German and French companies. Frau Geistinger's *Boccaccio* is well known in New York, and was seen on the 15th inst., when she made her last appearance this season at the Thalia Theatre. Mme. Théo's *Boccaccio* was on May 16 seen for the first time at Daly's Theatre. Suppé's work differs from most French operettas in not only having an excellent plot, but also some beautiful music of enduring value. It is here that Frau Geistinger scores her first point. She has a good voice and can sing. The French seldom have good voices, and Mme. Théo is in this respect excessively French. Her voice is disagreeable not only when she sings, but even when she speaks. It requires all her personal charms to make one forgive the harsh dissonance of her high, shrill, unmodulated utterances. But these personal charms are so great, she has so much of the true Parisian *chic*, and such a sprightly way of acting, that no one can help gazing at and admiring her as long as she remains on the stage. Hitherto her principal characteristic has been a naïve, girlish frolicsomeness. As *Boccaccio* she gave an equally dainty exhibition of frolicsome boyishness. But she was not an Italian boy. The French always remain French, and this may be one of the reasons why they neglect foreign dramatic art. Of course it is true generally that the Italians can best interpret Rossini, the Germans Wagner, and the French Offenbach. But the French are the least cosmopolitan and protean of these nations, and, in the higher forms of art at least, they are much less skilful in adapting themselves to exotic conditions than the Germans, at whose opera-houses the repertory includes the art of all countries. In a work like "Boccaccio," of course, nationality is not of absolute importance. It is bright and interesting even as presented by Mr. Grau's company; but it lacks the true Viennese-Italian local color, the undertone of sentiment, the regard for musical beauty, and, above all, the command of the coquettish Viennese rhythm, which is quite *sui generis*, and even eludes the grasp of the North Germans.

LYALL'S ASIATIC STUDIES.

Asiatic Studies, Religious and Social. By Sir Alfred C. Lyall, K.C.B., C.I.E. London: John Murray. 1882.

If the impression made on the public by a book could be measured by the weightiness of its contents, 'Asiatic Studies' would be the work of the day. It is one of those rare publications which are valuable for the information which they contain, but which are even more valuable for the new lines of thought, of speculation, and of feeling which they suggest. The 'Studies' have probably not been read by one-tenth of the number of persons who, rather more than twenty years ago, devoured Mr. Buckle's loud-sounding and pretentious crudities; but while no intelligent person would probably now attribute any marked influence over his beliefs or manner of thought to the 'History of Civilization,' it may well be believed that of the limited class of persons who have studied Sir Alfred Lyall's short work, not one has been unaffected by the marvellous mass of facts and reflections which our author has crammed or packed into little more than three hundred pages.

The first and most salient characteristic of 'Asiatic Studies' is that it is a repertory of facts gathered at first hand by one who has had the rarest opportunities of observing the phenomena of a state of society as strange as it probably is transitory. Sir Alfred Lyall is a trained Anglo-Indian official, who has spent his life in the minute observation of certain provinces of the Anglo-Indian Empire. He has observed a society in which still exist forms of political, of religious, and of social life that carry us back to a state of things which, in Europe, vanished long before Rome became the mistress of the world, and in which, side by side with these survivals from primeval times, is to be seen the working of a government based on the most modern ideas of European life, and supported by all the appliances of modern civilization. Sir Alfred Lyall, in short, has lived among

races many of whom entertain religious ideas which had long been discarded by the most ignorant Romans of the age of Cicero. He has been, and is, the servant of a government which represents moral ideas, and commands physical forces, utterly unknown, and we may say incomprehensible, to the most civilized of the Greeks and Romans. Nor does the peculiarity of the position occupied by a writer and thinker such as Lyall end here. He sees Asia as Asia has been for centuries. He sees before his eyes in actual existence a society in which, as among the Jews of old, religious conceptions form the interest of life, and to the study of this Asiatic world he brings all the knowledge and all the methods of inquiry produced by centuries of European thought and progress. He has, therefore, unrivalled opportunities of noting important and interesting facts, and these opportunities he has obviously turned to the very best advantage. If every theory propounded in his book were erroneous, it would still be a storehouse of curious information about the religious and social customs of India.

But while few readers would probably admit the correctness of all Lyall's conclusions, there is no reason to suppose that his theories contain more of error than must inevitably be found in all speculations which are concerned with the most subtle and the most difficult of historical and moral problems; for if the first characteristic of 'Asiatic Studies' is that it is a storehouse of facts, its second (though to our minds less important) feature is that the details in which the book abounds are dealt with by a thinker who is thoroughly conversant with the speculations of modern historical inquirers. Hence the unpretentious essays which make up the 'Studies' have a twofold importance: they throw light on the history of the past; they afford some guidance as to the probable course of the future. The latter is the more tempting subject, as prophecy excites more interest than research; but, though on some future occasion we may recur to Sir Alfred Lyall's speculations with regard to the effect to be expected from the collision between English and Asiatic civilization, we believe that we shall best perform our duty to our readers by calling attention to the mode in which our author's observations tend to modify, or in any case to influence, current and received modes of historical speculation.

That Sir Alfred Lyall's practical experience should enable him to overset at one stroke one of those theories based by Mr. Buckle on what may fairly be called undiscriminating literary credulity, is not in itself a matter of great surprise, though certainly the author of the 'History of Civilization' fell into a conspicuous blunder when he asserted that deification forms no part of ancient Indian religion, and went on to assert that deification of human beings could not be "expected" to exist "in a tropical civilization, where the aspects of nature filled man with a constant sense of his own incapacity." This unfortunate dogma proves that Mr. Buckle's "expectations" fell a good deal short of a measure of reality, for a "very remarkable and still flourishing offshoot of Buddhism, the Jaina faith, . . . is nothing else but the worship of deified men, and the deification of men is universally characteristic of the cults of the wild non-Aryan tribes in India." What is noteworthy is, that experience of Asiatic life leads Sir Alfred Lyall into something like conflict with two different doctrines, represented, at any rate to the English and American world, by the names of George Grote and of Max Müller.

The fact which leads Sir Alfred Lyall to question the absolute validity of the different theories propounded by these two eminent writers is, that he has observed the deification of human beings to form an essential and living part of modern Indian polytheism.

"The Bunjâras," he writes, "a tribe much addicted to highway robbery, worship a famous bandit, who probably lived and died in some notorious way. Any renowned soldier would certainly be worshipped after death, if his tomb were well known and accessible. M. Raymond, the French commander who died at Hyderabad, has been there canonized after a fashion; General Nicholson, who died in the storming of Delhi, 1857, was adored as a hero in his lifetime, in spite of his violent persecution of his own devotees; and there are other known instances of the commemoration of Europeans who have been feared or loved. Nor do I make out that the origin and conception of those local deities are at first connected with the Brahmanic doctrines by the unlettered and unsophisticated crowd who set up these shrines at their own pleasure. The immediate motive is nothing but a vague inference from great natural gifts, or from strange fortunes, or from power during life, to power prolonged beyond it; though when a shrine becomes popular the Brahmans take care to give its origin an orthodox interpretation."

The inference based by Lyall on this fact, and others like it, is that there lies much more truth than is now commonly supposed in the theories of Euhemerus, an Asiatic traveller of classical times, who explained all mythology as being a process of deification or hero-worship, and represented both gods and heroes as having been earth-born men superior to the ordinary level in respect of force or capacity, and deified after death as a recompense for services or striking exploits. Now, this theory of Euhemerus, though applied by its author in a loose and presumptuous manner, seems to Lyall to describe "very nearly the conclusions which would be drawn from looking narrowly at the process of the generation of gods in India in the present day; and if there be ground for supposing that this process has been going on more or less in India for thousands of years, the effect is worth considering." Nor, if Lyall's view be correct, is it possible to escape from a conclusion which he rather suggests than explicitly draws out. A great deal of myth and legend must, it would seem, have a considerable basis of real fact; and the true question for a scientific historian is how far it be possible to disentangle the truth on which legend is based from the mythical fiction under which that truth is hidden. Here it is that Lyall comes to a certain extent into conflict with Grote.

"To suppose," writes the historian of Greece, "that these religious legends are mere exaggerations of some basis of actual fact—that the gods of polytheism were merely divinized men, with qualities distorted or feigned—would be to embrace in substance the theory of Euhemerus"; and to embrace the theory of Euhemerus means undoubtedly, with Grote, the same thing as falling into unpardonable error. Here, then, we have certainly something like a conflict between Lyall's Asiatic experience and the results of Grote's historical studies; and we do not think that any one who has fairly reflected on the contents of Sir Alfred Lyall's work will ever be able to share with confidence Grote's obvious feeling that mythology has little or no connection with history. Still, we have purposely used the expression "something like a conflict," for the necessary opposition between Lyall's knowledge and Grote's theories is less than the reader might at first sight suppose. "Grote did not deny," as Lyall himself points out, "that myths taken in a mass contain real matter of fact. He only said that in any particular myth you cannot distinguish fact from fiction." You may, on Grote's view, think it more than probable that Hercules was a man who performed some extraordinary exploits, but you can no more tell what were the real exploits he performed than you could reconstruct Scottish history from fragments of the "Lay of the Last Minstrel" or of the "Lady of the Lake." We do not much doubt that, to a certain extent, Lyall and Grote do disagree as to the possibility of extracting history from legend, but on the point which Lyall discusses there is no direct disagreement between them. The Anglo-Indian official says "many legends are grounded upon fact"; the historian of Greece retorts in effect, "when once fact has become embedded in legend, you cannot separate truth from falsehood." It is quite possible for a sensible man to agree with both statements. An impartial inquirer will be anxious to learn whether Sir Alfred Lyall's experience can tell us anything about the trustworthiness of oral tradition, and also about the relation between undoubted historical events and the myths (if any) to which they have given rise. On this all-important topic 'Asiatic Studies' tells us nothing. We commend it most earnestly to the author's attention.

Sir Alfred Lyall's leaning toward rational Euhemerism brings him into far more direct antagonism with Max Müller than with Grote. The plain truth is, that the comparative mythologists attempt to trace all the figures and narratives of mythology to personifications of the worship of inanimate nature. As you read their speculations, you are almost forced to the conclusion that in early ages men thought about the sun, the moon, the stars, the clouds, and thought about nothing else. To such a view of prehistoric man Lyall's whole Asiatic experience is opposed. Here it would seem that common sense and special experience go hand in hand. Believe as you may in the great sun myth, it is quite impossible to imagine that the rising and setting of the sun was at any period of the world's annals the only matter which occupied the mind of man. Men and women must always have been of interest to their kind. When investigation into the lowest form of polytheism shows that in matter of fact nothing impresses human imagination so forcibly as human actions, we may venture to dismiss the idea that all legends, myths, or traditions may ultimately be resolved into stories about the day and night. But it is one of Lyall's great merits as a thinker that he does not overpress his own views. "The main objection," he writes, to the theory of Euhemerus, as to the theory opposed to it,

"seems to be that its author insists upon an exclusive monopoly of the whole province of myths, that it leaves no room for the other; that because it does explain a part of mythology it has been applied to the whole; that it endeavors to explain not only mythology in one phase or of one period, but the whole course of its evolution into actual polytheism. Upon this subject the comparative method and philology have thrown a flood of light. Nevertheless, the high authorities who appear to assign to the whole family of divine Aryan myths their birthplace in personifications of inanimate nature, may be unaware of the quantity and weight of evidence that an Euhemerist could, even in these days, produce on his side."

This sentence applies far beyond its immediate scope; it touches the root of the whole matter. The master error of theorists in mythology, as elsewhere, is to seek for a cause when they should look for causes, and to fancy that theories which are logically coherent are suited to explain the complexity and variety of nature. If Sir Alfred Lyall's investigations into the Asiatic tendency toward the deification of distinguished men had simply corrected the excesses of received historical theories, these investigations would have had great value; but they in fact lead to much more than mere negative results. They go a great way toward explaining some of the most curious phenomena of ancient history. There is nothing, for instance,

more perplexing to modern students than to account for, or even to imagine, the state of belief under which the Roman emperors received divine honors. Every page of Sir Alfred Lyall's work is a picture of a society in which the deification not only of a ruler but of any eminent person is the natural outcome of popular feeling. He does not conceal the conviction that the British Government might, if it chose, easily become an object of worship throughout India. Even as it is, the Administration, if it does not receive divine honors, incurs something like providential responsibilities. Cholera, famine, and great sea inundations bring the Government great discredit, because of a dim feeling that "the Government has undertaken the gods' business, and is breaking down. . . . The multifarious functions assumed by a modern administration . . . lay it open to every kind of imputation against its wisdom and its benevolence. It is like a great divinity in whom are absorbed and concentrated a great number of attributes."

The tendency to deification may, again, be looked at from another point of view. From time to time, or rather (if we understand Sir Alfred Lyall rightly) very frequently, there arise spiritual teachers who denounce the gross errors of the prevailing creed; but the reformer himself becomes entangled in the gross materialism of the people. "No spiritual teacher of mark can evade being reckoned a god (or a visible embodiment of divine power) by the outer ring of his disciples, and an atheist or blasphemer by his enemies; he may disown and denounce, but the surrounding atmosphere is too strong for him." If his teaching succeeds, the prophet's foes, no less than his friends, insist on regarding him as a manifestation of Power and paying him worship. "When he dies, he is canonized, and may fall into the grip of the Brahmans after all, and be turned into the embodiment of a god." In what light he may appear to his own future disciples is quite uncertain. There is a sect in India which worships Krishna as an incarnation of Vishnu. "By the outer disciples he is certainly held to be himself an embodiment of Vishnu, but the initiated still know him to have been a spiritualist who scorned gods and Brahmans."

As we read these and similar passages, we can well agree with Lyall that at a time when pagan tribes and communities pressed into the Church, nothing but a supreme ecclesiastical authority saved Christianity from falling back into a sort of polytheism. This is one, but it is certainly not the only, inference suggested by the phenomena of Asiatic polytheism. From whatever side the student looks at India, he is again and again reminded of the curious points of similarity between the state of India in the nineteenth century, and the condition of the whole civilized world during the ages which witnessed the rise of Christianity under the rule of law maintained by the Roman Empire.

SIMCOX'S HISTORY OF LATIN LITERATURE.

A History of Latin Literature, from Ennius to Boethius. By George Augustus Simcox, M.A., Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford. 2 vols. Harper & Bros. 1883.

If Mr. Simcox's volumes shall fail to make Latin literature intelligible and attractive to the "cultivated laity" for whom he professes to have written, it will be partly because he has been too faithful to the theory contained in his first sentence: "An ideal history of anything would tend to be a history of everything." Certainly, for the general reader, the value of the work is greatly impaired by its discursiveness and emphasis of irrelevant matter. Again and again we seem to be reading essays on disputed points in Roman history, or sections of a work on heathen philosophy, rather than just so much of a historical setting as is necessary for understanding the authors and their writings. Among many other chapters, those on Cicero, Livy, Juvenal, and Persius will illustrate this point. The remarks on side issues are often very interesting and acute; but they have so little pertinence to the subject-matter that Mr. Simcox's judgment of Sallust must often be applied to himself: "The main subject is a peg to hang disquisitions and portraits upon."

It is always a question where such a history shall end. If the history of Latin literature means the history of those who have written in Latin, then the list must be added to with each generation of Latin scholarship. It is not apparent why Mr. Simcox closes with the unsavory verses of Maximianus of the sixth century. From the reign of the Antonines to the reign of the Ostrogoths, what is left in Latin of the Church fathers, poets, grammarians, and historians has great worth for here and there a specialist, but from the point of view of literature it is, in the main, dreary and artificial. More than once in his last two hundred pages Mr. Simcox congratulates his readers on the loss of portions of his characters, who are mostly forgotten because they do not deserve to be remembered. The ends of the history would have been better served if the last twelve chapters had been epitomized in a general view of the ages of bronze and iron and driftwood.

On the other hand, the account of the earliest writers in Latin is altogether too meagre. The fragments themselves are so numerous, and the researches of scholars have been so rich in results and suggestions, that more ought to have been done to gratify the present disposition to go back to the beginnings of things. The pre-Ennian writers are altogether too important to be so summarily disposed of; nor is the treatment of the Saturnian verse and of other varieties of the earlier vernacular expression at all adequate. The chapter on Ennius is sketchy and vague. Even if a historian of Latin literature may "wonder in what sense Ennius is a poet at all," he has no right to ignore the grandly patriotic vein which runs like a thread of gold through the fragments, nor his peculiar—often happy, and sometimes grotesque—experiments in rhythm and diction, nor the pervasive influence which he had on the development of the Latin language and the Roman literature. Mr. Simcox nowhere shows that he appreciates the far-reaching effects of the adoption into Latin of the dactylic hexameter, or the subtle and reciprocal influences of thought and form. Lucilius, too, deserves much fuller recognition. From the few pages given to this Campanian knight, no one would gather that, of all Latin writers, he alone enriched the world's literature with a new form, by raising to an independent department of letters what in previous writers had been incidental or subordinate. As satire—both the name and the thing—comes to us from Rome, and is a prominent and unique feature in Latin literature, we are surprised not to find in this history any clear statement of its essential characteristics.

Nearly everywhere in the book we have noticed a strange want of proportion. Thus, more space is given to the musty and pretentious declaimers in the elder Seneca than to Varro, Quintilian, Cicero's letters, and Aulus Gellius combined, while Quintus Curtius, Celsus, and Ampelius are utterly ignored. There are special literary or linguistic reasons for a somewhat full presentation of all these writers, while Seneca's complaint that no quotation could do justice to his characters suggests the peril of a modern attempt to galvanize them into interest or importance. We have been interested in the treatment of many out-of-the-way authors, as Calpurnius, Manilius, Statius, Petronius; the pages on Fronto are exceptionally attractive and fresh; but the glory of Latin literature is not with such names, and it was a mistake to champion them so generously, if thereby far more important and representative writers have been slighted.

A like disproportion appears in the notices of many writers. Thus, twenty pages are given to the philosophy of Lucretius, but not as many lines to his poetry—except on its purely mechanical side. Here and there a "cultivated layman" goes through the arid reaches of the argument of Lucretius: very many readers would gladly know more than they can here find of this great writer's wonderful freshness of feeling and expression, his many bursts of the highest poetry. Of the forty pages given to Cicero, a large part is taken up with a somewhat rambling essay on Roman history, and with such fruitless guesses as why Cicero exchanged Terentia for Publilia, and why Hortensius refused to plead for Verres; ten pages consider Cicero as an interpreter of Greek philosophy; less than a third of a page is given to his letters—certainly a serious blunder.

Another peculiarity of the history is its concreteness of treatment. Here and there, as in the cases of Catullus and Vergil, it is possible to carry away from Mr. Simcox's sketches a tolerably clear and comprehensive idea of the authors and their writings; more frequently there is a series of minute and detached views, selected without apparent principle, and put together without much symmetry or coherence. If the reader is already familiar with, *e. g.*, Plautus, Ovid, Martial, and Persius, what is said under those names may serve as an excellent review, and be very stimulating; for one who is trying to learn the significance and rank of these writers, the account is so taken up with fragmentary details and so lacking in perspective and *ensemble*, that much of it must be tantalizing and unintelligible. The chapter on pre-Ciceronian oratory is learned and interesting; but we are served with running comments on bits of lost speeches, instead of a clear statement of the sources and qualities of Roman oratory. We must regret that the rare opportunity was not improved of tracing the rise and development of oratory at Rome, first, as a national product, and then as modified by Greek influences.

As Mr. Simcox has passed in review a vast number of writers, representing nearly every variety of thought and style through eight centuries, his judgment will naturally be challenged at many points. He gives evidence of intimate study of his characters and of the discussions to which they have given rise, and the tone almost everywhere is candid and judicial. The translations (of which we have too few) are vigorous and racy. The best part of the whole work seems to us the account of the writers, particularly the poets, of the Augustan age. We have greatly enjoyed the hearty recognition and sympathetic analysis of Vergil's abiding excellences, though here, too, there is great discursiveness and an ambition to develop literary parallels. Under Ovid, it is a mistake in taste to give such prominence to his erotic poetry, nor can those who do not already know the scope and charm of the 'Metamorphoses' be more than languidly interested in the dozen pages which are given to a minute account of parts of a few legends.

The long chapter on Tacitus is a painful surprise. If Mr. Simcox is correct, Tacitus has none of the historian's essential qualities; he

"takes a sort of malicious pleasure" in telling the story of his country's shame; his style is "a systematic exaggerated mannerism"; the 'Annals' are "a masterpiece of detraction"! The editor does not go the lengths of Mr. Beesly in trying to reverse the verdict of history in regard to Tiberius, but he does fall into the common injustice of not keeping distinct the statements of Tacitus as a historian and his reflections as a man and patriot. Nor is there any sign that he appreciates the genuine pathos and unrivalled dramatic power and picturesqueness of the 'Annals,' or that marvellous style which puts Tacitus apart from all who have ever written in Latin. It is a relief to turn from Simcox to Macaulay, who calls the 'Annals' "a miracle of art," and says of the account of Tiberius: "The task was one of extreme difficulty; the execution is almost perfect." (By what slip, by the way, in the introductory chapter, is Tacitus called a Spaniard?)

There is a like disposition to belittle the younger Pliny. It is sheer assumption to say that Pliny was "only a quasi-success as an orator." If this is proved by the loss of his speeches, as Mr. Simcox implies, then Rome had no orator but Cicero. Elsewhere it is said that Tacitus "ranked among the first orators of the day" because the Senate chose him to conduct the prosecution against Marius: but Tacitus and Pliny were jointly chosen. Certainly dogmatism is out of place, in view of the important cases on which we know that Pliny was retained, and the references to his oratory as late as the sixth century. Quintilian (spelled Quinctilian throughout the book) has less than four pages, and the tone toward him is depreciatory and patronizing. Not to speak of the practical character of his great work, in a history of Latin literature we ask for an ampler notice of this chief of the conservative or neo-classical school of style, and calm judge of the literatures of Greece and Rome. Against all probability, it is assumed that the man for whose daughter Pliny gave a marriage portion was Quintilian, the rhetorician.

But we have not the space to continue our objections to Mr. Simcox's treatment of individual writers. If, from the details of this history, we try to look at the literature of Rome as a development or organic unity, the result is unsatisfactory. We miss any proper appreciation of such important modifying influences as the introduction of Greek learning and letters, the Scipionic circle, the adoption of foreign forms of verse, the "recitationes" of Pollio and his imitators, the patronage of some emperors and the repression of others, the great political and social changes through which Rome was constantly passing. We must consider it a serious mistake, too, that Mr. Simcox pays so little attention to the Latin language, either to its essential, distinguishing features, or to its success in naturalizing alien modes of expression and becoming the vehicle of new ideas and emotions, or to its steady transformation from age to age in texture and genius.

The history of Roman literature has received such close and successful attention in the last few years that the credentials of any new-comer are sure to be closely scanned. Not to speak of labors on single authors and periods—like Mr. Sellar's masterly volumes on Vergil and the poets of the Republic—Mr. Cruttwell, with rare candor of judgment and in a style of great clearness and freshness, has furnished the general reader with an admirable picture of the literature in its essence and in its relations to the language and events. Wagner's faithful translation has brought to the reach of English readers the succinct presentation of historical and personal factors, the vigorous and impartial criticisms of individual authors, and the bibliographical wealth of Teuffel's monumental work. Mr. Simcox's object is different from that of either of these, but he does not seem to us, in plan or in execution, to have clearly apprehended, much less to have occupied, the middle ground between the two.

Thomas Jefferson. By John T. Morse, jr. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE constitutional history of the United States has yet to be written. What is generally understood by that term is the history of the formation and adoption of the Constitution. The later histories are for the most part mere chronicles of events. What has been the part of this country in the development of the great principles of popular government which are as much a characteristic of the nineteenth century as the applications of physical science, and which in Europe have been studied by the ablest writers, remains a subject almost untouched except so far as Europeans like De Tocqueville, and in a much inferior degree Von Holst, have directed their attention to it. These biographies of "American Statesmen" are furnishing, however, the materials for such a study, and, better still, making this study attractive. More readable books than the editor's Adams and Jefferson we have seldom taken up. In vigor of style, selection and arrangement of details, and unity of narrative there is little left to be desired. In comparison with the common run of biographies, the subject stands out like a portrait by a master beside a colored photograph.

It is a curious and most dramatic circumstance, that two men of the first intellectual rank should have appeared at the outset of the Government representing such diametrically opposite principles as Jefferson and Hamilton. It can never be sufficiently regretted that the latter did not, like the former, live to maintain to the end his side of the contrast. Both men had, moreover, the defects of their qualities. Hamilton was an organizer, and we remember hearing one of the older generation of senators say not long since in Washington that the whole machinery of the Government administration was running to-day upon the impulse given to it by Hamilton. But, like most organizers, Hamilton had but slight respect for the multitude. He believed in an aristocracy, at least of intellect and social position, carrying on the Government for the benefit of the people, indeed, but with the minimum of intervention on their part. Jefferson, on the other hand, was no administrator at all. The only considerable measure accomplished by him was the purchase of Louisiana, which was a single bargain, conducted with the keen instinct of a trader, and that too with an avowed renunciation of the constitutional principles for which he had most steadfastly contended. Whenever a political crisis occurred, we find him getting into a state of disgust, and anxious to get away to his farm; and during the last three months of his Presidency, according to Mr. Morse, at a time when action was most necessary, he allowed matters to drift, so that the responsibility might fall upon his successor.

He had, however, an abiding faith in the people, not as a demagogue and hypocrite, combining contempt for popular ignorance and passion with skill in flattering them for his own purposes, but honestly believing in his theories of government and society. This is a quality which we are inclined to rate much more highly than Mr. Morse, who, while he states it very fairly, has apparently not much sympathy with it. It does not follow because the mass of the people are poor that they are any more ignorant, at least of right and wrong, than their so called betters, or that they are any more selfish or swayed by prejudice and passion. We think instances are not wanting in the recent history of this country and Great Britain, and even of France, in which the popular voice has served as a distinctly controlling element in the direction of right. Reliance upon the people fails only when they are looked to for that which they cannot possibly do. It is here that our quarrel with Jefferson begins, as one of the most fatal influences in our history. His natural tendencies were increased on the one hand by a residence in France during the early years of the Revolution, and by a stay in England with Mr. Adams in 1786, when the English temper, never too conciliatory, was in full bitterness toward our countrymen. The result is stated by Mr. Morse in strong terms: "He was a radical even among radicals, and a democrat of the extreme class. He could hardly bring himself to declare that the people should govern, because he had a lurking notion that there should be no government at all. 'The rights of man,' the favorite slang phrase of the day, signified to his mind an almost entire absence of governmental control." He gives Jefferson himself as authority: "Were it left to me to decide whether we should have a government without newspapers, or newspapers without a government, I should not hesitate a moment to prefer the latter." And again, "I am convinced that those societies (as the Indians) which live without government enjoy, in their general mass, an infinitely greater degree of happiness than those who live under European Governments."

Mark, now, the practical consequences of these theories, which we can best give in the words of Mr. Morse:

"At last the Republicans had become thoroughly consolidated, and now, cheered by the spectacle presented by their discordant adversaries, they were united, enthusiastic, and confident. It had taken time for discipline and organization to become perfectly established throughout their masses, more especially because the labor had fallen almost exclusively upon one man; for Jefferson had been obliged to assume the task with very little assistance. At last, however, by tactics and policy, intangible and indescribable, but wonderfully efficient, the immense multitude which constituted the Republican raw material had been moulded into an irresistible array; and he who had done this feat still justly enjoys the reputation of being the ablest political leader who has ever lived in this country. The secret of Jefferson's control of the ignorant populace was undoubtedly his honest faith in them. They instinctively felt that his profession of belief in the lower two-thirds of the community was genuine; in return, they gave gratitude and confidence, and for years patiently submitted to the drill which he conducted with admirable temper and untiring perseverance. Thus he had now at length made them an invincible body, accomplishing in politics with the voters of the United States very much the same thing that Napoleon was doing in military matters with the untutored militia of France, inspiring them with the irresistible spirit of victory."

We venture to complete the picture by one more extract:

"In any matters of substantial importance there was very little more real democracy under the sway of the Democrats than there had been under that of the Federalists. The democrat Jefferson enjoyed and exercised a personal authority infinitely greater than had been wielded by the 'monocrat' Adams. Indeed, even to this day, no President since Washington has ever been able to dictate to Congress as Jefferson could do, and, upon sufficient occasion, actually did. No President since Washington has ever led the people in such unquestioning obedience. But these facts were not clearly recognized at the time. Congress did not appreciate that it was receiving orders; the people had not the slightest notion that they were being guided; for Jefferson never used the accent of command or assumed the bearing of a leader. . . . It

is a singular circumstance that the body which has chosen to declare itself the guardian of democratic principles has always from the outset been peculiarly prone to fall beneath the dictation of a single individual. No leader among the Federalists, the Whigs, or the Republicans (the present party of that name) has ever had a personal supremacy equal to that of Jefferson or that of Andrew Jackson."

Thus it appears that the no-government theories ended in a very near approach to paternal despotism. History contains no more important political lesson for the United States. It involves two propositions: first, that the "no-government" theory is nonsense, and that there is no political organization which needs, and is certain sooner or later to have, strong government more than a popular republic, because nowhere do more powerful and conflicting interests require to be compelled to keep the peace; and, secondly, that the strength of popular support can never be effectively secured for abstract questions which the people do not understand and about which they cannot agree, but can always be aroused and wrought to a high pitch of enthusiasm by individual personality. It is, however, Jefferson's theory rather than his practice which has laid hold of the country. "A government of laws, and not of men," is the pet phrase of the platforms. The tendency of all the State constitutions has been to steady disintegration, and if the process has not reached the Federal Constitution, it is because that instrument is less easily dealt with. Not merely politicians, but the most respectable part of the community, are enamored of government by legislatures, standing committees, and commissions, evolving by majorities and minorities laws which carry no sanction but their own, and from which all personality is jealously excluded. It has come to be considered a sort of disgrace for a man to seek public office on the ground of his personal merit. And then, while the public interest in politics and the quality of public men are steadily declining, if any able demagogue appeals to the first principles of human nature and attracts a following among the multitude hungering and thirsting for hero-worship—preferably good, but at any rate of some kind—we encounter gloomy shakings of the head, lamentations over the ignorance of the multitude and the dangers of universal suffrage.

The strength of the English Government, that which distinguishes it from all others which have ever existed, lies in this, that it places immense power in the hands of individuals, and then, placing those individuals in the strong light which was formerly said "to beat upon the throne," leaves it to the suffrage of the nation to say whether those individuals shall be continued in power or be replaced by others.

Autobiography of Erastus O. Haven, D.D., LL.D., one of the Bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church. Edited by Rev. C. C. Stratton, D.D. Phillips & Hunt. 1883.

The Life of Gilbert Haven, Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church. By George Prentice, D.D. Same publishers.

THERE were so many parallelisms in the lives of Erastus O. and Gilbert Haven that the simultaneous appearance of their memoirs is such an epilogue as one might naturally expect. They were cousins, and the difference in their ages was not great. Erastus was born in Boston, November 1, 1820; Gilbert in Malden, Mass., September 19, 1821. Both of them were in turn teachers, preachers, editors, bishops. They were students of the same university—the Wesleyan—in Middletown, Conn.; they taught in the same seminary, at Amenia, in Dutchess Co., N. Y., Gilbert succeeding Erastus as principal of this modest seat of learning, and later in life succeeding him as editor of *Zion's Herald*. They were busy, earnest men, Gilbert the coarser-grained and the more pushing and ambitious of the two. They had great faith in education, great interest in educational projects, and they apparently did much to elevate the standard of education in the Methodist Church. But from neither of them do we get the impression of a well-educated man. In neither were there any refinements of culture. They were rough men for rough work, capable of various sacrifices and of surprising industry. They loved each other well—so well that when, in 1872, they were rival candidates for the bishopric, and Gilbert was elected by a small plurality, if there were any heart-burnings they have left no sign in either biography. The contest was a heated one. The political methods of the canvass then in progress in the country were introduced into the General Conference. Erastus was not made a bishop till a few months before his death in 1881. Strangely enough, the day of his death is not given.

The memoir of the elder cousin is mainly autobiographical. We are led by the gentlemen who edit and continue it to expect a humorous narrative. The humor of the writer is much insisted on, but it does not appear. Instead, we have—and the same is true of Gilbert—a plentiful jocosity and a flow of animal spirits that is not easily checked. After teaching and superintending at Amenia, Erastus entered on the work of preaching, from which he withdrew in 1853 to become Professor of Latin in Michigan University, then in a weak and struggling condition. His next employment was in Boston, where he was editor of *Zion's Herald*. Returning to Michigan, he assumed the presidency of the University, and finally succeeded in initiating that financial relation of the University to the State which has since been productive of the best results. A full account of his presidency by Prof. Winchell gives a much better notion of the trials of his position, and his way of meeting them, than his own briefer mention, which, however, is not lacking in frankness or in self-respect. As if the Methodist must be an itinerant, whatever his occupation, we find Mr. Haven successively President of the Northwestern University, Secretary of the Methodist Board of Education, and Chancellor of the University of Syracuse. In 1880 he attained to the Bishop's office, which in 1872 and 1876 he had desired in vain. He entered on his work with characteristic energy, but died in the first flush of his enjoyment of his new position.

The 'Life of Gilbert Haven' is written in a swift and easy style. It duly sets forth his birth and parentage, his early training, his fluctuations between business and study, his education at Wilbraham and the Wesleyan University, his teaching at Amenia, his preaching at Northampton, Wilbraham, Westfield, Roxbury, and Cambridgeport, his love and sorrow, his chaplaincy of Benjamin Butler's regiment, etc., etc. The liveliest episode in his career was his editorship of *Zion's Herald*. He always had a chip upon his shoulder, and had a special predilection for stirring up the Boston Unitarians by parading the heresies of their more radical men. He had a much larger stock of *odium theologicum* than his cousin, who was remarkable for his liberality. His editorial success was such as to bring him invitations to edit various papers; he succeeded in making a bright, scrappy, noisy, belligerent paper. In a chapter on his "Literary Career," his biographer is singularly frank and just. The chapter begins: "The first thing to be said about Gilbert Haven as a literary man is, that he never properly was one." "Some obvious faults in writing adhered to Mr. Haven throughout his entire life. Nobody had to read far to come upon errors too palpable to be defended, and negligence too gross to be excused." It was not alone the form of his writing that was hasty and ill considered: the substance was equally so. He objected to the positive and comparative degrees; he was nothing if not superlative. "If the Book of God," he said, "is the Book of God, it must be personally, directly, exclusively his book, his idea, and his expression; his in its minutest word, his in its perfect totality." He was a voracious reader, and a lover of good books. He called Emerson and Grant the two greatest men in America. Bishop Haven's admiration of Grant was boundless. He was an ardent politician, a Stalwart of the Stalwarts, and regarded the nomination of Grant for a third term as a proper subject for denominational prayer. But he was an abolitionist before he was a Stalwart. Indeed, these volumes are in no respect more creditable to the cousins Haven than in the matter of their anti-slavery thoughts and feeling. When the Methodist Church was least disposed to deal courageously with the question of slavery, these did not bow the knee to Baal. They were abolitionists in the grain. A pleasing story is told of Gilbert's boyish indignation at his teacher's treatment of a colored workhouse child. It was the keynote of his lifelong humanity. A chapter called "Mary in Heaven" is made up largely of passages from his journal relating to his wife, too early lost. The biographer proceeds to analyze these passages, and to argue that they are much superior to certain famous literary portraitures of grief. His success is easy, but the argument is a jarring note. Gilbert Haven died January 3, 1883, thanking God with his dying breath that Don Cameron was the chairman of the National Republican Committee, for that, he thought, meant Grant's renomination.

Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle. Prepared for publication by Thomas Carlyle. Edited by J. A. Froude. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883. The same. Harper & Brothers.

THE publication of Mrs. Carlyle's correspondence has once more drawn attention to the relations between Carlyle and his wife, and throws them into very vivid relief. We knew already, from the previous Carlyle publications, that she married from ambition, rather than love; that the great disparity between the pair in birth, breeding, and early associations made the match an ill-assorted one; that Carlyle treated his gentle and delicate wife in the way that he had been accustomed to see wives used in the class in life in which he had been brought up; that he was, besides this, so engrossed with himself, his work, his ambition, his struggles, that he had little or no consideration to spare for the feelings of anybody else, and consequently was entirely unaware, as long as her life lasted, that he was neglecting his wife, or falling short of his duties as a husband in any respect. We learn from these letters, for the first time, that at one period he caused her many an acute pang of jealousy by finding time to devote to Lady Ashburton, when he had none for her. They are unquestionably "mighty interesting" reading. They are a great deal more entertaining than most of Carlyle's, and they are excellent specimens of that kind of intimate correspondence in which women excel, while the picture of domestic life which they give is so full of minute detail that nothing is left to inference or the imagination. When we have closed the book we feel that we know the Carlyles as if we had lived with them. We know not only what they said, thought,

hoped, and desired, but what they ate and drank, and how it agreed with them; what money they had, and how they used it; who were their friends, and what they spoke of them behind their backs; what were their bodily ailments, and what medicines they took to cure them; what servants they had, and how they managed them; and even how much trouble Mrs. Carlyle had in ridding her house of vermin. The interest in such matters as these can hardly be called strictly literary, but it is no doubt universal.

The book suggests, however, a question of literary ethics which is, in these days, of considerable interest, and that is, how far such posthumous publications can be justified. Mr. Froude replies to all questions by reminding the reader that Carlyle himself designed the letters to be published. But this only removes the difficulty one step. What right had Carlyle himself to form any such design, or Mr. Froude, when he found what the correspondence was, to publish it? Surely there are circumstances under which the most devoted literary trustee may throw up his trust, and one of them must be when its execution is certain to bring discredit and odium upon the reputation intrusted to his care, and to withdraw the veil of privacy from matters which ought to be sacred from every eye.

Mr. Froude's function seems, in fact, to be to burlesque the literary executor. His first publication, intended to magnify Carlyle's reputation as a philosopher and writer, very nearly destroyed it. This one, designed by a husband as a memorial and loving tribute to his wife, confirms the impression produced by the first, that he was a neglectful and selfish husband. But, more than this, the Carlyle publications, taken altogether, are a sort of *reductio ad absurdum* of a theory of the relation between literature and life and character, on which so much modern literary biography seems to be based—that the more you know about the private life of an author the better. The public may always be relied upon to do what it can to foster the growth of this theory in a practical way, and criticism cannot refuse to pass upon questions directly proposed to it; but it is certainly a very poor theory for the literary executor to act upon, and one, moreover, which must in nine cases out of ten turn the attention of the public away from the purely literary questions presented by the career, and for the time being rivet it upon its deflections from commonly received moral and social standards. The old theory of a literary executorship was to present as pleasing a picture of the subject as was consistent with a regard for truth; and no doubt truth often suffered in the attempt. But it was at least less productive of scandal and general dissatisfaction than the opposite theory seems likely to be.

James Nasmyth, Engineer: an Autobiography. Edited by Samuel Smiles. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1883. Pp. xvii.–461. 12mo.

In one important sense James Nasmyth differs from the most of Dr. Smiles's heroes, in that he was not a self-made man. His success in life was in large part owing to his father's influence and careful training, and the stimulating mental atmosphere in which his boyhood was passed. His father, Alexander Nasmyth, was an artist by profession, of such merit that Sir David Wilkie said of him that "he was the founder of the landscape-painting school of Scotland." In addition to this, he was an architect and mechanical engineer of no mean ability. The "bow-and-string" bridge, for instance, now used in spanning large spaces, was his invention. Of an old Edinburgh family, his varied talents and genial manners won him an entrance into that brilliant circle which made Edinburgh famous in the first part of the century. His strongest ties, however, were not with Scott and Jeffrey, though he was the intimate friend of Burns, but with Sir David Brewster and Professor Leslie. Among the pleasantest reminiscences of the author's childhood are the rambles about Edinburgh of these friends, in which he was often permitted to be their companion. The most of Alexander's children followed his profession, and his oldest son, Patrick, attained a high rank as an artist. James, the youngest, while inheriting a talent for drawing, which the illustrations in this volume show to have been very considerable, developed early a strong bent toward mechanical and scientific pursuits. In these he received every encouragement from his father. "When the weather was ungenial," says the son, "he took refuge among his lathes and tools, and then I followed and watched him. He took the greatest pleasure in instructing me. Even in the most humble mechanical job, he was sure to direct my attention to the action of the tools and to the construction of the work he had in hand, and pointed out the manipulative processes requisite for its being effectually carried out. My hearty zeal in assisting him was well rewarded by his implanting in my mind the great fundamental principles on which the practice of engineering in its grandest forms is based." Besides this, "he taught me to sketch with exactness every object, whether natural or artificial, so as to enable the hand to accurately reproduce what the eye has seen."

While it is plain from this that the lad had advantages far greater than most now enjoy even in the technical schools, yet it would be a mistake to suppose that to these alone he owed his future success. Not only did he avail himself to the utmost of his father's aid, but from a child he eagerly sought every opportunity to gain a practical knowledge of his favorite pursuits. His inventive genius, as well as what he terms his "faculty of resourcefulness," also received constant stimulus from a rule which he made when a boy of thirteen. He and a schoolfellow were then interested in chemistry, and the rule was "that, so far as was possible, we ourselves should actually *make* the acids and other substances used in our experiments." So rigidly was this principle carried out, that a few years later he turned his bedroom into a brass-foundry, to make the castings for steam-engine models. So when, in middle age, he began to give his attention exclusively to astronomy, he preferred to construct his own telescope, even to the casting of the speculum, though there was then no lack of means to buy what he needed. From the first, too, he spared no pains to perfect whatever work he undertook. The spinning-tops with the turning of which he began, when nine years old, his apprentice-life, reached the highest point of excellence, in that they would "sleep" when at full speed.

Mr. Nasmyth's story from this point up to the time of commencing business on his own account in Manchester, as a maker of machine tools and mechanical engineer, has a special value for every young mechanic ambitious of becoming a master workman. It would be doing a service to our mechanical industries, we are convinced, if this part of the book could be published separately to bring it within the reach of this class of workmen. He is able to make even the unscientific reader's breast glow with pleasure as one difficulty after another is overcome and success is reached, not by "streaks of luck," but by patient, hard labor and undivided attention to his task. A "workingman's library," composed of books like this, would go far in many cases toward neutralizing the evil effects of the bad literature circulated among the young. We are not able to trace Mr. Nasmyth's career from the workshop of Henry Maudsley in London to the cottage in Kent where he is spending the last years of a busy life in astronomical pursuits. Nor have we the space to tell the story of the invention of the steam-hammer by which he is best known to the world, though it is remarkable as showing the marvellous quickness with which his mind worked. "In little more than half an hour" after the idea suggested itself, a sketch of the hammer, "not only in the general structure but in the details," was in his "scheme-book." The same success with which he carried on his foundry and machine-shop attended him in his astronomical pursuits. His observations of the moon and drawings of its surface as shown in his book on this subject, published in 1874, when he was sixty-six years old, would of themselves give him a high rank among amateur astronomers. But he has done a more important service to this science in the discovery of the "willow-leaves" on the solar photosphere. This discovery led to what he calls "one of the little bits of romance" in his rather prosaic life. When in Rome in 1865 he called upon Father Secchi, in company with Struve, the celebrated Russian astronomer. "Secchi gave me a most cordial and unlooked-for welcome. 'This,' he said, 'is a most extraordinary interview, as I am at this moment making a representation of your willow-leaf-shaped constituents of the solar surface!' He then pointed to a large blackboard, which he had daubed over with glue, and was sprinkling over (when we came in) with rice-grains."

Mr. Nasmyth's style is generally plain and straightforward, betraying very few evidences of the garrulousness of old age. Nor does he ever offend by a display of an over-confidence in his own powers. His pictures of life and men in Edinburgh in his boyhood are often graphic and always interesting. He is not without a certain dry humor and shrewd Scotch common-sense which give a pleasant flavor to his book. A good judge of character, he selected his workpeople carefully, and was always solicitous of doing his duty by them as an employer. In this way he was able to resist successfully the dictation of the powerful trades-unions. At the end of the autobiography is a chronological list of the more important of his inventions and "technical contrivances," beginning with "a model of applying steam-power for the traction of canal barges," made in 1825, at the age of seventeen, and closing with a proposal for the use of "chilled cast-iron shot," forty in all. Following this is a chapter on the "Sun-Ray Origin of the Pyramids, and the Cuneiform Character." It should be added, that the hand of the editor, Dr. Smiles, is not apparent in the book, except in a brief preface.

The Forests of England, and the Management of them in Bye-gone Times. Compiled by John Croumbie Brown. Edinburgh and London.

French Forest Ordinances of 1669. With Historical Sketch of Previous Treatment of Forests in France. Translated by John Croumbie Brown. Edinburgh and London. 1883.

Mr. Brown is a profuse maker of books; he has written upon all sorts of subjects more or less closely connected with the Forest, from the Hydrology of South Africa to an account of different European Forest Schools. He has made many books, and many bad ones. He is, however, as a writer upon forests by no means alone in want of natural fitness or training for his self-imposed task. There are cartloads of works written every year upon the forest in Russia, Spain, Italy, Germany, France, England. Some few are purely technical and important; more are simple compilations, and too often betray ab-

solute ignorance of their subject. In his 'Forests of England,' however, Mr. Brown at least makes no pretence to originality; and if the student of forest management sees nothing of practical value in these pages, the general reader and the antiquary will find much curious and heretofore inaccessible matter in regard to the ancient forests of that country and the laws by which they were governed.

Many of these forests were maintained or originally established as game preserves and hunting grounds for the sovereign. And it was not until the reign of Henry VIII. that the fact was recognized that the English forest had any place in the economy of the nation. In Chapter 17 of the thirty-fifth year of that reign, however, we find:

"'The King, our Sovereign, perceiving and right well knowing the great decay of timber and wood universally within the realm of England, and that unless a speedy remedy in that behalf be provided, there is a great and manifest likelihood of scarcity and lack, as well for building houses and ships as for firewood; it is enacted, that in a copse of underwood felled at twenty-four years' growth, there shall be left twelve standrells or store oaks on each acre, so many elm, ash, or beach, etc.; and that they be of such as are likely trees for timber, and such as have been left at former fellings, if there have been any left before; under pain of forfeiting of 3s. 4d. for every such standard not left, one-half to the crown, and the other to the party who may inform, and may choose to sue for it in any court of record, which might be done as in an action for debt. When cut under fourteen years' growth, the ground shall be enclosed or protected for four years, by the proprietor, or the lawful possessor of the wood, under pain for not enclosing for every rood so left unenclosed 3s. 4d. for every month it may remain so unenclosed. No calves are to be put in for two years after felling, and no other cattle for four years. Wood cut under fourteen to twenty-four years to be six years enclosed under the same penalty; after twenty-four years twelve trees to be left, under penalty of 6s. 8d. each tree, the moiety to the crown, and the informer may recover as before. The ground to be kept enclosed for seven years, under penalty of 3s. 4d. per rood per month as before.' And cutting trees on waste or common lands was to be punished by forfeiting 6s. 8d. for every tree so cut; but in the county of Cornwall, within two miles of the sea, trees might be felled when dead on the top."

The condition of the North American forests was early the subject of home legislation, for

"Ninth of Ann, chapter 17, is for the preservation of white and other pine trees growing in Her Majesty's colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay and Province of Maine, Rhode Island, Providence Plantation, the New Narragansett Country or King's Province, and Connecticut, in New England, New York and New Jersey. No person within the said colonies shall presume to cut, sell, or destroy white or other sort of pine tree fit for masts, not being the property of any private person, such tree being the growth of twenty-four inches and upward at twelve inches from the ground, without the royal license for so doing, under the pain of forfeiting £100 for every such offence, one moiety to the crown and the other to the informer, who may recover the same in any court of record. The Surveyor-General to mark the trees to be cut with the broad arrow; but no other person than he or his deputy to make any mark, under the penalty of £5."

This law, however, was soon repealed. At an earlier day the colonists themselves perceived that forests, which must then have covered Massachusetts in one almost unbroken sheet, could not last forever; and the inhabitants of Groton, by town ordinance, endeavored to check, Dr. Greene tells us, that wasteful destruction of timber which, almost from the first settlement of the country, became a part of the American principle of rural management, and from which we are still suffering. We have become, through "inherited instinct," a race of forest destroyers. Nor is this surprising; the forest offered to the first settlers on the coast the greatest impediment to easy agriculture, and made every step taken toward the West slow and difficult. It is not, then, unnatural that the descendants of the men who, in the very luxuriance of the forest covering of the country, found the greatest bar to material prosperity, should be at least indifferent to forest protection, in spite of the changed conditions which surround them.

The above extracts will serve to give an idea of the information to be found in Mr. Brown's compilation, which is, by the way, injured by a want of chronological arrangement; this renders the description of the different forests somewhat confused and difficult to follow. The second of the works of which the titles are given above treats of an important subject, and we are certainly indebted to Mr. Brown for placing Colbert's famous ordinance, the basis of all subsequent forest legislation in Europe, in convenient reach of students unfamiliar with the technical French forest language. No such important contribution has before been made to English forest literature by our author, or "compiler and translator," as he calls himself. The ordinance is preceded by a sketch of the French forests from the time of the Gauls down to the reign of Louis XIV., translated from Cézanne's classical 'Étude sur les Torrents des Hautes-Alpes.' To this is added the best description we remember to have seen in English of the different methods of forest management adopted in France and other Continental countries, as well as a brief account of the various royal ordinances relating to the care of the woods and waters issued previous to that of 1669. Did space permit, it would be interesting to add a few extracts from Colbert's statutes. They would show that two centuries ago the woods of France were suffering from the same evils which to-day are gradually destroying those of North America, and that we have really learned nothing in forest management from the experience of other nations. Our civilization, as shown in our care of the forest, is in no way superior to the French civilization of Colbert's day. Indeed, as a nation, the French of the seventeenth century appreciated the value of their forests more clearly than we in America do to-day. Such a comparison does not argue well for the future prosperity of the United States.

Guesses at Purpose in Nature. By W. Powell James, M.A. London: Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge.

THIS is, in its general effect, a very exasperating book. "An outward-bound steamer was pursuing an unruffled course from Southampton to Barbadoes. The voyage had been one long pleasure-trip." Three of the passengers are an English vicar and his daughter and a young doctor who had just taken his degree in London. It is with these alone that the volume deals. One day Mr. Trevor, the Vicar, and Mr. Ross, the doctor, fall into conversation about the floating gulf-weed through which they are sailing, and then all at once our old friends Mr. Barlow and the good Harry of 'Sandford and Merton' are before us in the flesh.

After some facts of an instructive character have been communicated by the Vicar, we have the following, which will be recognized at a glance:

"*Ross.* This is really an interesting subject. Please give me any other information you have about the gulf-weed.

"*Vicar.* Certainly. Here is a page which I will read to you with pleasure. My daughter, you see, has the 'Voyage of the Sunbeam' to occupy her; and a charming book it is."

And shortly after:

"*Vicar.* But I make you this offer: If you care to hear them, I will read to you a connected series of lectures in which I have tried to state my views about design in the vegetable kingdom. I have been asked to deliver them in my friend's parish school-room in Grenada, and so have them in my trunk.

"*Ross.* I shall be much pleased to hear them, and, as the luncheon-bell is ringing, I shall claim the first this afternoon."

That is the gist of it. It may be fairly asked whether this is strictly honest in the author. Just as we are waiting anxiously for the appearance of some Tommy Merton who merits at least mild reproof, if not condign punishment, we are put off with a set of lectures to *us*. And when we find that the lectures are well arranged, and that the botanical statements are remarkable for accuracy, the feeling of disappointment gives way to that of exasperation. A writer who is so well informed, and who can state facts clearly and forcibly, should know better than to clothe his argument in such a puerile garb.

The fifth chapter brings us back from "the sweltering tropics to the cool green borderland of Wales in the mellow brightness of September." And glad enough they all seem to be; for, as Miss Trevor says, "the tropics are a mistake, except for a short visit." In Wales the lectures are resumed, and in fact are uninterruptedly kept up until Mr. Ross is summoned away "to appear before certain officials as candidate for a medical appointment," and the young man escapes from the lectures to his impending examination. At this hour he should have been left to himself and allowed to get into good trim for the officials, but no:

"By the time breakfast was over, and Mr. Ross's portmanteau packed, John had brought the Vicar's modest little trap round to the front. On taking leave for a time with deep regret of his agreeable hosts, Mr. Ross received from the Vicar a small manuscript roll to read on the way. On opening it in the train it proved to be the last and concluding lecture, and its perusal beguiled the time pleasantly until he reached the wild and dreary scene of his future labors."

The last sentence is unpardonably obscure. By "wild and dreary scene," are we to understand the encounter with the examiners?

When characters are introduced into an argumentative treatise, it is well to keep them up to the subject in hand, unless they are managed skilfully in by-play, after Mr. Ruskin's happy fashion in his 'Ethics of the Dust.' But what advantage can the author gain from such passages as this, which serves as an introduction to the last lecture on shipboard?

"*Vicar.* So, Sal, by this time to-morrow you will have crossed the Atlantic, and seen with your own eyes what your poor mother never saw.

"*Miss Trevor.* I shall be glad of it."

If the well-considered and well-stated scientific propositions in 'Guesses at Purpose' had been put by themselves, and not served up with these silly accompaniments, a good and useful book might have been the result. But as it is, the whole must be numbered with the goody-goodies.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Geikie, Rev. C. Hours with the Bible. Vol. v. From Manasseh to Zedekiah and Contemporary Prophets. James Pott.
Greenough, Mrs. Richard. Mary Magdalen: a Poem. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Hallett, Caroline M. The Upward Path: a Book for Boys. James Pott.
Halliwell-Phillips, J. O. Outlines of the Life of Shakespeare. 3d ed. London: Longmans, Green & Co.
Hammond, W. A. A Treatise on Insanity in its Medical Relations. D. Appleton & Co.
Hole, S. R. A Book About Roses: How to Grow and Show Them. Wm. S. Gottsberger.
Holloway, Laura C. Charlotte Brontë. Funk & Wagnalls. 15 cents.
Horati Flacci Opera. [Parchment edition.] D. Appleton & Co. $1 25.
Index to All the Reported Cases in Equity and Bankruptcy. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Jeaffreson, J. C. The Real Lord Byron. New Views of the Poet's Life. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $1 50.
Joly, N. Man Before Metals. D. Appleton & Co.
Koolman, J. ten D. Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache. Part 18. Norden: Hermann Braams.
Lacombe, P. The Growth of a People: a Short Study in French History. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Lamb, C. Essays of Elia. With Introduction and Notes by Alfred Ainger. Macmillan & Co. $1 75.

The Nation.

NEW YORK THURSDAY, MAY 31, 1883.

The Week.

THE earnestness and zeal of Mr. John Jay in the advocacy of civil-service reform are so well known that, by appointing him as a member of the Civil-Service Commission in the place of Mr. Andrew D. White, who declined, Governor Cleveland has once more demonstrated his good faith in executing the civil-service law passed at the last session of the Legislature.

The London *Economist* returns to the examination of Mr. Goschen's speech on the Gold Famine, and shows that his figures, relating to the absorption of gold by Germany, Italy, and the United States, are erroneous to the extent of at least £60,000,000, and probably more. Mr. Goschen stated that this absorption or withdrawal of gold from its former and customary channels had amounted to £200,000,000. By a careful examination of details, the *Economist* shows that this absorption could not have been more than £139,000,000, and that even this sum includes £45,000,000 of new gold obtained from the mines of the United States during the period embraced in Mr. Goschen's calculations. This showing certainly detracts much from the terrors of Mr. Goschen's gold famine, and unless answered by him in some effective way must be looked upon as a humiliating exposure of carelessness on the part of a distinguished and really able man. One point not noticed by the *Economist* is this: Mr. Goschen's statistics and arguments are intended to show certain great disturbances in the natural distribution of gold, or what would have been its natural distribution but for the action of the three Governments named—viz., the introduction of a gold currency instead of silver in Germany, the resumption of specie payments in the United States, and resumption in Italy on a gold instead of a silver basis. In these transactions Germany, according to Mr. Goschen, absorbed £84,000,000, Italy £16,000,000, and the United States £100,000,000; total, £200,000,000. But he has overlooked or omitted to state the fact that the United States were formerly a gold-standard country, and that if we "absorbed" gold after we resumed specie payments, we only took back what we had previously parted with—that is, our share of the world's stock of gold; such share as our industry, trade, and resources demanded, and could rightfully win and hold in competition with all other gold-using countries.

The most important feature in the general financial and commercial situation during the past week or ten days has been the diminishing volume of foreign trade. The official report of the Bureau of Statistics for the month of April showed the total exports from the United States for that month to have been $60,860,588, against $77,657,160 in March and $57,952,376 in April, 1882. The total imports in April were $57,029,723, against $60,780,603 in March and $66,361,167 in April, 1882. The large decrease of nearly $17,000,000 in the exports as compared with March has been continued, and both the exports and imports for May will show a further decrease. Exports of breadstuffs have been retarded by the revival of speculation in wheat in New York and Chicago, which has advanced the price much above a shipping margin. The reports of the unfavorable condition of crops at the West have probably been exaggerated in the interest of speculators for higher prices. Speculation in petroleum has been very active during the past week, and prices were advanced from 104¼ to 109¼. Mining shares, also, after many months of inactivity, have recently become active, owing to the improved prospects of the Comstock mines; and all the most prominent Comstock mining stocks have advanced from 100 to 200 per cent. in the last week, while Chollar has advanced 450 per cent., and Sutro Tunnel 60 per cent. All these speculations have withdrawn a large amount of that class of capital from the railway share market, and this fact, together with the apprehension of rate-cutting wars in several quarters, has had a depressing effect upon railway stocks; and, though prices of stocks are much below the average of the past two years, there is as yet no indication of an improvement.

The Philadelphia *North American* attempts to answer the recent assertion of Mr. David A. Wells, that not a scintilla of evidence can be adduced to prove that money has ever been sent from England to influence political action in respect to the tariff in the United States, by referring to a statement in the London *Times* in 1844 to the effect that about £440,000 was subscribed in that year in England to circulate free-trade tracts in foreign countries. Now, as Cobden, Bright, and their associates had not succeeded in their work of converting England to their free-trade doctrines in that year, and as a proposed fund of £100,000 for the prosecution of their home work, which was started in 1843, had only amounted to £86,000 at the close of 1844 (see Cobden's Life), we should like the *North American* to be a little more definite in its references, and specifically mention the number and date of the London *Times* in 1844 containing the statement referred to. Will it also be kind enough to tell where some copies (even one copy) of any free-trade tract distributed in this country through the agency of this same fund can be seen? What library has them? If the *North American* cannot tell at once, can it tell in a week or so?

Governor Pattison sent a very sensible veto message to the Pennsylvania Legislature on Friday. For some years that body has passed a bill granting pensions to Pennsylvanians who served as soldiers in the Mexican war, but the bill has never reached the Statute Book, and will not reach it during the term of the present Governor. The message very well says that the war with Mexico, however brilliant and successful, was an affair not of the State of Pennsylvania, but of the United States. If pensions are to be given to the survivors of it, they should be paid by the Federal Government. But if the State had profited by the war in an exceptional way, such as would warrant a special recognition of military services in its behalf, the vetoed bill is curiously indiscriminate and reckless in its bounty. Rich survivors as well as poor, the able-bodied as well as the feeble and sick, are to get the same gratuity. Widows who have made opulent remarriages may draw their pensions as regularly as the relict who has worn her weeds with scrupulous fidelity. Although this measure is an unusually loose one of its kind, Governor Pattison has done something more than a local service in directing attention to the subject of pension legislation.

It might be supposed that women would be opposed to strikes, since the distress which results from enforced idleness is felt first and most severely in the homes of the laborers. At all events, hitherto women have not been unwilling to end these costly movements. In Illinois, however, three hundred of the wives and daughters of the striking miners on Monday appeared at the Rosehill mine, armed with clubs, and threatened to strip and drive through the town any man who tried to enter the mine. Some of the miners were prepared to resume work, but quailed before this formidable and unfamiliar expression of public opinion. The deputy sheriffs did the like, and "retreated in good order." Setting a guard upon this mine, the women marched to another, the Reinecke, seven miles distant, stopped the work which was going on, shut the proprietor up in a shanty, and refused to disperse until the militia turned out and fired over the heads of the crowd. This energetic proceeding furnishes a very alarming suggestion of what may happen if women ever do get their rights at the polls and elsewhere.

Judge Sharswood's death deprives the country of one of its best judges. He was made a judge before the elective system was introduced in Pennsylvania. He was continued on the bench for nearly forty years by successive elections, which he secured solely through his professional merits. Outside of Pennsylvania he was most widely known, perhaps, as the author of what was considered the best edition of Blackstone published in this century. He was an industrious, painstaking, and learned lawyer, and his career was often used by advocates of the elective system to show that it worked well. The argument was not worth much for this purpose, for the elective system generally works well at first, in the way of retaining conspicuously good judges on the bench. The old traditions of the bench make it impossible for the politicians to drive off good judges who

are already there. It is when the old judges are all dead or off the bench that the politicians begin to put in their effective work, and "fix" the bench, as they do in some cases in the interest of one party or the other, or put in noisy, incompetent lawyers who can pay for the position in one way or another. We must protest, by the way, against the constant misuse of the term "jurist" as applied to men like Judge Sharswood. A jurist, if anything more than a fine word for lawyer, means a lawyer who is mainly eminent through his familiarity with the theoretic side of the law. Savigny and Austin, for instance, were jurists in this sense. But Judge Sharswood made his reputation, as most good English and American judges have done, by having a wide practical acquaintance with cases, and knowing how to administer the law he found in them. He was not a "jurist," but an excellent lawyer and judge.

The Presbyterian General Assembly has been sitting at Saratoga this year, and receiving the reports of the various boards of the Church. One of these is the Board of Ministerial Relief, whose function is the raising of money to supplement the salaries of the ministers of poor congregations. The need of this is apparent from the fact that many hundred — some say 2,000 — Presbyterian churches are now to be found within the jurisdiction of the Assembly who cannot get ministers. This is, of course, partly due to a scarcity of ministers, but one reason why there is a scarcity of ministers is undoubtedly to be found in the fact that it is so difficult for ministers to obtain a decent livelihood. All the Protestant denominations in this country have somewhat the same story to tell. In the Catholic Church the difficulty is got over by the celibacy of the clergy, a single man being able to exist comfortably where a married man would starve or be driven to despair. Moreover, the Protestant denominations call for a much better educated clergy than the Catholics need, because they test them a good deal by their sermons. A priest does not need to preach at all, or may, in consideration of the vastly greater importance of his strictly sacerdotal functions, preach as badly as he pleases. The Protestant minister, among all but the Methodists, has to be a man of some scholarship, and a man who is anything of a scholar and has a wife needs more money than a very large number of churches can or will give. Moreover, the loss of the social consideration once enjoyed by Protestant ministers in this country needs to be compensated for in some way, and no way has as yet been suggested. The congregations treat them much less well and pay them no better than they ever did. In spite of all this, however, the Presbyterian Board of Ministerial Relief last year raised only $18,000, while the Board of Foreign Missions raised $648,000.

It appears that an attempt is now to be made to attack the evil of ministerial scarcity nearer to its source by the formation of a new Board, which is to devote itself to looking after the training and preparation of young men for the ministry—which means, we suppose, that it is to seek actively for recruits for the ministry, instead of waiting for them to be attracted by the inducements now held out by theological seminaries. Those who are about to engage in any such work would do well to read President Eliot's article on the training of ministers, in the last number of the Princeton *Review*. It contains a very valuable and impressive warning against the policy of bribing young men to enter the ministry by any pecuniary inducements of any kind, such as free education, or free board or lodging. Apart altogether from the question whether it is well for any man to choose the ministry as his calling under external suggestion or pressure, or, in fact, in obedience to any motive except his own strong sense of fitness, the effect of a system in any degree eleemosynary in attracting weak and weedy youths who are of but little value in any calling, and in repelling the strong and energetic, has to be seriously considered. No young man who is worth much likes to begin his career *in forma pauperis*. There never was a time when weak men were less fitted for the ministry than they are now, because there never has been a time when a minister's success and influence depended so much on his individual character and equipment.

The text of the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in the Wall disbarment case has at length been printed. Mr. Wall, it will be recollected, was a member of the bar in the Southern District of Florida, and in the course of his practice had occasion to murder a prisoner who was in the custody of the Court, while the Judge was absent at dinner. The Judge, on returning from his noon-day meal, had his attention called to the matter by finding the late prisoner hanging by the neck from the limb of an oak tree directly in front of the Court-house door, "whereby," as he declares in his quaint, old-fashioned judicial way, "he became personally informed of the commission of a most serious offence against the laws." The murder was done by a little lynching party, in which Mr. Wall took an active part. It must be admitted that the matter was one which few judges, however well disposed to lynching in general, could have afforded to pass over without notice of any kind. The right of an attorney as such to murder a prisoner has never been recognized, even in communities where lynching is most common, and a little reflection will show that the consequences of the recognition of such a right would be serious. It would be difficult, for one thing, to confine it to murder. It would, in fact, probably have to be extended to all kinds of crime, and this would surround the administration of justice with many difficulties.

Perceiving all this, Judge Locke had Mr. Wall brought before him to show cause why he should not be disbarred as a murderer; and Mr. Wall, being unfortunately not able to say that he was innocent of the crime, was disbarred. Reflecting on his case, however, he became convinced that a great wrong had been done him, and applied to the Supreme Court for a mandamus, and the matter was solemnly argued in that tribunal, and resulted in a decision that Mr. Wall could not be reinstated. Before the opinion of the Court was published we ventured to suggest that Mr. Wall's theory of his rights as a lawyer must be founded on a new constitutional view of the subject—the idea that a lawyer was not a public officer charged with the duty of assisting in the administration of justice, but a plain business man, vested with a right to make money by practice, which could not be taken away from him summarily by a judge for murder any more than the right of a shoemaker to make shoes or a stock-broker to sell stock could be—that he was entitled to a jury trial under the Constitution of the United States. The report of the case shows that this view of the matter was seriously pressed upon the attention of the Supreme Court, Mr. Wall contending that his disbarment was a violation "of the fifth amendment, which forbids depriving any person of property" without due process of law. The Supreme Court, however, points out, in reply to this, that, even conceding that the business view of the matter is the correct one, in such case summary disbarment has from the earliest times been regarded as "due process of law." The Wall case, therefore, seems to settle the point that in the Federal courts a member of the bar who murders a prisoner when the judge goes out for dinner, and leaves the body hanging in front of the court-house door, and, when charged with the offence, neglects even to deny it, is not protected from disbarment by the fifth amendment to the Constitution. Lawyers and candidates for admission to the bar in Florida had better not overlook this in future.

A writer in the *Sun*, who employs the signature of "Derry," makes a spirited appeal to his fellow-citizens of Irish extraction to have the boycotting clause of the Irish National League against British goods carried into effect. One year's thorough operation of this pledge, he thinks, "would break the middle-class power in the British Parliament, which now supports the landlords in their resistance to measures of justice to Ireland." It is very much to be desired that any power which opposes justice to Ireland should be broken, but the inadequacy of the measure devised by the National League to break it is as humorous as any Irish bull ever turned loose for the gayety of nations. The pledge requires the signers to refrain until July, 1884, from purchasing any article of British manufacture, "or any article the materials of which are either in whole or in part the product of British labor." Now, printing paper is composed in part of bleaching powders which are a product of British industry, and it is altogether probable that the *Sun*, which admits this ringing appeal to its columns, is printed on paper which has been treated with the detested chemical. It is probable that the blankets on the paper machine were made in England, and also those on the *Sun's* printing machines, and that these machines themselves were composed in whole or in part of British steel, and that the tin and antimony in its types and type

metal were British contrivances also. In order to make the pledge of any value whatever, the League ought to appoint a committee to decide the numerous questions likely to arise as to the origin of goods and materials of all kinds found in the wholesale and retail markets, and exact a further pledge that no member shall buy anything until assured that it is entirely clear of the British taint.

The *Times* has a despatch from Ottawa, announcing the discovery of an "extraordinary organization" in the village of Markam, Ontario. It consists of a number of local boys, who have "formed themselves into a band" for purposes of burglary. Their fall was caused, of course, by "yellow-back literature." They are all sons of respectable—though wealthy — Canadians; they had a "cave," close by a graveyard, where they met, and had already "burglarized" the store of the father of a member of the gang. Their mode of operating was simplicity itself. When bed-time came they disarmed suspicion by going to bed just like any other boys; but as soon as their parents were asleep, they would stealthily arise, dress, and arm themselves, and repair to the cave, graveyard, or other point of meeting. One of these youths was, it is said, "employed in a banker's office"—we presume in a capacity not unconnected with the duty of taking down and putting up the shutters—and he was discovered by the banker's wife "hiding some of the booty." Owing to the "high social position" of the offenders, a compromise was effected, so that there will be no criminal proceedings. Altogether the story closely resembles that of the gang of Connecticut boy-burglars whose business was broken up a few weeks ago. The case shows that boys, if not carefully looked after by their parents, will go astray, no matter what the form of government is under which they live. If the Canadians supposed that their monarchy was any protection against boys, they are now undeceived. The settlement of the matter, too, by a "compromise," just as if the boys were adult New York or Washington politicians, is very interesting as showing what Mr. Freeman calls the essential unity of the race.

The story that Oscar Wilde, having put by some $50,000, has cut off his hair, and "gone out of the business," looks as if there must be a belief in some quarters that he merely took up the cause of reform to make money out of it. If he did, what an enormous relief it must be to him, after his hard-working æsthetic career, to be able to settle down to quiet, real life again. Popular favorites like Tug Wilson and Sullivan always sigh for the day when they can gratify their simple tastes by ceasing to pound and knock each other out, and can set up a bar-room or a "public"; but the relief which a champion feels in retiring with his gate-money can be nothing to the joy that an æsthete would know when the time came that he could cut off his hair, change his clothes, and stop talking with religious fervor about the spiritual significance of dress, and lecturing with earnestness on the depravity of stoves and the moral worth of the felt hat. Fifty thousand dollars seems really a small sum in these days to retire on, but the relief in getting out of the business must be a great temptation to retire early.

The Republican State Convention of Kentucky on Wednesday adopted a platform resolution in favor of "an adjustment of the tariff that will not only provide a revenue sufficient to defray the expenses of the Government, but afford just and reasonable protection to the industrial classes of our country without being oppressive to the agricultural and other interests of our people." Those who have experience in the interpretation of platforms will agree that the difference between this and the platform adopted by the Democrats of Kentucky is not sufficient to bring on a campaign between the two parties on the distinct issue of the tariff. If the Democrats should be accused of being free-traders, they will answer that they did not say anything about the matter in their platform, but smothered an unequivocal revenue-reform resolution in committee, for the very reason that they did not want to commit themselves in favor of free trade or anything like it. And if the Republicans should be accused of favoring monopoly in the shape of high protective tariffs, their answer will be that they favor protection to the industrial interests of the country only so far as that protection is "not oppressive to the agricultural and other interests of our people." And the Kentucky Democrats, according to present appearances, will maintain that this expresses their sentiments too.

Mr. Joseph Cook, who is now in the West on a lecturing tour, is reported by telegraph as having had a scrimmage of a very painful character with a commercial traveller, commonly called a "drummer," named Gill, at Monmouth, Ill. The origin of the affair is, like that of most historic events, involved in obscurity. The drummer's story is that he takes a piece of raw meat for his supper—a peculiar but certainly harmless practice—and that Mr. Cook, who was at the table, commented on it with the force and asperity with which the frequenters of the Boston Monday Lectures are familiar, and this led to recrimination and threats of violence on the part of Gill. Mr. Cook's story is somewhat different. He maintains that his original remarks were drawn forth, not by the rawness of Gill's meat, but by his behavior, and that he referred to the meat simply by way of enforcing and illustrating his criticism. There is a substantial agreement between the parties as to the conclusion of the affair. Gill threatened to see Mr. Cook "later," by which Mr. Cook understood, with a pistol, and therefore asked for police protection, but maintained, at the same time, that he could "thrash five such men" if all were unarmed. We cannot help feeling that this is one of the rhetorical exaggerations for which the Boston Monday Lectureship has become famous. Three is as many as the most powerful pugilist can thrash at a time, because he can, with a little agility, keep three in front of him; but there is nobody, whether pugilist or lecturer, who can contend with three in front and two assailing him in the rear. Gill's behavior was probably bad. His language was undoubtedly profane, but Mr. Cook put himself in the wrong by alluding to the rawness of his meat. The food on a man's plate has been held in every age and clime sacred from observation or hostile criticism by bystanders, and Mr. Cook's forgetfulness of this shows how imperfect his studies in the field of minor morals have been.

The text of the Pope's letter to the Irish bishops certainly hardly accounts for the rejoicings with which it was received by a portion of the English press. It is full of ambiguous phrases, which leave plenty of means of escape for those who wish to avoid its condemnation without withdrawing from the agitation. Parnell himself is not condemned, but some of his followers are accused of having behaved improperly, which is something that probably nobody would deny; but then it is true of all popular movements. So also the circular acknowledges the right of the Irish "to seek for the redress of their grievances and strive for their rights," but not by illegal means, which is what the chief Land Leaguers have frequently said. Then again, the clergy are to curb the excited feelings of the multitude, "and by timely exhortations to recall them to the justice and moderation which are necessary in all things," but it would be difficult for them to do this effectively if they totally abstained from participation in political meetings. Perhaps the most direct prohibition in the letter is that which forbids the clergy to take part in the collection of money which is likely to "arouse hatred and dissension" or to expose distinguished men to insult, and in the making of which no "censure is passed against crimes and murders." It is easy to see, however, that prohibitions of this kind, which are all conditional, can be readily expounded by the bishop in a way to adapt them completely to the temper in which the Irish laity receives them. If, as now seems likely, they produce widespread defiance, they will undoubtedly be explained in a way that will save the influence of the clergy, and it is even possible that the Pope himself will assist in the process.

M. Laboulaye, the news of whose death came on Friday, was first made known to the American public during the war, as one of the few writers of prominence in Europe who ventured to espouse the American cause when its prospects looked very dark. His books and articles, as well as those of Count Gasparin, were received during that period in this country with an eagerness and welcome of which the generation which has since grown up remembers nothing, and perhaps would, on looking at them now, find it difficult to understand, in spite of the undeniable ability of nearly everything he wrote. The truth is that his forte there lay mainly in his perspicacity, and reputation secured in this way does not long survive the realization of a man's predictions —things seem so easy to foresee after they have come to pass. But his sagacity during the American war really was one of his highest titles to fame, in spite of the excellence of his general literary work, for it was proof of statesmanship. He understood the conflict as very few of his countrymen did, and foresaw its issue as still fewer of them did.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 23, to TUESDAY, May 29, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE event of the week was the formal opening, on Thursday, of the great suspension bridge, across the East River, uniting New York and Brooklyn. In Brooklyn the day was made a holiday, and business in New York was partly suspended. Both cities were decorated, the former in great profusion. In New York the exercises of the day began at 12:35 o'clock with a procession, consisting of President Arthur, Mayor Edson, and other dignitaries, under the escort of the Seventh Regiment, which left the Fifth Avenue Hotel and marched to the bridge. A review was held in City Hall Park. When the President and party marched upon the bridge, salutes were fired and church bells rang. When the Brooklyn tower was reached a similar procession from that city was met. The exercises of the day were then begun at the Brooklyn approach. After music, and a prayer by Bishop Littlejohn, William C. Kingsley, on behalf of the Bridge Trustees, delivered the presentation speech to the chief magistrates of the two cities. Mayor Low, of Brooklyn, then delivered an address of acceptance, on behalf of his city, and he was followed by Mayor Edson, on behalf of New York. Abram S. Hewitt, orator of the day, for the city of New York, delivered a long and interesting address. The Rev. Dr. Storrs, the orator for Brooklyn, followed with an eloquent speech. The ceremonies were concluded with music. Great crowds were present everywhere throughout the day. In the evening, between 8 and 9 o'clock, a splendid display of fireworks was made from the tops of the two towers and the centre of the bridge. This was witnessed by thousands of people from the neighboring streets, from hundreds of illuminated boats which dotted the river, and from house-tops all over the city. One of the events of the day was a reception at the house, in Brooklyn, of Col. W. A. Roebling, the invalid Chief Engineer, who has directed the great work since his father's death. About 1,000 guests attended, including the President. A reception was given to President Arthur and Governor Cleveland in the Brooklyn Academy of Music at 9 o'clock in the evening. The bridge was thrown open to the public at midnight, and thousands of people went across in the early hours of the morning. All day Friday the crowds continued to cross, and for several days the regular traffic was very great. The ferry companies noted a great falling off in receipts.

President Arthur has given an order that the $100,000 fund for the prevention of yellow fever shall be disbursed under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury. This is a precautionary measure. It is believed that if the yellow fever visits the country this season, it will first appear along the Rio Grande.

The saving to the banks from the recent decision of the Attorney-General that no taxes are due since January 1 last is estimated at $3,000,000.

Civil-Service Commissioner Gregory and Joseph H. Blackfan, Superintendent of the Foreign Mail Department, established a local Board of Examiners for the Albany Post-office on Thursday.

The State Department at Washington on Friday night received a despatch from Minister Cornelius A. Logan, at Santiago, Chili, asserting that a treaty of peace had finally been signed between Chili and Peru, General Iglesias acting on behalf of the latter country. The terms of the treaty are the same as those lately announced.

Secretary Chandler, of the Navy, in a reply to ex-Congressman Dezendorf, of Virginia, in regard to Mahone's abuse of patronage in that State, says: "The tone of your letter, which you have made public, indicates that you take a very strong interest in the reformation of the Navy-yard at Norfolk. That you should, although now for the first time, invite the attention of the Department and the public to such abuses, after you have ceased to expect any personal benefit from the management of the yard, is a most commendable performance of public duty by a private citizen." Mr. Dezendorf, in reply to these insinuations, says: "Referring to the last paragraph of your letter, I am constrained to say your memory needs 'readjustment.' From time to time during my term in Congress, I had the pleasure of calling your attention to sundry abuses in the Navy-yard and to the many wrongs being perpetrated on Republicans in Virginia, to which, I regret to say, you turned a deaf ear, as did the President, being, as I am bound to believe, committed to the support of Senator Mahone by an arrangement which could not be violated."

Local elections held in Virginia on Thursday were not encouraging to Mahone. Seven counties which had previously given Readjuster majorities went Democratic. The battle-ground was Norfolk County, where ex-Congressman Dezendorf heads the opposition. The latter was defeated, but others on his ticket were elected. Readjuster gains, however, are reported in the southwestern part of the State. The Bourbons showed lack of organization.

Senator Anthony, of Rhode Island, is convalescent.

Governor Cleveland on Wednesday appointed John Jay, of New York, to be Civil-Service Commissioner, in place of Andrew D. White, declined.

Information was received on Friday that General Crook had an engagement with a large body of Indians near Guacanope, in the Sierra Madre Mountains, about ten days ago. He had sent forward some of his San Carlos scouts, who were surprised by the hostiles and driven back to the main body. A general advance was then made by the entire force, and the hostiles were driven from their intrenched position with a loss of fifty, when the remainder broke and fled. General Crook immediately started in pursuit. There have been rumors of subsequent disaster to General Crook, but they are not credited. The reports of the battle were confirmed on Tuesday.

The National Exposition of Railway Appliances was opened in Chicago on Thursday evening in the presence of 5,000 people.

Mr. Ingersoll continued his argument in the Star-route trial at Washington on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday, and attracted large crowds to the court-room. His analysis of Rerdell's testimony was especially severe. Mr. Merrick began the closing argument for the Government on Monday and continued it on Tuesday.

The Presbyterian General Assembly continued its sessions throughout the week at Saratoga. On Friday the Committee on Temperance recommended the putting down of the rum traffic by the strong arm of the law and by constitutional enactment. They did not, however, recommend pastors and church members to insist on prohibition at all times and seasons, but on the enforcement, with diligence and impartiality, of existing laws for the suppression of the liquor traffic. The report was adopted on Tuesday.

The fifty-fourth anniversary of the Brooklyn Sunday-School Union was held on Wednesday. The exercises were as successful as in former years. It is said that more than 50,000 children were in line in the various processions.

The Harvard College Overseers on Wednesday postponed the award of degrees at Commencement, including a decision of the question of granting to the Governor the degree of LL.D., until May 31.

The Trustees of Williams College, Williamstown, Mass., received on Wednesday a check for $50,000 from A. D. Germen, of Albany, to found a Professorship of Natural Theology in memory of his son, who was a student in Williams College.

Patrick Joseph Percy Tynan, the alleged No. 1 of the Irish Invincibles, invited a number of reporters on Wednesday to his house, No. 191 West Baltic Street, Brooklyn. After the ceremony of introduction, Mr. Tynan said: "I regret very much to say, after consultation with my counsel, General Pryor, that I most respectfully decline to be interviewed about myself or Ireland."

The steamer *Pilot* blew up near Lakeville, Cal., on Friday. Eight were killed, seven wounded, and ten are missing. The cause was insufficient water in the boiler.

Strikers having taken possession of the mines around Belleville, Ill., the militia were ordered there on Monday. On their arrival near Belleville they were fired upon. The fire was returned. One man was killed and a number injured. Twenty-six prisoners were taken. Quiet was restored on Tuesday.

A tornado in Indiana on Monday, near Clay City, killed six persons and injured twelve. Other places in central Indiana were visited by the storm, which was very destructive.

The annual parade of the New York Coaching Club took place in this city on Saturday afternoon. Eleven coaches were in line.

Ex-Chief-Justice George Sharswood, of Pennsylvania, died at his residence in Philadelphia at 6:45 o'clock on Monday morning, of apoplexy. He had been unconscious since Friday. He was seventy-three years of age. His career as a judge covered thirty-seven years and nine months. He was on the Supreme bench of Pennsylvania from 1860 to 1882. As a writer on legal subjects he attained great eminence. His edition of 'Blackstone's Commentaries,' first published in 1859, is considered one of the best editions of that work ever published.

Col. Frank E. Howe, formerly well known as the Pension Agent in New York, and a once prominent member of the Union League Club, died suddenly on Wednesday in Washington. He was born in Dorchester, Mass., in 1829. At the opening of the Rebellion he became widely known for his exertions in caring for the soldiers on their way to the front.

FOREIGN.

The ceremony of blessing the imperial flag was performed in the Kremlin, at Moscow, on Wednesday, in the presence of the Emperor, the Empress, the imperial family, and the Emperor's military household. The Czar on that day sent a telegram to Emperor William, of Germany, notifying him of his safe entry into Moscow, and in return received the latter's congratulations. On Thursday the imperial proclamation, formally announcing that the coronation of the Czar would take place on Sunday, was issued by heralds from a circular platform before the Kremlin. The Emperor and Empress remained in semi-seclusion until that day. The imperial insignia were conveyed to the throne room on Saturday in preparation for the coronation.

The coronation ceremonies were brilliantly carried out on Sunday. The day was begun with the ringing of bells and the salutes of artillery at 7 o'clock. About a half-hour later the dignitaries of the realm who were to take part in the ceremony assembled in the Cathedral of the Holy Assumption, in the Kremlin. By 8:30 o'clock the Cathedral was filled with officials and nobles of the highest rank in Russia. The appearance of the interior was magnificent. In the centre, between the four great columns, was a scarlet canopy with a double-headed eagle and emblazonings and plumes in black, yellow, and white. Under this stood the throne and before it a table for the regalia. After a short time the shouts of the crowd and the booming

of artillery announced the arrival of the imperial procession. The Archbishop of Moscow welcomed the Emperor and Empress at the door of the Cathedral. They entered the church, and, after kissing the images, took seats on the throne. The Emperor then declared his faith to the Metropolitan of Novgorod. A liturgy followed with impressive music. The Emperor then received from the Archbishops the mantle of imperial purple and placed it on his shoulders. The crown was taken from the table by the official appointed for the purpose and carried on a velvet cushion to the Metropolitan of Novgorod, who in turn presented it to the Emperor. The latter took it in his hands and placed it upon his head, while the Archbishop repeated: "In the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, Amen." Then the Archbishop, at the Emperor's command, gave him the sceptre and orb, one into his right hand, the other into his left. The Emperor then crowned the Empress. A prayer followed, and then all the bells were set ringing, and the cannon fired 101 rounds. After a further liturgy the Emperor and Empress were anointed, and received the sacrament. After concluding their religious duties the Emperor and Empress returned to the palace, accompanied by the procession as before. On the steps the Czar turned and bowed his acknowledgments of the enthusiastic cheers of the spectators. In the afternoon the state banquet was given in the palace banqueting hall, which was magnificently decorated and adorned with a superb display of plate exhibited on buffets. The Czar's manifesto was issued at 6 o'clock in the evening. It granted amnesty to all the Polish exiles who are willing to submit to police supervision for a period of two years. No other political prisoners were pardoned. It granted the remission of a large number of penalties for non-political offences, fines, and arrears of taxes due from the poorer classes. The cost of the coronation is estimated at $10,000,000. On Monday an imperial rescript was issued by the Czar conferring many honors on his friends and advisers.

An official denial was published at St. Petersburg, on Wednesday, of the report that an explosion had taken place in the Czar's dressing-room at St. Petersburg before his departure for Moscow.

There were anti-Jewish riots in Rostoff, Russia, last week.

Paris was startled on Saturday by an official telegram from Tonquin asserting that Captain Rivière, commander of the French forces in Tonquin, had been killed while making a sortie from Fort Hanoi, and that Captain Devillers had been dangerously wounded. General Bouet has been ordered from Saigon to take the place of Captain Rivière. Twenty-six men were killed and fifty-one wounded in the sortie. Hanoi is surrounded by a large force of Anamites. French reinforcements have been ordered to the seat of war. The credit for the Tonquin expedition was immediately voted unanimously in the French Chamber of Deputies. In China war preparations are also progressing. Li Hung Chang was summoned to take command of the Chinese troops in the provinces bordering on Tonquin, and he arrived at Shanghai on Monday, on his way to his new post to begin operations. It is believed that the French Minister at Pekin and the Chinese Minister at Paris will soon receive their passports. On Monday news was received from China that 6,000 troops, armed in the manner of European troops, have already arrived at the Tonquin frontier, and that the feeling throughout China is intensely hostile to the French.

News has been received in Paris from Madagascar that a French detachment landed and carried several military posts which had been erected by the Hovas on Sakalava territory in defiance of French rights. It is also said that Admiral Pierre has occupied the custom-house at Majunga, thus securing the road and waterway leading to Tananarivo, the capital of the island. The Malagasy Embassy in London were greatly surprised at the news, and asserted that the natives would fight the French to the death.

The Suez Canal Company, of Paris, have announced that they propose to begin the cutting of a parallel canal across the isthmus forthwith, and have applied to the English Government for their support in obtaining the necessary concession of land from the Khedive.

M. Édouard René Lefebvre Laboulaye, the well-known French jurist, died on Friday, at the age of seventy-two. He first made himself known by a work entitled 'History of the Law Relative to Landed Property in Europe.' He became a great student of American political history and wrote much in regard to it. During the civil war his writings in the *Débats* did much to influence French opinion in favor of the Northern States. In French politics he was a moderate Republican.

Abd-el-Kader, the famous Algerine chief, died in Damascus on Saturday, in the seventy-sixth year of his age. He was an able opponent of the French, but was defeated in 1843. For many years he was imprisoned, but lately has lived at Damascus on a French pension.

The Cologne (Germany) *Gazette* has published an article which attracts much attention, pointing out that Germany, Austria, and Italy can together muster 1,318 battalions of infantry, 740 squadrons of cavalry, and 4,464 field guns, while the forces of France and Russia together amount to 1,339 battalions of infantry, 620 squadrons of cavalry, and 4,840 field guns; but, it says, the last two states can only operate with divided forces. The tripartite alliance can thus outweigh the whole remainder of Europe.

It is announced in Berlin that Prince Bismarck will visit the Emperor William during the stay of the latter at Gastein, and that if the Emperor Francis Joseph goes to Gastein, Count Kálnoky, the Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, will accompany him. It is rumored that King Humbert and Signor Mancini, the Italian Foreign Minister, may also visit Gastein during the Emperor William's stay there.

The German Reichstag on Friday, when considering the Workmen's Sick Fund Bill on its third reading, rejected, by a vote of 136 to 134, an amendment introduced on the second reading, which the Government opposed, extending the operation of the measure to agricultural and forest laborers. It was reported in Berlin on Monday that Prince Bismarck contemplates the radical remodelling of the entire Constitution of the Empire, abolishing the Reichstag.

The Vatican, in its reply to the note of Prussia, complains that while its request for explanations relative to the jurisdiction of bishops and the training of priests was unanswered, Prussia suddenly made new demands. The Vatican declines to consider any new proposals until an agreement has been reached on matters first mooted.

Prof. Gabriel Gustav Valentin, the noted German physiologist, died on Monday at the age of seventy-three.

The Swedish Ministry have resigned in consequence of their defeat in the Diet on the Army Organization Bill.

Professor Nordenskjöld's Greenland Exploring Expedition sailed from Gothenburg, Sweden, on Thursday, on board the *Sophia*.

Mr. John Dillon, in a letter to the Dublin *Freeman's Journal*, advises the Irish people to make the Parnell fund such a success that the Pope will realize how grievously he has been deceived by the English Government and the miserable pauper landlords who infest Rome. The belief is current in Montreal, Canada, that, notwithstanding the action of the clergy, the local Irish societies will form themselves into League branches. In the British House of Commons on Thursday, Lord E. Fitzmaurice, Under Foreign Secretary, said he had already stated on the 19th of March that the Government had never entertained a scheme to establish a British resident at the Vatican, and Mr. Errington had not since been a channel of communication between the Foreign Office and the Vatican. The Pope's circular to the Irish clergy, he said, had not been issued at the request of the British Government. Mr. Gladstone said that Earl Granville's letter of last year, recommending Mr. Errington to the Vatican as a gentleman of honor and intelligence, would remain in force so long as Mr. Errington answered that description. Archbishop Croke, preaching from his own pulpit at Thurles, Ireland, exhorted his people not to speak a word of condemnation of the Pope, who was their best friend. The Pope, it is said, is satisfied with the result of his circular.

The police of Tralee, Ireland, on Wednesday, seized the plant of the Kerry *Sentinel* and prevented the publication of that paper, which is the property of Mr. Harrington, member of Parliament for Westmeath. The cause of the seizure, it is supposed, was the publication of a notice in the *Sentinel* asking persons desirous of joining the Invincibles to attend a meeting. The publication was resumed on Saturday.

John Behan, the correspondent of the *Irish World*, of New York, for the West Clare (Ireland) district, has been arrested on a charge of intimidating the driver of a mail wagon, whom he called a spy and an informer.

Only one agrarian outrage against the person occurred in Ireland during the month of April.

Michael Fagan, who was convicted of the murder of Mr. Burke in Phœnix Park on the 6th of May last, was hanged in Kilmainham Jail on Monday morning. He made no statement.

Mr. Kennard, at the desire of the leaders of the British Tory party, has decided to abandon for the present session his motion offered in the House of Commons in relation to the disposition of the surplus of the *Alabama* award. It is thought that the question can be raised more conveniently at the expiration of the Fishery treaty in 1884.

At a meeting of the Liberal party in London on Tuesday, Mr. Gladstone announced that it would be necessary to drop for the present session the Government's bill for remodelling the corporation of the city of London. He said he could not expect that this would be a brilliant session, but he thought it would be a good and not discreditable one.

Signor Savelli succeeds Signor Zanardelli as Italian Minister of Justice and Ecclesiastical Affairs, and Signor Genala succeeds Signor Baccarini as Minister of Public Works.

Phillippe François Xavier Théodore Heuschling, the Belgian writer on political economy, is dead, at the age of eighty-one.

The Dominion of Canada Parliament was finally prorogued by the Governor-General on Friday afternoon. He congratulated the country and its legislators on the general prospects. Regarding the settlement of disputes between the Dominion Government and the province of British Columbia, the Dominion Government have agreed to give a money grant to the province amounting to $1,000,000, of which $750,000 is to indemnify the province for the loss sustained in carrying out the terms of the confederation and for the delay in building the Canadian Pacific Railway.

The bombardment of Miragoane, Hayti, has begun, and is making havoc among the insurgents. The rest of the republic is reported quiet. The public believe that the real state of affairs is unfavorable. Volunteers are swelling the ranks of the Government army.

BUTLER AND HARVARD COLLEGE.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY finds itself in a position of considerable difficulty with regard to the customary bestowal of the degree of LL.D. on the present Governor of the Commonwealth. The connection of Harvard College with the State Government has always been close—so close, indeed, that it might almost be called a State institution. It was in reality founded by the State, and endowments or donations from the State Treasury were made to it down to 1814. From the adoption of the State Constitution, too, in 1780, down to 1865, the Board of Overseers was composed in part of members of the Council and State Senate; so that it is easy to see how it became the custom for the Governor to go out in a sort of state from Boston on Commencement Day, to be entertained at the Commencement dinner and receive from the College the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws.

There has, of course, been a great variety in the Governors thus honored. There have been men among them of high attainments and men of no attainments at all; scions of what Bostonians call their "patrician families," and men who began life in strange cities as poor boys with their baggage tied up in a pocket handkerchief. But it can be safely said that the Governors of Massachusetts have been until now, without exception, men of good repute in the State, honored and trusted by their neighbors for their truthfulness, integrity, and public spirit. So that it is not strictly correct to say that the honorary degree hitherto bestowed on the Governor has been simply a tribute of respect from the College to the highest office in the State. It has been more than this. It has been an acknowledgment by the College that the holder of the office, even if not wise or learned or accomplished or polished, was a worthy citizen, whose personal career, however inconspicuous, was free from reproach, and who had rendered services to the Commonwealth which fairly entitled him to some public mark of respect and confidence, and whom no father needed to be ashamed of offering to his son as an example.

Now, the difficulty the College has to encounter in Butler's case is that he constitutes an exception to this rule. If he gets the degree, he will furnish the first case on record in which the degree has been bestowed on a Governor between whom and his office the College authorities have to make a distinction, in order to save their own credit, and in order to be able to look their young men in the face when charged with having prostituted the College honors. In no other case has the Corporation or its friends had to plead that though the man was unworthy, the Governor had to be treated with a show of respect. In other words, Butler will be the first person, on whom this honorary degree has been bestowed, who has been pronounced, by the general verdict of his neighbors, untruthful, tricky, and dishonest, both professionally and politically. In short, if the standards either of private or political ethics which Harvard College holds up to its undergraduates be not simply a mockery and a snare, Butler, as described during the last thirty years by nearly every organ of opinion in Massachusetts, is one of the very last men in the State whom a great school of learning and morals, and we will add of religion, ought to single out for an unprecedented mark of respect—for unprecedented it is.

The distinction which is made between the man and the office in this case, as in most others in which questions of morality are involved, is a sorry one at best. Even if it have any value at all, however, it imposes on an institution like Harvard College no duty towards Butler but the offer of the ordinary marks of external deference due to every magistrate. It does not and cannot impose on it the duty of bestowing on him the highest honor in its gift —the one it offers, and the only one it has to offer, to genius, to learning, to piety, to public spirit, to patriotism, to great orators and poets, to great philanthropists, and scholars, and soldiers. It cannot possibly bestow this on a Governor whom it believes to be a knave, in such a way that the Governor will get the whole of it and the knave get none. What makes the situation all the worse is, that Butler has not for thirty years lost an opportunity of publicly testifying his contempt for the College and all its belongings, and that there is much reason to fear that he will make the bestowal of the degree now the occasion for a fresh expression of this contempt. All his doings since he became Governor show that he is quite capable of marking Commencement Day by a disgraceful display of his scorn of everything the College most honors.

Those who are disposed to give him the degree on grounds of expediency will do well to consider this. There is a higher and lower expediency in this as in other things. To maintain that a conspicuous refusal to give Butler its chief mark of respect, on grounds which every one knows to be moral grounds, will seriously damage the College in the eyes of the people of the State, and so bring upon it material loss, is to maintain that the people have undergone a change so radical, both in mind and manners, as to make Massachusetts unfit to contain a university at all. For a university which practically tells its students that it is better to condone baseness than lose money certainly forfeits much of its value to a civilized community.

The whole matter is full of suggestion as to the practice of bestowing honorary degrees on anybody for anything but services to learning. The practice of giving them to high State officers and to soldiers has been borrowed from England, but it ought never to have found a footing here. Making the Duke of Wellington a Doctor of Civil Law because he won the battle of Waterloo was a ridiculous process, but not so ridiculous as making B. F. Butler a Doctor of Laws because he was elected Governor of Massachusetts would be. If his case puts an end to this abuse of university honors, he will not have lived in vain.

MORALITY AMONG ECONOMISTS.

THERE is something about the tariff, as about horsedealing, which seems injurious to the morality of even the best men who engage in the discussion of it, and the reason why, we take it, is the same in both cases. Horsedealing tempts men into fraud and deception because the facts of a horse's condition are so difficult to discover. This is simply another way of saying that the prospect of impunity promotes lying, as well as other vices. The facts of the tariff controversy are very hard to get at, and are really within the reach only of a few, and the mere collection of them requires a good deal of skill and acumen. Consequently the public is rarely in a position to judge which side has the true and reliable facts, and is apt to be bewildered rather than enlightened by the controversy. We do not mean to say that the free-traders are in this matter above reproach, but we do mean to say that it is seldom that they have a personal interest in the result. Most English manufacturers are free-traders, it is true, but the great bulk of free-traders everywhere are persons whose interest in free trade is simply that of the great body of consumers. They want simply to escape taxation, while the leading protectionists expect to put some of the taxes in their own pockets, and have on their hands the arduous job of persuading the taxpayers that this will be a good thing for them also, and that the higher their taxes are the better off they will be. The protectionist temptation, therefore, to tell lies is, we think it must be admitted, much stronger than the free-trade temptation, and we are consequently not discriminating unfairly when we say that more protectionists than free-traders succumb to it. The protectionists are, in fact, very much in this matter in the position of the man who is trying to sell the horse, and the free-traders in that of the man who proposes to buy him. In all such cases the vender undoubtedly makes grosser departures from accuracy in praising the animal than the vendee in running him down; and it was, in fact, to stimulate the vendee's vigilance that the common law laid down the great and familiar rule of *caveat emptor*.

We have been led into these remarks by a recent letter in the *Tribune* from the Rev. Cyrus Hamlin, the President of the not very famous University of Middlebury, Vt. Why Mr. Hamlin should have rushed into the tariff controversy, it is hard to see, as he has, as far as is known, no special equipment for it, and has spent thirty years of his life in Turkey. But rush into it he did a little while ago in a letter to the *Journal* of the American Agricultural Association, in which he fell a victim to the worst of the temptations by which protectionist controversialists are assailed—the temptation to tell stories about the use of British gold by the Cobden Club to spread free-trade doctrines in the United States and corrupt members of Congress. Mr. Hamlin's particular story was that "the Cobden Club had expended vast sums during the last twelve or fifteen years to incite our farmers against the Government and the manufacturers." There was a certain absurdity in this story which is, perhaps, not unnatural on the part of a gentleman who, having passed the flower of his years in Turkey, is revealing an attempt to "incite the American farmers against the Government," which they themselves are. This, however, was the slip of a writer who was long used to thinking of "the Government" as a popular enemy. The important

point is that Mr. Hamlin announced the expenditure of vast sums by a certain organization on a particular object. If Mr. Hamlin had been longer in the country he would have been warned away from this class of statement by Dorsey's fate. When Dorsey was Secretary of the Republican National Committee in 1880, he concocted, or circulated, a pamphlet for campaign purposes pretending to give extracts from a publication of "the Free-Trade Club of London" which was never issued, there being no such club in existence. When this was exposed, as it was promptly, he publicly denied that any such pamphlet had ever been circulated by the Republican Committee. The falsehood of this also was soon exposed, and then he relapsed into dead silence. But all this while he was robbing the Government, and is now in the hands of the law. One lie, as we see, entailed the telling of another, and when any one else tells lies about the Cobden or other clubs, may not people ask, What other things of this kind is he doing?

Mr. D. A. Wells has exposed Mr. Hamlin's statement by showing that the income of the Cobden Club never exceeded in any one year $22,000, and that its average income was about $6,000; that the expenditure of this has been all accounted for in published reports, and that the members are men of the highest character, belonging to every European country, as little capable of inciting farmers against their own Government as Mr. Hamlin himself. Now, what answer does Mr. Hamlin make to this? Remember, he is an old clergyman and the President of a religious college; and now mark the effect of the tariff on his moral constitution. He has not one word of proof of his assertion. All he has to say is that "in affirming that the Cobden Club had expended vast sums during the past fifteen years to excite the farmers against the Government, he only asserted what was popularly known and believed." He then goes on to be indignant, just as Dorsey was, that Mr. Wells should have accused him of falsehood, but says that having lived thirty-five years among the Turks, he is less troubled by such violations of "the rules of gentlemanly intercourse" than "those who have lived in a civilized and Christian country." But then indifference to rudeness of speech is by no means the only effect of long residence among Turks. The remainder of his letter is an attempt to show, by the *à priori* method, how natural it would be for the Cobden Club to do what he untruly said it had done—a means of escape from his difficulty the use of which by an instructor of youth is really painful.

PROFESSORIAL SALARIES IN AMERICA.

We publish in another column a letter from a correspondent touching the effect on the condition of the American universities of the small pay received by the professors. He contends that a man who has the stuff of a good professor in him, or, as "N. N." calls it, "the grit of spontaneous scholarship," will not allow the smallness of his salary to "cool his ardor or check his enthusiasm"; and he points to the vigor and industry of the German professors as showing how little effect poverty really has, or ought to have, on the quality of university teaching. Unfortunately, this illustration overlooks the fact that professors, like other people, are influenced largely by their environment. They are not monks or soldiers, and do not form communities apart living in monasteries or barracks. They are part of the society which they serve, and share in its tastes, habits, and standards. The German professor cares little about money, because plain living is the rule not simply of his own class but of the official and professional class; that is, of the best society throughout Germany. In other words, it is "the thing" to be poor, and live as if you were poor, in Germany. The military and civil officers who form the flower of German society are poorly paid, and not only make no attempt at display, but look on display or luxury as vulgar. They get the consideration which they enjoy not from their means, but from their position. The possession or acquisition of money is, therefore, not a sign of social success. A man's wife and children are not troubled by his not possessing it. Some of the most highly placed and respected men in the community live no better than the German professor does, entertain no better, and have as little money as he has. Consequently the world at large in Germany does not associate failure or small value with a small salary. It has constantly before its eyes great and successful men who are also poor. It does not place the money-making power highest or even high among the human faculties. There has undoubtedly been a change in this respect since the war, but nevertheless it is in the main true that in Germany no one thinks as yet of estimating a man's worth by the pay he gets, or thinks of measuring the amount of respect due to him by the way in which he lives.

Now, we wish very much that this state of things existed here or in England. But it does not exist. Moreover, it is passing away more or less rapidly in all the countries in which it does exist. All civilized societies in our day tend to the commercial type, and more and more adopt the commercial standards and tests. Consequently we see no chance of introducing it here, and, though it is everybody's duty not to drift idly with the current, it is sheer waste of strength to try to row dead against it. The people, or perhaps we should rather say the farmers, of the United States, who are not used to handling or spending large sums of money, have been making a gallant effort during the last three-quarters of a century, in fixing the salaries of public offices, to rebuke the notion that money ought to be the main consideration for an American officeholder. Accordingly, in nearly all the States the salaries of judges and other functionaries have been fixed with reference to the wants of an ideal man of really lofty soul, utterly absorbed in the pursuit of things not seen, and by no means in reference to the wants of the ordinary American man of our time, whom we have to get to fill nearly all our salaried positions, with a wife who likes comfort and expects some share in the social life around her, and children who chafe, as all children do, under poverty, and like a taste of the good things that are going. The result has been simply that the leading lawyers hardly ever go on the bench, and that the ablest business men will not accept political positions, but take service with the great moneyed corporations. There is, in fact, in our time an immense and most unfortunate diversion of the talent of the country away from the administrative service of the Government, mainly owing to the smallness of the pay and the precariousness of the position.

Our colleges have largely fallen into the same mistake. Not only have they overlooked the great loss of influence which has overtaken the ministry, and with it the professorial calling which was at one time so closely connected with the ministry, and the great changes in the manners and customs and standards of living of the community which have taken place, but they have persisted, like our correspondent, in setting up an ideal professor of their own construction, asking him how much salary he needed, and paying all the others accordingly. What the Ideal Professor always says is, that the merest trifle is enough for him and his family; that they are in fact so absorbed in study that they hardly know what they eat or wear, and that they should be ashamed of themselves if they needed much money. The actual professor is, however, a totally different person. He is mostly a modern American, fond of books and teaching and study, it may be, but also fond of such of the social and æsthetic pleasures of his time as he can afford. The proof is that there is, we believe, no case on record of a wealthy professor living with the Spartan simplicity which college trustees try to persuade themselves that all professors love.

In fact, poverty and very plain living are things which, as has been wittily observed about *mariages de raison*, everybody thinks good for other people, but which hardly anybody thinks good for himself. It does not follow from all this that a life of luxury or of devotion to money-getting is good for professors any more than for other people. There is a measure in salaries and in money-getting, as in everything else. Man was intended to be a moderate animal. But it does follow from it that it is in our time, and in our country, bad policy for the great institutions of learning to hold out the teaching profession to the young men as a little corner reserved in the midst of our luxurious American society for the practice of endurance and fortitude. It ought to be held out to the rising talent of every generation as a calling in which, like all others, a man who loves it and pursues it with zeal can have not only its special and peculiar pleasures, but also a fair amount of the material comforts which the bulk of his countrymen seek, and are praised for seeking by all contemporary moralists and theologians.

THE FRENCH EXPEDITION TO TONQUIN.

In 1840, while the power of Mehemet Ali was being overthrown by the intervention of the Quadruple Alliance, M. Thiers, then Prime Minister of France, proclaimed it as his task to reconquer Egypt on the Rhine. At the present moment the leading idea of French

statesmen seems to be, that the prestige of France which was lost on the Rhine in 1870, must be reconquered in Africa and Asia. M. Challemel-Lacour, Minister of Foreign Affairs, in his reply to a recent interpellation, almost confessed this in saying that the reverses of twelve years ago had rendered it necessary for France "to make her influence felt among distant populations, which had been misled as to her situation." Hence the occupation and virtual annexation of Tunis, and at this moment fighting on the Niger, war on the Hovas in Madagascar, a conquering expedition up the Congo, and a greater warlike enterprise for the subjection of Tonquin, and probably of all Anam, in Further India. Concerning this last enterprise—by far the most important—Challemel-Lacour declared that France had been provoked by the Emperor of Anam. He had violated the treaty of 1874, and recognized the suzerainty of China. He had permitted the persecution of French subjects, and encouraged brigandage. France had sent out an expedition to restore order and enforce respect for treaties. It had met with hostilities from Chinese and Anamese, and was now forced to repel aggression, convincing the Chinese that the French did not mean to withdraw, but to occupy permanently certain points of the country. To explain the complication, an historical retrospect is necessary.

Tonquin and Cochin China, which now form the main portions of the Anamese Empire, or Kingdom, were dependencies of China down to the early part of the fifteenth century, when they shook off the foreign yoke and established a native dynasty. Rival dynasties arose in the following three centuries, and about a hundred years ago the earlier ones had been almost exterminated. The last scion of the Cochin-Chinese house of Nguyen, Nguyen-anh, having been educated in the Christian religion—which the persecuted missionaries and converts from Japan and other countries had largely propagated—by an ambitious French bishop, Pigneau de Béhaine, Apostolic Vicar of Cochin China, invoked against the reigning dynasty the aid of France. The Bishop concluded a treaty with Louis XVI.—the pretender ceding to France the Peninsula of Turon and some islands—returned with a French squadron in 1789, acted as the military guide of his pupil, and, after a long war, succeeded in firmly establishing him on the throne. Nguyen-anh became also master of Tonquin, and proclaimed himself Emperor of Anam, under the name of Gya-long. His successor, however, who reigned from 1820 to 1841, was so disgusted with the intrigues of the missionaries that he began a bloody persecution of the Christians, and his son, Thieu-tri, imitated his example. The French repeatedly interfered with armed force, but without lasting results. The present Emperor, Tu-duc, who in 1847 robbed his elder brother of the succession, renewed the persecutions, and in 1857 put to death a Spanish bishop, whom Napoleon III. determined to revenge. The French captured Turon, south of the capital, Hué, in 1858; subsequently stormed Saigon, in Lower Cambodia, and other places; and in 1862 forced Tu-duc to cede to them the principal parts of the territories now constituting their great Eastern possession, French Cochin China.

What mainly compelled Tu-duc to submit to the invaders was a simultaneous rising of the Tonquinese, under the lead of Pedro Phuong, a Catholic Christian, descended from one of the old native dynasties, and their advance from the north toward the central province of his empire, while the French were pressing him from the south. The latter subsequently extended the borders of their new possession, and in various ways exasperated the Anamese monarch, who finally made an attempt to secure the aid of China by acknowledging the ancient suzerain rights of the Celestial Monarch, and sending him presents as tribute. The French, provoked and alarmed, extorted a new treaty in 1874, which, though it nominally recognized the sovereignty of Tu-duc, virtually made him their vassal. He bound himself to place his foreign policy under their control, to revoke his anti-Christian decrees, to open to them the principal ports of Tonquin, to admit small French garrisons into those ports, and to allow French vessels free navigation on the Red (or Yellow) River, the main artery of that northern province—a province abounding in tropical products and rich in mineral wealth. The French, however, did not succeed in gaining the favor of the Tonquinese, and have of late been repeatedly harassed by hostile movements, variously designated by the French authorities as attacks by rebels or brigands, Anamese hostilities, and invasions from China, which has not ceased to consider itself the suzerain of Tonquin and of all Anam. Tu-duc is now accused of having broken the treaty of 1874 and joined forces with China, and there is an official French report according to which the French garrison of the citadel of Hanoi, on the Red River, repulsed, on March 28, with great loss, an attack by 4,000 "Anamese or Chinese."

To remove the difficulty with China, the French representative at Pekin, M. Bourée, undertook, on his own responsibility, the negotiation of a treaty, and obtained from the Chinese court the following draft: China recognizes a French protectorate over Tonquin; a neutral zone is established between the province and the empire, with some privileges for the latter. She allows free navigation on the Red River, and receives, in compensation, the possession of the town of Laokai, in Tonquin. M. Challemel-Lacour rejected the treaty, as recognizing Chinese sovereign rights over Anam, and recalled M. Bourée. At the same time a special envoy, M. Kergaradec, was sent with a letter from President Grévy to Tu-duc. This letter, according to explanations made on May 9, by the French Minister of Marine and the Colonies, before the Tonquin Committee of the Assembly, notifies the Anamese ruler that his inability to insure tranquillity in Tonquin forces the French to undertake the task and establish themselves definitively in that province. It invites him to abstain from opposition, and order the mandarins to remain at their posts. He is asked to sign a protocol recognizing not only the intended occupation, but "a French protectorate over the whole of Anam," and the right of the French to impose customs duties and taxes. For all this he is guaranteed the integrity of his dominions, and about a third of the revenues. The Minister estimated that 30,000,000 francs might annually be collected in Tonquin, now supposed to contain 15,000,000 inhabitants, or nearly three-fourths of the total population of the empire. Of this sum one-third would be devoted to the expenses of the administration, another to public works, and the rest given to the Anamese monarch—"if he adopted French views." If he refuses to sign the protocol, from aversion to French views, and in reliance on his army of more than 100,000 men, there will be a new war, and "the glorious sons of France" who, with their commander, Rivière, fell a few days ago in a reconnoitring sally from the fortified position at Hanoi, will soon be avenged by the bombardment of populous cities. An impassable belt of forests and swamps will prevent China, even if she dares to be openly hostile, from doing great things, and England can afford to look on. We venture to predict, however, that the French Minister's financial expectations will not be realized.

THE ASTOR AND LENOX LIBRARIES.

THE spring crop of complaints of the Astor and Lenox libraries is coming up with its usual luxuriance. The first charge against the Astor, which we find in the Boston *Transcript* (April 17), is that there is in print only an author-catalogue, and that the card author-and-subject catalogue is so inaccurate and so injudiciously planned as to be nearly useless and entirely unfit to print. The instances given are the same that were cited by the same writer a year ago, and have no doubt long since been corrected. Still, we have reason to think that those who are competent to judge of the requirements of the present day in the matter of cataloguing would find the existing basis of the proposed new Astor catalogue regrettably deficient. The writer proposes "a full investigation" on the part of the Board of Trustees, who are, however, unfortunately, committed in favor of the *status quo* by their order, two years ago, to prepare the card catalogue for printing in the form and style of the four volumes of Dr. Cogswell's already published—a catalogue which even when it was issued was behind the times, and now is antiquated by several generations.

But the *Transcript* writer has another remedy, which is truly heroic—and which, we may be sure, will never be applied—and that is, to burn up the cards and recatalogue the library. He advocates it on the ground that this would be less expensive and surer than to correct at least half of the cards. We do not think so, provided that the correction is made by plenty of brains, assisted by plenty of hands to do the mechanical part of the work and save the time of the brains. We have no means of knowing if this latter is actually the case; but, if we may judge by what we have seen in other places, we should think it likely that the revisers now at work are not provided with the mechanical appliances that would abridge their labor; that they are not put in that part of the library where they would work to most advantage; that they are not furnished underlings who would be to them what the scullion is to the cook, or the cash-boy to the salesman; and that they are not allowed to work on in that quiet in which good work best grows, free from the hurrying which inevitably produces mistakes.

The other charge is that both the Astor and the Lenox are not open often enough and long enough. In regard to the Astor the reproach may be soon undeserved, for we have heard that it is proposed to open one room at night, where persons not at liberty during the day can consult works which they have asked, by postal-card or otherwise, to have laid aside for them. It is true, we heard the same thing a year ago, yet it is no longer spoken with bated breath, but is boldly published in the newspapers. About the Lenox we hear no such rumor, nor does the pressure of visitors at that library at present appear to call for any such extension of time. The Lenox has a peculiar character. We have once before urged that it should be called a museum rather than a library. It is in large measure a collection of curiosities of the history of typography—of books not without value for their contents, yet got together less for their intrinsic worth than because they show the progress of the arts of printing, of engraving, or of binding, and sometimes, it would seem, simply in order to have a *complete* collection of certain things, which is the highest power (or, as some would prefer to call it, the lowest depth) of collecting. This museum-making is a part of the purpose of every large library—a very large part of the work of the European libraries ; and to listen to a certain class of bibliophiles, one would fancy that there was no branch of learning more important than the quesion whether Haarlem or Strassburg saw the first printing, whether the Coverdale Bible was printed at Antwerp or Zurich. Nay, they will even go further, and manifest a certain contempt for all less recondite inquiries, just as in France those who devote themselves to what the public calls "mere textual criticism" claim for their work no humbler title than *les hautes études*. When we began to have libraries in this country, of course a certain amount of this way of thinking grew up with them, but it never flourished, because the antiquarian taste had little material to gratify it. Our libraries have run into other grooves, most of them more practical, and all of more general interest. And even in England the rise of rate-supported libraries has led to a state of feeling in which the library is considered quite as much one of the instruments of popular education as a place for the exclusive study of one very limited subject, and praise is meted out to it rather for its success in circulating than for its capacity for preserving books.

In this country certainly, though it is to be hoped that the work of the collector and the preserver will never cease, the library that devotes itself wholly to this object ; that seeks to obtain only what is rare ; that does not, as it were, hide its bibliomaniac features under a veil of popular utility ; that resists the demands of the people, reasonable or unreasonable, for greater privileges, and does not follow popular bibliothecal fashions, must be looked upon as a survival. Just now it provokes irritation in some minds, because the fashion which it represents is recent enough to appear ridiculous rather than venerable, as all fashions do which have just vanished; but to our children it will be most interesting, possibly may even find imitators. This is by no means to be desired, because, unless imitations are made with the greatest care, they may provoke laughter and bring a good thing into disrepute, like our stage-coach driving and our anise-seed hunts. Besides, if anything is to be done to preserve antiquity, it is best that all efforts should be concentrated on one library to make that a perfect success, and the Lenox bids fair soon to have the field all to itself. The Astor and Columbia College have been dangerous rivals to it, but the Astor is becoming gradually modernized. Its additional hour granted two or three years ago, its evening study-room almost promised now, show that it cannot resist the spirit of the age. The libraries of Columbia College were, and still are, even less modern in management, but a revolution is impending there. Rumors fill the air of most wonderful changes in contemplation, which shall make of the consolidated collections a library inferior in plan, and perhaps ultimately in size, to none in the country. The Lenox alone is left as the representative of the past. It is another excellent example of the survival of the fittest to survive.

THE PROSPECTS OF THE GOVERNMENT.

LONDON, May 9.

THE defeat which the Government suffered in the division on their Affirmation Bill has set people thinking seriously about their future and that of the present Parliament. It is the first heavy check they have encountered, and our experience is that a Ministry which has once been beaten in a pitched battle seldom recovers its strength and never its prestige. Had this battle been one of a distinctly party character, the Ministry must of course have resigned. But the bill they were beaten on was no part of their political programme. They did not take the matter up because they regarded it as one of political consequence, but merely in order to extricate the House of Commons and the constituency of Northampton from a deadlock which was disquieting both to Parliament and to the country. As they contended that the House of Commons had erred in refusing to permit Mr. Bradlaugh to take the oath after his reëlection for Northampton, they might perhaps have left it to bear or to settle for itself the consequences of that error. But there is a general feeling in England that when any screw gets loose, it is the business of the Executive to put it into its place again, and the fact that the question of Mr. Bradlaugh's admission remained open was damaging the Ministry in both directions. It was discrediting them with a section of the religious public by making them appear as the people who wished to bring him into Parliament; it was also offending some of the extreme radicals among the working classes, who thought that the Government were not sufficiently zealous in taking every step to vindicate the rights of a constituency to seat whatever member it pleased. Thus the Government, believing that an Affirmation Bill would pass without much difficulty, resolved to get the matter out of the way before a general election approached, and to relieve the House of Commons from a source of embarrassment and loss of time which was apt to reappear at the wrong moment. This was very different from bringing forward one of the measures promised by them when they came originally into power, or one of those which the Liberal party has ever committed itself to, or one which they took up, so to speak, of their own motion, without the happening of any difficulty which required a solution. Hence, their defeat was not taken as a defeat which, according to constitutional usage, indicated the withdrawal of the confidence of Parliament from them and demanded their resignation.

Even had it borne somewhat more of a party character, there were strong reasons why a resignation would have been inexpedient. If the Tory party had come into power, it could not have gone on with the present House of Commons, because in that House the Liberal majority is so decided that it would have had frequent defeats to face. The alternative—the necessary alternative—would have been a dissolution. But the Tories are not ready for a dissolution. In the first place, the land-owning country gentlemen, who compose so large a part of their body, have been suffering from the depression of British agriculture, and do not desire the expense of a general election. Further, they think that the reaction toward Conservatism which they believe to be in progress has not yet had time to work fully, and will be more in their favor two or three years hence than at this moment. And lastly, they cannot, any more than the Liberals, contemplate without anxiety the probable results of a general election in Ireland. The Nationalist party there now counts something over thirty members. A general election would probably raise its strength to sixty or seventy. If the two great British parties were at all nearly balanced (which is the most probable result of a general election), these Nationalists would hold the balance of power, and would be able, by always opposing the party in office, to turn out first one Ministry and then another. There are restless spirits in the Tory party who would face this risk, or any risk, for the sake of having their revenge on Mr. Gladstone. But such is not the judgment of the Tory leaders, who know how difficult their task would be under such conditions, and how serious the strain on parliamentary institutions. Hence Sir Stafford Northcote expressly declared that he did not regard the question of the Affirmation Bill as a party issue. And what has happened is exactly what he and the more judicious Tory chiefs desire—Mr. Gladstone's Ministry remains in power, but it is damaged. Its hold over its followers is weakened. Its capacities for revolutionary change are diminished. It may continue to reign, but will be less able to govern. And this lessened force and energy, preventing it from redeeming the promises of legislation which it made, will be but the prelude to its fall when the next general election comes.

These are the views of the Conservatives, and also of many Liberals, some unhopeful by temperament, some disaffected to Mr. Gladstone, and glad by the openness of their prophecies to help to make those prophecies come true. There is, however, also another view, which I give for what it is worth. It insists that the Government have not really suffered. They have had a shake, but nothing more than a shake. Their check was not due to any blunder of their own, such as they must be admitted to have made in South Africa, but to an outburst of religious prejudice in the country which no one could have foretold. The people of England and Scotland know well enough that Mr. Gladstone has as little sympathy with Mr. Bradlaugh's infidelity and Lord Granville with his Republicanism as any Evangelicals or Tories in the country, and are not, therefore, misled by the attempts to daub the Ministry with the brush of Bradlaughism. Thoroughgoing Liberals, such as the bulk of the Nonconformists and the working classes, honor and trust the Ministry all the more for being willing to face unpopularity for the sake of principle. As for the defeat in the House of Commons, it was due to two sets of persons. One set is the disaffected pseudo-Liberals, consisting of some eight or ten persons who mostly (it is thought) from personal motives take every opportunity of injuring the Ministry, and might really be classed with the Tories. Their defection has no moral significance. The other set of deserters are the Irish Roman Catholic Liberals and the Ulster Presbyterians. Both these groups of Irishmen are in ordinary cases the most faithful supporters of the Government, bound to them by the strongest ties of interest, because they have every motive for trying to delay a dissolution. There is no other question likely to arise on which they would fail to follow Mr. Gladstone, and their absence from this division is therefore of no evil omen for the future. With these arguments the more eager

Liberals seek to comfort themselves, and they have so far succeeded that the loyalty of the party to its leaders remains undiminished, as well in Parliament as through the country.

There is, however, another and perhaps a graver danger which the Government have to face. It is that of getting little or no legislation out of this session. Except as regards the Bradlaugh question, there have been no special troubles this year. Ireland has been fairly quiet. The resettlement of Egypt has gone on as well as, or better than, could have been expected; nor has Parliament been interrupted by debates respecting it. Yet in spite of this immunity from executive difficulties, the business of law-making does not advance. The middle of the session has been reached, for to-day the Whitsuntide vacation begins, yet some of the most important bills have not yet been introduced, while with others very little progress has been made. These are not contentious bills, raising political issues. They are bills which might almost as well have been brought in by Tories as by Liberals. Bankruptcy, the establishment of a Court of Criminal Appeal, the codification of our criminal procedure, the reform of the Scotch universities, the prevention of floods, the provision of adequate compensation for improvements made by agricultural tenants, the stricter repression of corrupt practices at elections—these are the chief subjects on which the Government has presented or is presenting bills, and none of these ought to be fought on party lines or with that bitter tenacity which party feeling inspires. Moreover, the Government spent six weeks last autumn in framing and carrying a new set of rules of Parliamentary procedure intended to prevent obstruction and to save time in a variety of ways. They have not, therefore, the same excuse as formerly for the delays which occur and which they used to blame on the faulty regulations of the House of Commons. Yet the broad fact remains that business moves as slowly or more slowly than ever, and that there is likely to be a very poor show of work done when the session closes.

To what is this due? The Ministerialists say, to obstruction, Conservative obstruction (for the Irish Nationalist members have done very little in that way lately), but obstruction too skilfully manipulated to be dealt with by the new rules of procedure. It is obstruction, they say, which consists not so much in talking against time on any one particular measure, as in using all the opportunities which the forms of the House of Commons give for wasting time upon every measure and every question, so that all business is delayed. It is impalpable—too impalpable for our new rule of closure to seize and throttle it—but it is none the less real and mischievous.

Then what is to be done? The first result will doubtless be to discredit the present Government. However true it may be—I do not say that it is true, but present the case as the Ministerialists present it—that the Government cannot help themselves, and are prevented by this persistent obstruction from giving the country the measures which it desires, still the country will lay the blame at the door of the Government. The country will remind them that it gave them a majority of fifty or more at the last general election, and will ask them what they have done with that majority. If the rules of the House were in fault, why not have reformed the rules of the House in a bolder and more stringent fashion? If the minority is obstinately obstructive, why not crush the minority? Anything is better than Parliamentary impotence. For this is the further and more serious result to be apprehended. If the Tories play the game of obstruction now so successfully, will not the Liberals play it in turn when they are in opposition? Between the wranglings of these two factions nothing will be done. Then the country, disgusted with the selfishness and imbecility of Parliament, will take the matter into its own hands. It will turn the Prime Minister of the day into a sort of dictator, make the House of Commons a mere congeries of delegates, whose majority is charged to obey the dictator. Parliamentary control over the Executive will almost disappear, for the Executive will feel responsible not to Parliament, but to the constituencies; and the constituencies will of course mean the local wirepullers and party managers, who will by that time have perfected themselves in the art, still rudimentary here, of managing the constituencies.

Such are the forecasts which we are beginning to hear. Nor can any one say that there is not some ground for them. Still, there are those who hold that it is not so much Parliament in itself that is to blame, as the principle of parliamentary government—as this present Parliament of ours, which is not sufficiently amenable to the nation, containing many members who sit for small boroughs, and others for counties which return them rather on social than on political grounds. These persons insist that what we want is a bold measure of Parliamentary reform, which shall sweep away all the small constituencies, and bring popular force more directly to bear upon the House of Commons. I have, at any rate, said enough to show you that there is much disquiet here among politicians and political thinkers, and that the grounds for disquiet lie deeper than any mere anticipations of misfortune for the present Government. In fact, the better opinion seems to be that Mr. Gladstone's Ministry is in no immediate danger, and probably will not be so long as it is Mr. Gladstone's. Y.

NEW SOCIAL TYPES IN ENGLISH LIFE.

LONDON, May 14, 1883.

YOUR account of the Dude, that newest social type in New York life, has been read with interest in England, and has set some of us thinking how far any creature corresponding to it can be discovered among the fauna of contemporary England. So far, our researches have been rewarded by no success. The name is unknown here, and the thing seems to exist only sporadically. There are individuals answering exactly to your description, possessing all the specific characters of the Dude as well intellectual as external, who, if transplanted to Fifth Avenue, would doubtless be undistinguishable from the specimens observed there. But our naturalists have not taken note of the species as a species; we possess no name for it, and its very existence might have remained unnoticed but for your careful and instructive account. It would be interesting to inquire what are the causes which have developed into a large and well-marked class peculiarities which here occur only in isolated individuals; but it is perhaps more profitable to throw together some remarks on other social types which have latterly become conspicuous in England, so as to direct the attention of American observers to them, with the view of ascertaining how far they exist west of the Atlantic, and whether, like most American species of animals and plants, they present, along with a general resemblance to the Old World species, certain distinctive features of their own, due to the conditions of transatlantic life.

The first of these types, and the only one which has received a special name, is the Masher. He resembles your Dude in being characterized chiefly by his dress, but is unlike him in the style and aspects of that dress. Quietness, which would seem to be the "note" of the Dude, is absent in the Masher. His dress is pronounced, calculated not to escape, but to attract, attention. In some specimens it goes the length of becoming what is called "loud," in others it is no more than up to the top of the fashion. In all the chief elements of masculine attire, and particularly in the tight frock coat, this character appears, but the specially distinctive point is the collar, which the Masher wears low but erect, and enclosing his neck all round with no perceptible aperture in front. He may also be recognized by his stick, and by the fact that he is usually to be seen with something in his mouth, either a cigarette, or a toothpick, or one end of his (usually double-headed) stick. He is observed to the best advantage in Hyde Park, on the footpaths which border the riding and driving roads in Rotten Row, where he stands leaning on the iron railings, and watches the fashionable world pass by him in carriages or on horseback. His name has excited much controversy. Some explain it as expressing his power of reducing others to pulp by his superior chic, but this is far too obvious to be true. Another school connects it with the French verb which means to chew, referring to his habit of keeping something between his lips, while others again trace the word to the Gypsy language, that last desperate resort of baffled etymologists. Although he is commonly treated as a perfectly new appearance, I doubt whether he is not rather to be regarded as a revival of the "dandy" of the last generation, of whom, as the readers of 'Sartor Resartus' will recollect, Bulwer's Pelham was taken as a type, just as the dandy himself recalls the "buck" or "blood" of last century.

The Masher, however, is less obtrusively offensive than was the dandy: his finery is not so gaudy, his manner less elaborate, and noticeable rather for complacent inanity than for conceited self-assertion. Not, indeed, that the Masher is necessarily a fool; he may be and sometimes is a sufficiently sharp fellow. But his aim is to appear completely indifferent to everything; superior not so much in being more fashionable than other people as in being untouched by the common emotions of mankind, careless of what fortune may have in store for him. He expresses on their social side those cynical tendencies which are always powerful in an over-cultivated and overluxurious capital, and which the scepticism of the time has stimulated and heightened in people who have themselves nothing to do with speculative thought. He is not necessarily fast, much less consciously vicious, but he has few interests and no enthusiasms. His languid manner seems to tell you that at twenty-three he has drained to its dregs the cup of life. But though the world has little to detain him, he will be true to himself while he remains in it; will keep at least abreast of every fashion; will go through the regular round of amusements—not because he expects to be amused, but because it is the thing to do so. His conversation is as curt as his manner is impassive, and he carries to its highest point the English gift of keeping every inflection, every rise or fall of musical key, out of his voice.

American readers who have enjoyed Mr. Du Maurier's social studies in *Punch* and Mr. W. S. Gilbert's "Patience" will naturally ask whether the "Æsthete" does not constitute another type, more original and more clearly marked. Well, the truth is—and the truth, however mortifying, must be told—that the Æsthete never existed out of *Punch*. He is the creation of Mr. Du Maurier and Mr. Gilbert. Individuals, indeed, there were and are who possessed one or other of the marks which those ingenious artists grouped to-

gether, but these marks never met in the same person, except in the case of a few people who consciously posed for the part. A consciously self-created type has of course no interest for the naturalist, because it is not really a type, not a creation of nature, but an artificial product. It is of no more scientific value than a made shell. There were, no doubt, a certain number of young ladies who dressed fantastically, a certain smaller number of people of both sexes who talked affectedly about poetry, painting, and music. The Grosvenor Gallery and the Browning societies, which have started up in London, Cambridge, and Oxford, are the most conspicuous *Erscheinungen*, as the Germans would say, of this tendency. Any one who visits the Grosvenor Gallery on its private-view day, or listens to the conversation of the members of these societies, will see fashions in dress and hear fashions in talk which are no doubt curious, and give matter for remark to the student of taste and manners. With some affectation, there is also a really quickened perception of what is beautiful and harmonious in color, and perhaps a more subtle discernment of shades of feeling, a livelier interest in abnormal phases of thought. But the reality is so much less amusing than the caricature which *Punch* and "Patience" have given us that one must not attempt to describe it, nor could it be described without a dissertation on a hundred other tendencies in modern England.

There are, however, two other new, or almost new, types among our young men and young women, which may be noted. The former is to be found only in the universities and in London, and even in London only among university men from whom their mint-stamp has not yet been worn off. Its "note" is a certain sort of finish and polish, a refinement in thought, speech, manner, which seems to be the result of a critical habit of mind, a carefully-cultivated taste, and a keen self-consciousness. These youths have the air of being older than their age; they are men of the world, yet not necessarily worldly, for many of them are unselfish and full of interest, not only in art and literature, but in projects for improving the condition of the poor. They are too critical to be enthusiastic, too sensitive to ridicule to betray themselves in any vehement expression of zeal; but scepticism has not gone so far as to make them cynics, much less pessimists. Their minds have been softened by literary and artistic influences into a lively susceptibility to what is beautiful or good, but the fire and force of their natures seem to have been chastened away in the elaborate process of culture which not only their education, but still more their social intercourse with one another, has brought to bear upon them. Those seniors who compare them with the university youth of twenty or thirty years ago, say they have less steam and go, but much greater skill and delicacy. They may be less able to wield a broadsword, but they can more effectively handle a rapier. Without profound knowledge, they have the air of knowing all that it is necessary to know about all human subjects; they are equally at home in the ancient and in the modern world. Their taste in art is catholic, and their observations such as one can hardly venture to differ from. They rarely care much about politics, and oscillate between a mildly cultivated Conservatism and a mildly discriminating Liberalism, though some few, while despising the current politics of the day, have an interest in Socialism, and may be heard to enunciate alarming opinions in reassuring tones. They are clever speakers as well as writers, with a considerable fondness for epigram; indeed, their talk is apt to suffer from a too obvious desire to "score," as they express it, off their interlocutor, although the object is not to wound him, but merely to display their own smartness. Such young men are produced more abundantly at Oxford than at Cambridge, where the type is always a little more robust or more rough than at the sister university. Their contributions to literature have been so far mostly anonymous, and the best fruit they have yet borne is to be perceived in several volumes of verse, full of delicacy and grace, and agreeable by the finish of the workmanship even when the ideas are not remarkable.

The type of cultivated young lady which has developed side by side with this type of young man would need a more careful analysis, because she is less distinctly the outgrowth of particular educational institutions and the particular life they embody. If she is emancipated, it is by no means in the vulgar sense of the word. There is nothing startling about her manners. Her dress, though it would have been thought *outré* a few years ago, is less masculine than that of the fashionable "fast" girl, and her language, too, is far less loud and slangy. She is mostly an adherent of the female-suffrage party, and of what may be called the "woman's-rights programme" generally, but she does not press it upon you in an obtrusive way. Her specific mark, next to the passion for art which she shares with the Æsthete, is the freedom, or perhaps the total absence, of her religious opinions. Till lately it was tacitly assumed in England that whatever men might think, women at any rate, and especially young women, were pious, and, being pious, were also orthodox. Now, one finds them avowing their rejection of all faiths more openly than most men would do, perhaps because they care more about the matter, and are less absorbed in the ordinary avocations of life. Of course it is but few who do so; yet that even a few should do so is a new and notable feature in the life of our time, when so many of the old silences and conventions have vanished, and when women have claimed and taken a share in so much which men had formerly kept to themselves. Yet few will say that Englishwomen have so far suffered in the respect they inspire.

Y.

BISMARCK'S LITTLE GAMES.

BERLIN, May 13.

YOU know the tale of the Egyptian kings who, immediately after death, were wrapped in their royal robes, and, with crowns upon their heads, were put on the throne, where they were represented as still living and ruling the people. The courtiers and officers of the deceased monarch kept up the feint as long as possible in order to help themselves to the crumbs of their master's table. This same stratagem is almost repeated here, for the old Emperor, although bodily in comparatively good health, is intellectually daily failing more and more, and only offers the appearance of an independent ruler. Bismarck avails himself of this state of affairs to fortify his position by royal messages, like the one of April 14 last, which interfere with the Reichstag's order of the day, or others which contain only his own (the Chancellor's) commands and wishes. There are several dodges which he uses for that purpose. The most common of them is the pretence that the Reichstag assails the reserved rights of the crown, and especially that it tries to interfere with the Emperor's most sacred prerogative, viz., the appointment of the commanders of the German army. Thus the old Emperor was made to believe that the former Secretaries of the army and the navy, Generals Kameke and Stosch, had not energetically enough defended his rights; and even after their retirement he informed them in a private letter that he had felt bound to dismiss them for these reasons. Another interesting item in this respect is the fact that when the latter of these gentlemen was to have his last audience with the Emperor, General von Albedyll, Chief of the Military Cabinet, although he had already secured the discharge of Stosch, nevertheless sent it to him post-haste, a few minutes before the appointment, because he apprehended that if the interview took place the old Emperor, who was particularly attached to Stosch, would not stick to his resolution and would revoke his order. Whenever the Ministers plead before the Reichstag for the adoption or rejection of a bill, they appeal to the Imperial message as binding the vote of every loyal member, and call their adversaries red republicans or American democrats.

A few days ago Prince Bismarck, who is seriously afflicted with neuralgia, played a new card in sending a message to the Reichstag in his own name. It was ridiculed as a second-class message, which, under the Constitution, the Chancellor had no right to send. It was therefore laid on the table after its unconstitutionality had been demonstrated. In it Bismarck blamed the Reichstag for having required "the Secretary of War" to act, while the Chancellor was the proper authority to be addressed. The mover of this proposition withdrew its original wording, amid the cheers of the House, and, in its place, inserted the words, "to call on the Chancellor." This was the well-deserved end of a petty sticking to technicalities.

Such tricks of a statesman who hitherto has never been small in his dealings prove how utterly at a loss the Chancellor is in his home policy. All his pet measures have been defeated, and none of his favorite aims attained, as his supposed conservative-clerical majority has never achieved a victory. Only a few subordinate bills were carried by them by a small majority of two or three votes, while in the more substantial ones they suffered one defeat after another. The Compulsory Bill for nursing and assisting sick workingmen is the only one which has a prospect of final adoption, while that on the assurance of workingmen against accidents is doomed to defeat, as the Committee has unanimously rejected the proposal of the Government to contribute 25 per cent. toward its objects. Bismarck has now to frame a new one, so that it is doubtful whether the amended bill will reach the Reichstag in its next and last session. The bill for taxing the Exchange and its dealings has even been defeated in Committee, and is past recovery. The budget, instead of being immediately voted upon, was, after a short debate, referred to the Committee of Ways and Means, and not a single item was exempted from a second reading in that Committee. It will be several months before the latter will send the budget back to the House. Thus the biennial budget so much coveted by Bismarck has in fact turned out a failure. The heaviest, however, of the several defeats which the Government has suffered within the past month is the rejection of the threefold increase of duties on timber and wood. In a house of 330 members a majority of 28 decided the doom of that bill. The Liberals were assisted by the Poles, who were not willing to hurt the interests of their Galician brethren, and by the Social Democrats. On the other hand, some of the Conservatives absented themselves, and several Ultramontanes did not dare to face the indignation of their constituents. Thus, in spite of the joint endeavors of the large real-estate owners of the eastern provinces and of the Government, a new and heavy burden was thrown off. Important as

this result is on its own merits, it gains additional weight by reason of its consequences. The agrarians, ironmongers, weavers, and spinners were waiting for a favorable vote of the Reichstag on increased duties on timber, in order to ask likewise about a threefold increase of those duties which benefit their own respective trades. The plan was well arranged and had the approval of Bismarck, but now, since the battering-ram has been put out of harm's way, the prospects of the parties interested in a new draft on the public purse look rather gloomy, and the patriotic protectionists are quite despondent.

The most interesting part of all these transactions is played by the Ultramontane party (the Centre of the Reichstag). They temporize with Bismarck, never vote directly against him, but secretly intrigue behind his back, and try by every means to find their reward in the repeal of the so-called Falk laws. The Chancellor has already once declared his willingness to remove the existing restrictions attending the administration of the sacrament and the saying of mass; but at the last moment Herr von Gossler, Minister of Public Worship and Instruction, objected to this concession, and insisted on its being granted only on condition that the Pope should announce to the Government the names of the priests appointed to fill clerical vacancies. Under the existing circumstances Prince Bismarck could not disregard Herr von Gossler's opposition. As word, however, had already been sent by one of his minions to the Conservatives to vote in accordance with their master's sudden swinging round to the Roman view of the case, Bismarck was compelled to revoke his order. The Conservatives, of course, now left the Ultramontanes to shift for themselves, and, to cover their sudden retreat, declared in favor of an organic revision of the Falk laws—an obscure expression, at which Bismarck himself could not help laughing. Thus nobody knows what will be done, and Rome, which a year or two ago would have been happy to accept unconditionally such a far-reaching concession, now refuses to meet the Chancellor's conciliatory wishes, as it expects to reach its end by continued obstinacy.

I apprehend that in the long run the Church will be right, for Bismarck cannot wait much longer, and he is in such a state of mind that he will finally sacrifice everything if he can realize his social political dreams with the help of the Centre. He handles principles from a practical point of view, and uses them as considerations for obtaining political advantages or as weapons against his opponents. I have no doubt that he will ultimately overcome the scruples of Herr von Gossler, and that the latter, or his successor, will yield to his dictates. A late occurrence connected with the vote on the timber duty will fully illustrate this disposition of the Chancellor. Having been informed that the Poles would vote against the Government, he ordered the Civil Governor (*Oberpraesident*) of Posen by telegraph partly to abolish the regulation compelling the Polish youth who attend the public schools in that province to learn German. When, nevertheless, the Poles voted against the duty on timber, although their vote was not decisive, the permission was withdrawn, and the bargain frustrated. Bismarck and the Catholics distrust each other, but the latter are too sharp to be caught by his semi-concessions, and insist upon full payment, which Bismarck, as things now stand, cannot render. The Kulturkampf, therefore, is far removed from settlement. Nothing is settled or certain, everything is in confusion, and every day may change the aspect of public affairs. Unsatisfactory as they may be, Bismarck is losing the faith and confidence of the masses in his social measures. They begin to be frightened by the state omnipotence which is to devour all private enterprise. Thus a new bill is framed for revoking all the charters of the fire-insurance companies, which, in the Chancellor's eyes, make too much money and will work more cheaply and faithfully if conducted by the Government. The whole insurance interest is, of course, roused against this plan, which fully answers the extravagant dreams of Communists and Socialists.

The dissolution of the Reichstag, which at the opening of this session seemed imminent, will not take place, for Bismarck cannot expect by new elections to get a successor which will help him to carry out his policy effectually. † † †

Correspondence.

PROFESSORS AND THEIR PAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of May 3, "The Real Weakness of American Universities" is discussed from the standpoint of professional emolument without any reference to other and, as it seems to me, more potent causes for the present low standard of our higher education. The discouraging effects, in the end, of a poor salary cannot be doubted, even for the most enthusiastic and zealous promoter of any department of science. To feel that earnest and continued effort is rewarded through years by only a meagre pittance sufficient to "keep the wolf from the door," without any possible prospect of being able to provide a small surplus for the contingencies of the future—to see the responsibilities of life grow heavier every day with no hope of meeting them and rising above them by patient, earnest labor—is surely disheartening in the extreme; and yet I apprehend that this is not the worst thing that can happen to a man whose life is devoted to his calling as a professor. This is merely an external source of anxiety, which will cool the ardor and check the enthusiasm of one who has not the grit of spontaneous scholarship in him. Such an one, in his thought for the material comforts of life, will lose sight of that lofty ideal which has fired the imagination of the noblest minds under adverse circumstances, and stimulated them to still more heroic efforts.

We only have to look across the water, however, to our German professors to realize how insignificant a part the mere salary plays in their excellent system of higher education. Here the privat-docent, in his preliminary training for the professorship, though perhaps doing even more university work than the professor himself, receives no stipulated salary, and gets nothing for his services except the nominal sum for tuition from the individual students of his department; and yet he considers himself fortunate in a majority of cases to be able to get such a position at all when he looks to his chances for development in the future. And even when he has become full professor, the recompense for his work is often so small as to render it next to impossible for him to live, especially if he has a family. Still, notwithstanding these drawbacks, he works on with indomitable courage, and other younger men are constantly coming forward ever ready to fill his place should he drop out, though they are well aware of the scanty stipend attaching to the office. I mention this case simply by way of illustration, to show that there is a deeper motive than mere pecuniary considerations which may, and does, actuate the scholar who is imbued with the full spirit of his subject, provided only that other circumstances surround him which are congenial to the healthy growth and sustenance of his intellectual life. And this brings me to the point which I wish to urge above all others as the efficient cause of our lack of vigor in matters of university instruction. The source of it is internal: it is the want of legitimate stimulus fostered by a strong sympathy and interchange of ideas among the members of any given department. The incentives to vigorous, untiring effort that are found in the keen mental friction with our fellow-workers are lost sight of in the overruling tendency to isolation, where indifference, apathy, and the ultimate neglect of high aims and a lofty ideal are the natural results.

Another cause of inactivity and inefficiency in university training in America is connected with the university system itself. Healthy criticism of one another is almost wholly unknown among its professors as a body. It is true, we have exceptional cases where judgment is passed upon the labors of a co-worker in a given field, but it is generally done in such a way as to provoke a quarrel in the end; and even this occurs, as a rule, only between the members of rival institutions, or between men whose positions in life are considered fixed. For the young scholar who is looking for employment, or even after he has received an appointment, the criticism of the older professors in his own institution or in others is regarded as the effusion of a restive, revolutionary spirit, which must be squelched forthwith. It would be dangerous to allow the "young bloods" to publicly question the haughty prerogatives of their superiors in position in any department. The latter feel that they might possibly lose some of their exclusive power over their pupils, and that their prestige with the public as "universal geniuses" and "wonderfully learned men" would soon begin to wane.

This one-man-power policy will have to be essentially modified in our American institutions before we can hope to reach any marked development of independent scholarship. The liberty of unrestrained criticism is the bulwark, the only safeguard, of the German university. Both old and young incumbents in academic office know well that their productions will be scrutinized unreservedly by those about them, and this not out of any feeling of personal jealousy or enmity, but from a conscientious interest in the dignity of science itself. It is true that this system is liable to suffer sometimes from an abundance of unripe discussion; but the authors of it soon find their level, and the reaction against them serves as a warning to others who might be tempted beyond the proper bounds. With us any young man would be thought a fit subject for an insane asylum who should display such bad taste or be so impolitic as to handle without gloves the pet theories and often absurd extravagance of the president of his institution, and yet before science, as before the law, they ought to stand upon precisely the same footing, with equal rights and equal privileges.

I would not be understood, in the remarks made above, to depreciate in the slightest the paramount importance of liberal salaries; on the contrary, for our country, where great libraries, representing complete sets of scientific works for special departments, do not exist, a liberal compensation is an absolute condition to keeping abreast with the progress of any individual science, or even to insure a commonplace success in it. In Europe such book-collections are abundant and of easy access, and where the scholar is temporarily cut off from them by his professional duties, the generous policy of the library authorities generally enables him to have them for a short time in his own home, though many miles away from the seat of the library. Extensive departmental libraries, then, a closer spirit of fellowship among the members of spe-

cial branches of learning, with no danger of being thrown out of employment for sensible, well-directed criticism, irrespective of whom it touches, would do more to revolutionize our present state of "masterly inactivity," to raise the dignity of the profession, to infuse a love of earnest, zealous scholarship in our youth, and stir up an ambitious rivalry for the promotion of science, than all the "brick-and-mortar" millions, all the legislation of States, and all the wise decrees of college trustees put together.

N. N.

BALTIMORE, May 22, 1883.

THE SUCCESSOR OF PRESIDENT McCOSH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An important change is about to take place in the affairs of Princeton College; and as the Board of Trustees is to a certain extent an unapproachable body, I know of no way of reaching them or the alumni of the College except by means of the press. The *Nation* will certainly reach many of the alumni, and may reach some of the trustees.

Dr. McCosh has declared his intention to resign his office as President of the College in June next. He has given the trustees ample notice of his intention, and their proposed action must, therefore, be presumed to be, in their opinion, the wisest and best for the interest of the College. It is that Dr. McCosh should remain at the head of the College, but that he should be relieved of a portion of his burden by a new officer—a Dean of the Faculty—to be created for that purpose by the trustees. There are no objections to Dr. McCosh remaining at the head of the College except his desire to be relieved, and it will be painful to the younger alumni to think of Princeton under the direction of Dr. McCosh's successor, no matter how worthy he may be. But the time must soon come, and in his own opinion the time is come, when Dr. McCosh should be entirely freed from the duties of the presidency; hence the appointment of a dean of the faculty can only be an experiment. And since the dean of the faculty will naturally be the president's successor, the same amount of care should be exercised in the appointment to the deanship as directly to the presidency. To appoint a dean of the faculty is clearly a waste of energy on the part of the trustees, if an easy solution is what they are seeking. They will find it much easier in the end to accept Dr. McCosh's resignation and nominate his successor. The College will suffer and come to confusion under two executive officers, under any division of labor however minutely drawn. There is, too, obviously less danger that diplomatic mediocrity should be accepted in the choice for the presidency than in the choice for the dean of the faculty. Men are naturally more tolerant of mediocrity when it is elevated by easy stages than when at once raised into power.

There is another view of the matter which deserves attention from the trustees. The appointment of a dean of the faculty would seem to be a matter of some concern to every member of the faculty, and the uninitiated would naturally expect that the faculty would be consulted and invited to express their opinion fully and freely upon the subject. I venture to say that the sub-committee of three and the committee of nine having this matter in charge would find, upon inquiry, that the faculty are not uninterested in the subject.

It has been said, on the part of the trustees, that the alumni of the College do not show any decided interest in the matter. If that be so, it is because any tendency on the part of the alumni to suggest or advise has hitherto been systematically discouraged. Their petition for representation has been denied. In one instance even the right of petition was denied a large body of undergraduates. But in spite of this Oriental exclusion, the alumni still have a feeble interest in Princeton. Those in power frequently declare that the people are not interested in this or that subject, as an excuse for consulting their own self-interest so exclusively. If the trustees of Princeton will consent to even an advisory representation of the alumni in their body, they will find the feeble sentimental interest of the alumni transformed into a strong and active support of their college; and I believe the alumni would be found opposed to the arrangement for the relief of the president by the appointment of a dean of the faculty.

ALUMNUS.

PAUPERIZING DIVINITY STUDENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the present is a time of considerable discussion on beneficiary aid to students for the ministry, and as the profession of the ministry and ministerial education are matters of general interest, it may not be amiss to say a word on the subject through your columns.

The injurious effect of indiscriminate beneficiary aid to students in any profession would be great, but in that of the ministry it is very great, by reason of the importance of the ministry, and the very high abilities required for successful work in it. The system of aid to theological students is, as a general thing, practically indiscriminate, and this fact is generally acknowledged. A great many men of inferior abilities—some, indeed, who are dunces—finding little chance of doing anything in any other calling, find ready access to the ministry. In fact, there is no calling to which access is so easy as the ministry—a profession which, as the highest of all, should be most carefully guarded. Many inferior men, finding that they can get a good education almost gratis, and going naturally on the line of least resistance, finally reach the ministry. Many superior men of great independence have a contempt for theological students which is not altogether unfounded. I am glad to say, however, that there is an increasing body of students in theological seminaries who reject pure beneficiary aid.

Those who defend the present charity system of aid to students for the ministry have urged that it is a method common for students of all professions. One advocate points to the United States as practising the beneficiary system in its completeness at West Point. The illustration is unfortunate, for if there was the same discrimination by the Church as by the state, there would be left in our theological seminaries but the merest handful of students. The state accepts only the most carefully picked men, selected by physical, intellectual, and moral tests, and in the Military Academy great numbers drop out by reason of the very rigid examinations.

The editor of the New York *Independent* turns to President Eliot with, "Physician, heal thyself." He seeks to show that Harvard College is throughout, to its very President, a beneficiary institution. From some knowledge of Harvard Divinity School, I can say that President Eliot carries out there very fully his own principles. Scholarships are given only for work done, and only men of good abilities and great industry can obtain money. The divinity students are on the same level as other university students, being charged the same as they for board and room.

The giving without any *quid pro quo* is in every respect degrading and pauperizing. The principle of gratuitous distribution is quite generally denounced as positively injurious by benevolent associations which reach the masses, and much more must it be considered as injurious in the highest form of benevolence—the helping students who aim at the ministry. I know upon good authority that in two prominent seminaries men lay up money through beneficiary aid; and as to one I have been assured by one who should know, that students have sometimes gone out of the seminary with several hundred dollars in their pockets, obtained through every channel of beneficiary aid. A *quid pro quo* system of aid is to some extent practised at Union Seminary, New York city, and is to be more fully carried out at Andover, Mass.

H. M. STANLEY.

ANDOVER SEMINARY, MASS., May 25, 1883.

AN INTERNATIONAL SUPERSTITION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 26, when speaking of Prof. A. De Gubernatis's 'La Mythologie des Plantes,' you say that "the author mentions a Russian superstition in accordance with which sick children were carried into the woods and thrice passed through the trunk of an oak split open," and you mention a similar superstition as having existed in France in the thirteenth century.

In collecting material for a work which we are writing on superstition, we have noticed several cases of similar action and belief in our great mother country, England. Rev. T. F. Thiselton Dyer, in his 'Domestic Folk-Lore,' tells us that,

"according to an old superstition, parents desirous of securing long life for their children should pass them through the branches of a maple. A few years ago one of these trees had long been resorted to for this purpose in West Grinstead Park, and as soon as a rumor spread through the parish that it was about to be demolished, quite a consternation prevailed in the neighborhood. Similar properties are supposed to belong to the ash, weakly infants that do not thrive being drawn through a cleft in its trunk. This charm, as performed in Cornwall, is thus: A large knife is inserted into the trunk of a young ash, about a foot from the ground, and a vertical opening made for about three feet. Two men then forcibly pull the parts asunder, and hold them so, whilst the mother passes the child through the cleft three times. The ceremony does not end here, as the child has to be washed for three successive mornings in the dew from the leaves of the 'charmed ash.'"

Mr. W. S. Coleman, in 'Our Woodlands, Heaths, and Hedges,' tells us of

"the reputed virtue of a split ash-tree in curing ruptured children. The programme of the ceremony by which this supposed power was called into play is as follows: The stem of a young ash being cleft down the middle, and kept open by wedges, the afflicted child, in a state of nudity, was forced through the opening; the mother standing on one side of the tree, and the father on the other. This uncomfortable transit having been twice performed by the astonished and shivering infant, both it and the disrupted tree were respectively swathed up at the same time; and if the wound in the latter healed and the parts coalesced, as was generally the case, a simultaneous cure was supposed to be effected in the child."

He mentions this performance as having been enacted in Warwickshire.—Respectfully,

F. A. HASSLER, M.D., Ph.D.

SANTA ANA, CAL.

A MAN OF STRAW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I hardly think the explanation of the phrase "man of straw" given in your Notes of the 17th inst. can be quite correct. Witnesses who so openly advertised their willingness to swear

to what was wanted would be seen just as readily by counsel, judges, and jurors as by the parties who had need of them, and would soon find their market value gone. Besides, the phrase has always, to me at any rate, denoted rather slightness, weakness, especially in a pecuniary sense, than any moral depravity. I have seen somewhere (I cannot name my authority) an explanation much more plausible at least. During the process by which the English original writ of summons was gradually falling into disuse and the *capias* becoming in fact the first process, *bail* underwent a corresponding change. Originally, when the *capias* was a real arrest, the *bail* were two men of substance who bound themselves for the defendant's future appearance and obedience. By Blackstone's time common bail had degenerated to the two legal men-of-all-work—John Doe and Richard Roe. But there was an intermediate stage when the bail were required to be two men of flesh and blood—money no consequence. Hence it became a regular profession to stand about the courts with straw in your shoes, signifying your willingness to go any one's bail for a consideration. These were "men of straw," and the bail thus put in was "straw bail."

FRANCIS H. BELL.

HALIFAX, N. S., May 23, 1883.

PUBLISHERS' PROFITS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your answer to the letter of the Messrs. Putnam can hardly be regarded as satisfactory. In the article to which their letter refers, you had spoken of the arrangement by which the author receives fifteen cents and the publisher seventy-five cents as not a "fair division of profits." To this the Messrs. Putnam reply that the seventy-five cents received by the publisher is not profits; that only fifteen cents of it is profits. These figures may or may not be correct; but if they are, they entirely dispose of any conclusion drawn from a comparison of the figures as you stated them. But you say the author's receipts do not represent *his* profits, either. What, then, do you mean by an author's profits, or "net profits"? Do you mean the amount he receives over and above the value of the time and effort and ability he has expended upon his work? You can hardly mean that; and yet from your answer it would seem that before estimating the author's profits, one ought to deduct from his receipts the value of his labor, in the same way as the publisher deducts the value of the materials expended upon the manufacture of the book. But this is manifestly absurd. The only meaning that can be attached to the word "profit," as applied to the author, is the recompense he receives for his labor and ability, just as the publisher's profit is the recompense he receives for his labor, business ability, and reputation, and the investment of his capital, and not the amount he receives over and above some imagined *due* reward for these his investments in the enterprise.

It is quite possible that, from the point of view of theoretical justice, not only "five to one," but fifty to one, is an "understatement of the difference between profits"; but it is clear that no statement whatever of the case—neither an understatement nor an overstatement—can be obtained by the crude process of comparing the gross amounts received by the publisher and the author. From the fact that a builder receives a hundred thousand dollars for a house and pays over to the architect only one thousand, it would be rash to infer that the builder's "profits" are a hundred, or twenty, or ten times as great as the architect's.—Yours, very respectfully,

F. FRANKLIN.

BALTIMORE, May 27, 1883.

Notes.

MR. GABRIEL HARRISON'S life of John Howard Payne will appear, in a limited edition, in July. It will be embellished with several fine illustrations and autographic facsimiles. Meantime, Mr. Harrison, whose address is No. 44 Court Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., has issued a steel engraving of the "dramatist, poet, actor," which will be highly prized. It has been made by Mr. G. R. Hall from a daguerreotype by Brady taken just before Payne's final departure from this country for Tunis, and of course not long before his death—say about his sixtieth year. Not lacking the stamp of the highest authenticity, therefore, it possesses the additional interest which the nobility of the face and the history of the man inspire.

With 'Virginia: a History of the People,' by John Esten Cooke, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. begin a new series of popular works on "American Commonwealths," to be edited by Mr. Horace E. Scudder. It will not be so long a line as that of the States, for only such will be included "as have exerted some positive influence in the shaping of the national Government, or have illustrated in a noteworthy way any peculiar political principles." The volumes will be companionable in size and style with those of the "American Statesmen" and "American Men of Letters."

Macmillan & Co. publish immediately 'Dr. Claudius,' a new novel by F. Marion Crawford.

The first of the monthly 'Topics of the Time,' edited by Dr. T. M. Coan, and published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, makes a clearly-printed 16mo volume of 281 pages. The contents embrace eight topics: "World-Crowding"; "Europe in Straits"; "Secret Societies in France"; "Home Rule, Socialism, and Secession"; "A Democrat on the Coming Democracy"; "A Politician in Trouble about his Soul"; "The European Terror"; "The Nationalization of the Land" (the *Edinburgh Review* in reply to Henry George). Except where the author's name is not known, the name of the periodical from which the article is taken is omitted, even in the table of contents. This batch of "social problems" will be succeeded next month by "Studies in Biography."

Mr. Foster's *Monthly Reference Lists* for May is devoted to Oliver Wendell Holmes, Edwin Booth, and John Adams's administration.

In connection with his general index to the *Eclectic Magazine*, Mr. Griswold has already given us an index (under the same alphabet), to volumes 37-148 of the *Living Age*. There now lie before us Nos. 1 and 2 of 'A Complete Index to Littell's Living Age,' undertaken by Edward Roth (Philadelphia, 1135 Pine Street). The plan is peculiar and will hardly meet with the approval of the best index-makers, for it begins by setting apart the first hundred volumes, and then indexes these under no less than fifteen divisions, and of course under as many alphabets. Thus the parts just enumerated are confined solely to Biography (Abbott-James). The author frankly admits the imperfections of this initial publication, and shows that he started out with the notion that a *volume* reference without page (*i. e.*, a reference to the *Living Age's* own table of contents) would suffice. As he went on he changed all that, but he did not go back to repair the deficiencies. Mr. Roth disregards conventional signs, like Mr. Griswold's asterisk to denote a portrait, and further disregards space and expense by printing on one side of the leaf only, and by unabbreviated or ill-abbreviated subject-titles. The result is of course more satisfactory to eye and sense than the more condensed method; but how large a hole will it make in the subscriber's purse? We must, however, include Mr. Roth in our general thanksgiving to index-makers; and so far as he overlaps Mr. Griswold's work he will be useful by way of supplement and correction: indeed, they will be mutually helpful. Thus, under Henry Hallam, one refers to 65 : 85, the other to 65 : 83, for evidently the same thing.

D. Appleton & Co. are the American publishers of a "Parchment Paper [*i. e.*, paper-cover] Series," which, like its namesake, is both cheap and elegant. No. 1, 'English as She is Spoke, with an introduction by James Millington, proves to be a sample, or collection of samples, of our old friend, 'The New Guide of the Conversation, in Portuguese and English' (Paris, 1855). We must find fault with Mr. Millington for not intimating that this well-spring of mirth has been enjoyed for a generation by such as were fortunate enough to procure copies of an edition rapidly bought up *joci causa*. Moreover, he has not been scrupulously careful to preserve the errata which so much heighten the humorous effect of 'The New Guide.' Thus, in the preface, which he gives entire, we have noted four such errors smoothed away, including the crucial one of "*typ*graphical correction." In fact, the main service which the editor has rendered is in illustrating the obvious French basis on which the Portuguese ignoramus erected his stupendously funny structure. This he does in an introduction. Let us note that this series furnishes a happy example of compromise between the advocates of cut and uncut leaves. The leaves are cut, but the margins are left broad.

A plainer edition of the book just described comes to us from G. P. Putnam's Sons.

From the 'History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire' the chapters relating to the establishment of Christianity have been separately printed in a volume bearing the title, 'History of Christianity,' and including also Gibbon's vindication of certain passages in the fifteenth and sixteenth chapters (New York: Peter Eckler, 35 Fulton Street). The publisher, who supplies his own preface, appears to have been moved to this enterprise by the fact of Dr. Smith's omissions in his 'Student's Gibbon.' He has sprinkled a large number of illustrations of pagan deities throughout the volume.

Mr. Francis S. Smith's 'Life and Adventures of Josh Billings' (Carleton) is not a remarkable performance in a literary point of view, but it has points of interest for all those who are concerned with the phenomenon known as American humor. Mr. Shaw's pedigree is almost distinguished—indeed, his father, who was a member of Congress from Massachusetts, and ruined himself by voting for the Missouri Compromise, is called "a distinguished citizen of the United States of America" by John Quincy Adams in a letter of introduction here quoted. The joker himself came near being a college graduate (he began freshman at Hamilton). He did not discover his vocation as a writer till he was past forty-five, and he made three dead failures as a lecturer before he achieved an extraordinary success; so his life throws light on our lyceum system as well as on some other things. Most noticeable is the fact that "Artemus Ward's" cacography gave "Josh Billings" a hint that humor is enhanced for the American public by illiteracy. The triumph, therefore, of the phonetic system would be fatal to this class.

We have received the thirteenth volume of the Business Directory of W. Phillips & Co., New York, on the utility of which it is needless to expatiate.

Vassar College has just published a general catalogue of its graduates from 1867 to 1883. It does not show an alarming mortality as a result

of the higher education: of the 566 graduates in sixteen years, only four and one-half per cent. have died. For the first ten years 44.5 per cent. have married, 45.2 per cent. have had some occupation, and those who have neither married nor died nor had an occupation are only 19 per cent.

The *Portfolio* for July (J. W. Bouton) opens with a first paper on "The Earlier Works of Rossetti," by Mr. F. G. Stephens, who writes from intimate personal acquaintance, yet with evident candor. Three striking and characteristic drawings by the artist are given in facsimile. Mr. Hamerton's chapter on Paris goes into the history of the Tuileries with sufficient minuteness, and has a few words to say about the palace of the Luxembourg. Among the illustrations is Méryon's famous etching of Notre Dame from the rear, reproduced by Amand Durand—we should say, with a qualified success, remembering the original plate impressions.

The thirty-second volume of *L'Art* (J. W. Bouton) seems to us to make more of a feature of its reviews than hitherto, and as these are of illustrated books from which pictures are freely taken, there is a great gain in the variety and interest of the designs which *L'Art* always lavishes upon its readers. Two large etchings of the basins and quays of Marseilles are among the most interesting of their class. But the chief series are admirable specimens of the chefs-d'œuvre of the Narishkine collection, including several named by us a fortnight ago in giving some of the prices at the sale, *e. g.*, Hooge's "Consultation" ($32,000), and the masterly study of four negro heads by Rubens ($11,000). There are, as usual, papers on artists ancient and modern, on the arts of the goldsmith and the ironsmith, on miniatures, on current exhibitions: Jordaens, Mantegna, Delacroix in Algeria, Benvenuto Cellini, the Devérias, etc., etc. Portraits of Doré, of Poynter, of Herkomer, and others occur; that on wood of H. Lehmann being, perhaps, the most noticeable.

The first thirty pages of *Le Livre* for May will inevitably fix the reader's attention without intermission. L. Derôme opens with a paper, in which the abuse of the pursuit of the *inédit* is properly characterized, on the lost works of Alfred de Musset, by way of introduction to criticism of Maurice Clouard's recent Musset Bibliography (Paris: Rouquette). The critic does not give any unpublished specimens of the poet, but he reproduces verses which for one cause or another have dropped out of sight, and he adds some very curious details of Musset's fantastic improvement (nominally a translation) of De Quincey's 'Opium-Eater.' Summing up, M. Derôme thinks searching for many additions to Musset's literary or poetic remains will not be fruitful. He "wrote no letters—only *billets incolores*." However, in the *Chronique* of this same number, there is an account of the sale of Musset autographs and drawings, which fetched high prices, and several extracts from his letters are given which show at least that the man was as much in them as in anything from his pen. An album of his sketches during his Italian journey with Mme. Sand, including portraits of "elle et lui," Stendhal, etc., went for $160. E. Forgues passes a very just verdict upon Doré in a chapter on the book illustrators of the nineteenth century, which is a condensed biography of this artist. Here the "inédit" asserts itself freely, one instance being the first sketch of a composition for Francesca di Rimini. Add to these a number of the familiar scenes from 'Don Quixote' and the 'Contes Drôlatiques,' lent by the Messrs. Hachette. This firm, by the way, has the monopoly of supplying the railway travelling public with reading matter, and in so doing exercises a censorship formerly reserved by the state to itself. *Le Livre* contains a petition, signed by a great number of literary men, on occasion of the exclusion of a novel by Guy de Maupassant. It prays the Chamber of Deputies to abolish the monopoly, and to relieve the railroad news service of all moral control whatsoever.

Nos. 2 and 3 of the "Théâtre Contemporain" (New York: W. R. Jenkins) consist of Eugène Labiche's "La Grammaire" and Ernest D'Hervilly's "Vent d'Ouest" and "La Soupière."

Parts 77-84 of 'Brehm's Thierleben' (Westermann) introduce the rhinoceros, the boar, the seal, the zebra, the giraffe, the humpbacked whale, etc., all shown in very striking colored plates, besides their congeners illustrated in excellent woodcuts in the text.

L. W. Schmidt, 7 Barclay Street, has received Parts 61-65 of the new Brockhaus (Deidesheim-Diebitsch). Germany falling under the letter D, we have a useful series of maps pertaining to that country—as, density of population, geology, political divisions, and historical division at stated epochs. Of course the Empire has a corresponding prominence in the text, filling all of Parts 63 and 64, and portions of others. German-Danish war 1848-50, German war of 1866, German arts, German literature, Germany military status, are some of the convenient heads.

Real progress seems making with Koolman's 'Dictionary of the East Frisian Language' (Norden: H. Braams), when we near the end of the letter S (*smarten*). The significance of the name of the river Rhine (*Rîn*) Koolman inclines to seek in *running*. Under *râdsel*, riddle, we have the Frisian version of "two legs sat upon three legs," etc., thus: "Twêbên satt up drêbên, do kwam fêrbên un wul' twêbên bîten, do nam twêbên drêbên un wul' fêrbên damit smîten."

Again an interval of two years brings us a fresh instalment of the survey of Attica undertaken by the Imperial German Archæological Institute. The new maps, of equal size and scale (1:25,000), are four in number, and show the four quarters of the environs of Athens, with that city in the centre. Thus, we have the Peiræus section on the southwest, the Hymettus section on the southeast, Kephisia on the northeast, and Pyrgos on the northwest. The rugged contour of Hymettus is particularly interesting as here delineated. Pentelicus appears on the third map mentioned. On the topographical beauty and accuracy of all these it would be superfluous to insist. The publisher remains the same (Dietrich Reimer, Berlin). Mr. Arthur Milchhoefer, who in 1881 had the Peiræus assigned to him in the explanatory text accompanying the portfolio, now furnishes the entire description, employing, as before, diagrams and other illustrations in special cases. The form of this text is quarto; of the maps, folio.

In the 'Éloge de Montesquieu,' by Marat, which has just been found by M. Céleste, assistant librarian of the Bordeaux Library, and published by M. Arthur de Brézetz, is a sentence which paints not inaptly the author himself eight years later (it was written in 1785). Marat compares Montesquieu with "those insensate writers whose audacious sacrilege overturns all barriers, breaks all ties, delivers men to the blind fury of passion, plunges them in the horrors of anarchy," and so forth. M. Céleste, by the way, has lately discovered and published a very empty letter of Rulhière, in mixed prose and verse, in the style of Chapelle and Bachaumont, describing the voyage of the Duke of Richelieu from Bordeaux to Bayonne in 1759.

The fifty-third annual meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science will commence the third week in September next at Southport. The President-elect is Arthur Cayley, LL.D., F.R.S., Sadlerian Professor of Mathematics in the University of Cambridge. The first general meeting will be held on Wednesday, September 19, at 8 P. M., when Sir C. W. Siemens will resign the chair, and Professor Cayley will assume the Presidency and deliver an address. On Friday evening there will be a discourse on "Recent Researches on the Distance of the Sun," by Prof. R. S. Ball, Astronomer Royal for Ireland; on Monday evening, September 24, a discourse on "Galvanic and Animal Electricity," by Prof. J. G. McKendrick, Professor of Physiology in the University of Glasgow; and on Wednesday, September 26, at 2:30 P. M., the concluding general meeting will be held.

—*Harper's* for June contains as usual several illustrated descriptive articles, and very little critical writing, for what Mr. Curtis says in the "Easy Chair" is less strictly critical than essay-like. *Harper's* keeps alive the early magazine traditions of the country in greater purity than any other. It has no controversies, and is not an organ of opinion, and does not meddle with the field occupied by the reviews. It is still a collection mainly of information, instructive or entertaining, as the case may be, and in many respects it suggests the distinctively rural magazine audience of thirty years ago, for which the department of anecdotes in the "Drawer" was evidently originally devised. The "Drawer" now, however, contains more than anecdotes, and this month has a literary "find" which will be interesting to lovers of Thackeray, in the shape of a Christmas carol, to the tune of "God save you, merry gentlemen," on "E. Aram" and "E. Bulwer," as good as anything that has been unearthed from *Frazer's* or *Punch* since Thackeray's death. It is a ballad rather than a carol, however, as the two opening verses will show:

"E. Aram was a pedagogue
So sullen and so sad;
E. Bulwer was a gentleman
What plied as Colburn's Cad:
And the deeds of both, I grieve to say,
Were werry, werry bad.

"E. Aram he whipped little boys
With malice and with ire;
E. Bulwer wrote whig articles
As Beelzebub did inspire:
And both of them they did these things
All for the sake of hire."

Mr. Higginson continues his historical studies, and writes this month about the "Hundred Years War" (1662-1763), which decided that the civilization of this continent was to be English and not French. Incidentally he discusses the old question of the wrongs done to the Indians by the English, and insists that the purchases of land from the Indians by Europeans, which usually strike us as most unconscionable bargains, were often fair enough, because the land was of no particular use to the savages, while what they got in exchange for it—cloth, tools, knives, beads, etc.—was of great value to them. It must be also borne in mind that the early investors in real estate on this continent, when they bought up the Indian titles, bought something of very doubtful legal character, which in early times did not insure them quiet possession against other European investors, better armed and equipped than themselves. When the Dutch governor Minuit bought the island on which New York now stands in 1626 for sixty gilders, the price, considering what he got for it, may, for all we know to the contrary, have been considered the very "top of the market."

— Dr. G. Stanley Hall has lately published two interesting and suggestive papers on questions of experimental psychology. The first, on "Reaction-Time and Attention in the Hypnotic State," which appeared in *Mind*, contains a record of experiments on a hypnotic subject with a view to determining the simple reaction-times in

the normal and in the abnormal state, respectively, as well as the "association-time," or the time required by the subject to utter some word suggested by another word, a list having been prepared beforehand. The results are chiefly of negative value, suggesting several problems on which the writer is now at work, and exposing the danger of accepting an abnormal state of attention as the one essential factor in hypnotism. The second paper, which appears in the current *Princeton Review*, is of more general interest, the subject being the "Contents of Children's Minds." The line of investigation here followed was suggested by an attempt made in Berlin a number of years ago to collect statistics in regard to the notions entertained by children in primary schools, regarding some of the commonest objects of life and their immediate surroundings. Owing to the non-observance of various precautions, these statistics did not prove as trustworthy as was desirable. More painstaking methods, the careful elimination of suspicious material, and the coöperation of several teachers in kindergarten and primary schools of Boston enabled Doctor Hall to secure some very curious approximate results and statistics. "As a reasoning electric light might honestly doubt the existence of such things as shadows, because, however near or numerous, they are always hidden from it, so the most intelligent adults quite commonly fail to recognize sides of their own children's souls which can be seen only by strategy." The error most commonly indulged in is to take for granted too much knowledge on the part of the children, and endeavor to educate them with words and books that convey no meaning to them, because the objects of which the words are abstractions are as yet unknown to them.

—Country experience, on the whole, offers more that is of pedagogic value than does the city. "A few days in the country at this age has raised the level of many a city child's intelligence more than a term or two of school training could do without it." Among city girls, 18 per cent. were found ignorant of what a cow is, 88 per cent. were unable to locate their ribs, while all but 4 per cent. knew where their knees were. The percentages varied with sex and nationality, the Irish children tested having been behind others in nearly all topics. Kindergarten children show a striking advantage over others. Children think more than adults in pictures, gestures, and inarticulate sounds, and they show a strong anthropomorphic and anthropopathic tendency in their notions of various natural objects. Of 48 that were questioned, 20 believed sun, moon, and stars to live, 15 thought a doll and 16 thought flowers would suffer pain if burned. Birds'-nests and stockings are supposed to grow on trees, butter to come from buttercups, meat to be dug from the ground. Puns are much indulged in, as when grasshoppers are supposed to give grass, and buttercups butter, or a holiday is supposed to be a day to "holler" on. Being asked to name right and wrong acts, 53 of the former were specified in about 450 answers, and 34 of the latter in over 350. The right things named were rather tame and unattractive. On the other side there was more variety. "Boys say it is wrong to steal, fight, kick, break windows, get drunk, stick pins into others, or to 'sass,' 'cuss,' shoot them; while girls are more apt to say it is wrong to not comb the hair, to get butter on the dress, climb trees, unfold the hands, cry, catch flies, etc." The whole essay is replete with interest to parents and those who have to do with educational problems. The most important deductions to which Dr. Hall calls attention are that we must start from the knowledge that children really have, and develop this as a germ; and that there is next to nothing of pedagogic value the knowledge of which it is safe to assume at the outset of school life—whence the need of natural objects, the sights and sounds of the country, and the necessity of avoiding books and mere word cram. "Many of the best primary teachers in Germany spend from two to four or even six months in talking of objects or drawing them, before any beginning of what we till lately have regarded as primary school work."

— The Plaza Cruz del Quemadero at Madrid, the scene of the most terrible part of Victor Hugo's 'Torquemada,' had remained covered since the time of the autodafés, says the *Gegenwart*, with a thick band of black earth, 150 feet long. On digging into it it was found to consist of calcined bones, coals surrounded by a greasy matter, and fragments of burnt clothing. Dark layers alternated with strata of clay or of sand, and were of varying thickness from three inches up to nine, so that one could infer a varying zeal in the Inquisition. The Spanish geologists, therefore, had a somewhat new problem submitted to them. The usual puzzle, not yet solved, is: Given the thickness of the strata, and guessing at the rate of deposition, to determine, so that a sceptic may be convinced, the age of the world. Their problem was: Given the thickness of the deposits, and the time over which they spread being known, to estimate how many human beings must have died in agony to slowly build up the horrible pile. The deposit was examined by learned Spaniards; the account of the investigations was published in the official journal. The Spanish clergy got nervous at this raking over of the embers—for a humanitarian public opinion is spreading even in bull-baiting Spain—and finally they have obtained from the Government that the whole thing shall be removed—a pleasing indication, not that the Church repents, but that she practically yields to the spirit of the age.

—Bull-fighting yet remains in Spain, and may for some time; but it may gradually fade out as prize-fighting has done in this country and in England. A kindred barbarity is not, perhaps, on the eve, but at least within measurable distance, of extinction in Germany. A society of students, *Reformburschenschaft*, has been founded at Berlin to encourage scientific studies and physical education, and to discourage the students' duel. Bismarck, characteristically, is opposed to it, as he is to a reformed German spelling and other good things. He thinks that these duels train men in coolness, and teach them to bear pain. His influence may be of some effect for a time, but not for long.

RECENT POETRY.

THE new impulse lately given to the fame of Robert Browning is a curious fact in literary history. Within the last year or two, Browning societies have sprung up, as it were spontaneously, in England and America; and there lie before us two independent selections from his poems, both edited with loving care, and both published almost simultaneously in New York. Yet it is almost half a century since Browning first came before the public, and in that interval his fame has seemed to hide itself behind that of a whole school of poets. Now that school seems to vanish with Rossetti. There has been no recent work which sustains the rapidly-acquired reputation, for good or for evil, of Morris and Swinburne; and it suddenly turns out that Browning's fame is stronger than ever, and may yet outlast two or three short-lived schools, whether fleshly or spiritual.

The writer of the preface to one of these new volumes seems to think twenty-five years a long time to have known Browning; but there are not a few in America who were among the subscribers to the original series of 'Bells and Pomegranates' as they appeared from 1841 to 1846—a series some of whose single numbers now sell in England (as is said to have been stated by the poet himself) for more than the author made by the whole issue. The reading of these led to the study of his earlier works, 'Paracelsus' (published in 1835) and 'Sordello' (published in 1840), both of which found ardent admirers among youths and maidens; and thus the first introduction of Browning to his American readers may fairly be dated back forty years. During that time he has had time to train his own especial public, and, like all great poets, to create the taste by which he is enjoyed. Indeed, he has, like Tennyson, dealt with two generations; and the 'Ring and the Book' forms as distinct an introduction to his later style as is afforded by 'Idyls of the King' in the case of his great rival. Few will now deny to these two the leading place among English poets, nor has America afforded one who can fairly claim equal rank with them, although Longfellow had certainly a wider range of popularity than either, and this even in England itself; while there are doubtless many who will hold, with some semblance of reason, that Emerson, with all his artistic waywardness, touches chords of human thought profounder than any living compeer has reached. As between Browning and Tennyson, it is easy to quarrel with Browning for almost wilful ruggedness and frequent obscurity, while, on the other hand, his extraordinary dramatic power makes all Tennyson's efforts in that direction seem tame.

In comparing these two Browning volumes, it is observable that they agree in less than half their selections. 'Lyrical and Dramatic Poems Selected from the Works of Robert Browning,' edited by Edward T. Mason (Henry Holt & Co.), has twenty-four poems, and 'Selections from the Poetry of Robert Browning' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) has forty-five; but thirteen of these last selections are in the former volume, constituting half its contents. In mechanical execution both volumes are pleasing and presentable, so that each forms a creditable tribute to the fame of Browning. Both leave out some poems which we had supposed to be generally recognized as among this poet's very best—for instance, "The Flight of the Duchess" and "Rabbi Ben Ezra." Both give us unflinchingly some of his most disagreeable effusions; thus Mr. Mason offers "Holy-Cross Day" and "Halbert and Hob," while the 'Selections' include the repulsive "Heretic's Tragedy" and the verses called "Youth and Art," which come as near as anything of Browning's can come to being trashy. We cannot justly complain that the editors in both cases follow the poet in those later emendations which, in the opinion of many of his admirers, were the result of too much deference for his duller students. There is a notable instance of this in one of his most graceful songs, which ran originally—the poet is speaking of the seeds of love—

> "I plant a heartful now; some seed
> At least is sure to strike
> And yield, what you'll not care indeed
> To love but, may be, like
> To look upon," etc., etc.

But as his readers in England obstinately refused to carry the meaning on into the second verse, he was fain to meet them at the termination, and the verse now ends tamely with a period—

> "To love but, may be, like."

There is not in all literature, perhaps, a flatter or more deplorable result of incompetent criticism, but similar ones might easily be cited from the 'Bells and Pomegranates.' However, we cannot expect editors to go behind the decisions of their authors. We suspect, nevertheless, that either the editor or proof-reader of 'Selections' has taken a liberty in the closing line of "Childe Roland," where there is ordinarily a period before the quotation.

The publishers of these little volumes have sought to strengthen them by giving in each case a preface, bearing the name of a critic of reputation, but we doubt if in either instance they have helped the book. Mr. R. G. White furnishes the preface of 'Selections,' and gives us as usual a pretty strong flavor of his own dominant personality, which, however racy it may be, can hardly be called pliant or receptive. He would hardly think it the best preparation for a critic of Shakspere never to have "read a line of criticism upon him" (p. xx.), and yet he announces this with an air of pride about Browning in his own case. Indeed, it would seem that he could hardly have read even the original poems with minute accuracy, or he would not speak (p. x.) of "Count Guismond's Apology," the name of the hero in question being Gismond. Moreover, it is a very shallow solution of Browning's want of wide popularity to say (p. x.) that he does not much interest "the average young woman," when the disinclination toward him among average young men is quite as manifest, and the recent readings from Browning by Mr. Thaxter were certainly attended by ten women for one man. Nor is Mr. Mason much more fortunate in prefacing his volume by an extract from Mr. Stedman's 'Victorian Poets.' To our thinking, there is no chapter in that elaborate and painstaking volume so utterly inadequate as that on Browning. Mr. Stedman's criticism in this case resembles, one might say, Mr. Edwin Booth's acting; in dealing with minor matters nothing can be better, but in handling the more difficult passages neither the actor nor the critic adds much to our knowledge. Hence Mr. Stedman's treatment of Landor was a masterpiece; but in criticising Browning he scarcely seems to recognize what a really dramatic poet is, and his unsuccessful attempt to class Browning with Swinburne, as an advocate of absolute license in love, is a piece of special pleading that seems utterly unworthy of one poet dealing with another. Be this as it may, the whole paper of Mr. Stedman is written from a point of view quite antagonistic to that of the lovers and admirers of Browning; and it would tend to kill the sale of this book of selections but for the fortunate habit of readers in regard to skipping the preface.

In close connection with these two books on Browning there comes a tolerably well selected volume of English poetry—'Living English Poets, 1883' (Boston: Roberts Bros.). The collection is anonymous. The worst thing about it is the wretchedly executed group of poets in the frontispiece; the best thing is the plan, which is excellent. The merit of this plan is that it is restrictive rather than miscellaneous; that it aims to represent only poets of established fame, and to give the very few masterpieces of each—just as, for instance, a corresponding American selection would allow Holmes to be represented by his "Chambered Nautilus," and Lowell by his "Day in June." The project at least sounds well; when it comes to the fulfilment, no two persons will agree even as to the list of authors. Looking at the collection from this side of the Atlantic (since it plainly originated in England), we can easily pardon the absence of Alfred Austin and Oscar Wilde and Mrs. Emily Pfeiffer; but it certainly seems a little absurd to insert Harriet E. Hamilton King and A. Mary F. Robinson, while altogether leaving out Edwin Arnold. When we examine the selections in detail, there is still more room for question. It is pleasant to find the friends of our youth, Sir Henry Taylor and Richard Henry Horne and Philip James Bailey, still holding their place as contemporary poets; but the first two, at least, do not appear at their best. Lord Houghton's "Brookside" is perhaps his most popular poem, and is here given; but Aubrey de Vere has written a dozen that are better than those which represent him in these pages, and if William Cory has not, he might as well not be included at all. But the selections from the greater poets are more felicitous than from the smaller. The chronological table is good; we are told the date of each poet's birth, and are spared all further information or criticism. As a whole, the book vindicates its plan, and is well worth having.

When we turn to the recent productions of our new American poets, we are reminded of what Heine says: that, as a glass of water contains a whole world of wonderful and minute animals, in whom the power of the Creator is as manifest as in the largest, so the pettiest poetic almanac contains a swarm of poetlings who to the studious searcher seem as interesting as any elephant. There lies before us a series of dainty volumes, each doubtless dear to the author and his wife, and each no doubt containing some genuine record of experience, yet each wholly destitute of the magic touch which could alone make them precious to the stranger. It is useless to name them, and better not to specify; there are, fortunately, a few which stand out from among them, either through intrinsic qualities or through the circumstances of their composition. Some of them, for instance, come from men who are already known in other fields, and with whom poetry is rather an avocation than a vocation. Sometimes these proceed from a clergyman, as with 'Poems by Minot J. Savage' (Boston: George H. Ellis); sometimes from an assiduous literary compiler and editor, as in 'Idler and Poet,' by Rossiter Johnson (Boston: Osgood); sometimes from one who has devoted his life to musical composition, as with Mr. Richard Storrs Willis, in his 'Pen and Lute' (Detroit: Nourse). In each of these cases the author would probably admit for himself that, as he had spent his life in training for some other pursuit, he could not justly claim excellence in this also. But the trouble is, that we often take most satisfaction in doing that which the world does not expect of us—as Byron was vainer of his swimming than of his poetry. There is nothing conspicuously bad in any of these volumes, except, perhaps, the very vapid college-songs of Mr. Willis; but all offer rhymed thoughts rather than poetry, and the mass of them have a greater defect—namely, that conventional and tame flavor which comes from taking both nature and life at second hand. Even Mr. Ernest W. Shurtleff—'Poems' (Boston: A. Williams & Co.)—who is expressly recommended by his sponsor, Mr. Hezekiah Butterworth, as having made his studio among the fields, birds, and flowers of Waltham, Mass., gives us a prolonged poem on the nightingale (p. 68), instead of celebrating any bird that could possibly be heard in Waltham. We are sorry to insist tediously on one point, but a national literature must be indigenous if it is to be anything at all; and we count it as a partial atonement for the ruggedness and the unkempt verse contained in Mr. W. J. Coughlin's 'Songs of an Idle Hour' (A. Williams & Co.), that the author at least writes about things he has seen and heard, such as Lowell cotton-mills and the children at work in them. Yet even he must become exotic when he wishes to be fine, and must sing of "Monkswood Grange" and "Lulu De Barre."

A few recent books stand out, however, from this general tendency to mediocrity. 'Monte Rosa, the Epic of an Alp,' by Starr H. Nichols (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), has attracted much attention, and deservedly, through its extraordinary descriptive power. No one has ever put into more weird and picturesque language the whole range of Alpine nature from

> "The virgin snow
> That slenderly leaps into kindred cloud
> From the slim tip, the last of mortal earth"
> (p. 13),

through all the terrible experiences of climbing and crevasse. The phrase "epic" in the title seems at first a little whimsical, and then too true—an "epic" indeed it is, in length and sometimes in monotony; and there is often an incompleteness, and even slovenliness, of the lines, reminding us of the tantalizing utterances of Ellery Channing; but Mr. Nichols, yet more than Mr. Channing, is sure presently to startle us with something so thoroughly poetic as to atone for innumerable sins, and it is certain that so much fine Alpine description was never before compressed into a single volume.

Another little volume has a special interest as being a sort of "survival" of the ideal side of Transcendentalism. Mr. John Albee, author of 'Poems' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), wrote, many years ago, a paper in the *Atlantic Monthly*, in which he so caught the trick—or perhaps it would be kinder to say the movement—of Emerson's prose style that many people supposed the essay to be by Emerson himself. In like manner, there are many short verses in this volume which might have been printed in the *Dial* but that they seem more faint and misty than the improvisations, often striking, which used there to pass muster for poetry. We confess to liking Mr. Albee best when he is least Emersonian; when he writes under the inspiration of a personal grief, as in the series of poems, "In Memory of H. R. A.," or when he commemorates the local traditions of New Hampshire, and takes us back to the romantic old days of de Chauncy and Champernowne The latter is perhaps the most knightly figure in the early New England legend, and yet is strangely ignored by our cyclopædias. The sonnet written at his grave shows Mr. Albee at his best:

> "Here poise, like flowers on flowers, the butterflies;
> The grasshopper on crooked crutch leaps up,
> The wild bees hum above the clover cup,
> The fox-grape wreaths the fence in green disguise
> Of ruin; and antique plants set out in tears,
> Pink, guelder-rose, and myrtle's purple bells,
> Struggle 'mid grass and their own wasting years
> To show the grave that no inscription tells.
>
> "Here rest the bones of Francis Champernowne;
> The blazonry of Norman kings he bore;
> His fathers builded many a tower and town,
> And after Senlac England's lords. Now o'er
> His island cairn the lonesome forests frown
> And sailless seas beat the untrodden shore."

There is real power, too, in some of the 'Verses,' by Kate Vannah (Philadelphia: Lippincott), especially in those called "Her Last Wish" and the sonnet on "An Opera-Cloak." Mr. Mackenzie Bell, in his 'Verses of Varied Life' (London: Elliot Stock), certainly reaches pretty near low-water mark when he puts "Waiting for the Dentist" into rhyme; but he redeems part of his transgression by the very agreeable way in which he turns his peninsular travel into verse before the volume closes. The piquantly-illustrated volume called 'Birds and Babies,' by Ethel Coxhead (London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.), has a good deal of wit and grace in it; but the child who would not be haunted by those little black, long-eared goblins can have no hereditary predisposition to nightmare. Mr. Edward S. Gregory gives us an oft-told tale in his 'Lenore, and Other Poems'

(Lynchburg, Va.: J. P. Bell & Co.), yet an interest will always attach to Bürger and his poetry, to his three wives, and to the criticism by which Schiller is supposed to have killed him; so that Mr. Gregory's preliminary pages of biography and bibliography really enhance the value of his little volume. His translation of the well-known ballad is as good as any, and many of the other poems show real poetic feeling. The longest of these is one entitled "The Roman Lawyer," written by way of antidote to Mr. W. W. Story's defence of Judas Iscariot, under the same title. One alone of the minor poems has a marked political character, and that—being an appeal to Virginia, under the title "Desdichado"—is certainly one of the most spirited of the secession lays.

There is something quite novel in the whole effect of 'Birch-bark Poems,' by Mr. Charles F. Lummis (of the Scioto *Gazette*), as published by himself in very peculiar guise at Chillicothe, Ohio. The poems are printed upon miniature pages, two inches square, the material of these being an excessively thin birch-bark, as delicate as tissue-paper, and taking perfectly the impression of the types. The bark was in this instance, as the author privately informs us, gathered in the White Mountains of New Hampshire, where no suitable quality of the material can be found at a lower elevation than two thousand feet. The half-dozen little poems are smooth, fresh, and graceful, and the whole booklet is very pleasing to eye and touch. The author is to be congratulated on compelling his favorite tree to vindicate its claim to its prophetic title of *Betula papyracea*, or "paper-birch."

HALLOWELL'S QUAKER INVASION.

The Quaker Invasion of Massachusetts. By Richard P. Hallowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1883.

THE subject of this little book is the persecution of the Quakers by the New England Puritans. The object of it is "to correct popular fallacies, and to assign to the Quakers their true place in the early history of Massachusetts." The title, 'Quaker Invasion of Massachusetts,' is suggestive of a satirical treatment of the subject, but this appears only in the title and some of the chapter headings, the author's seriousness manifesting itself through every page of his work.

Quaker historians have preserved to the smallest particular the records of the afflictions of the "peculiar people." The executions, mutilations, stripes, imprisonments, and fines—all these have been described with wonderful minuteness by able, if not impartial, writers. The other side of the painful story has been left unwritten, and so it happens that the Puritans, without a defender, and scarcely an apologist, by their very silence plead guilty to the whole indictment. Two centuries of hearty repentance have not removed the stain. Our *ex-post-facto* judgment declares their offence to be thoroughly inexpiable, and demands from time to time a fresh exposure and punishment. An important circumstance of the persecutions—a circumstance usually disregarded in the discussions—is that, in strict justice, whatever opprobrium is to be meted out to the persecutors should be placed upon the magistrates and ministers of the colony, and not upon the whole body of the people. Mr. Hallowell candidly admits that "the passage of the laws and their merciless enforcement were not sustained by public opinion"; and Mr. Bowden, the author of an excellent 'History of the Friends in America,' says that "throughout the sufferings of Friends in New England, there is scarcely a single instance on record in which the public evinced a spirit of persecution." On one occasion, certainly, the inhabitants of Boston opened a public subscription in aid of the release of five imprisoned Quakers, and speedily raised the desired amount. Whatever the rulers might have been, the people of the colony were humane and generous. Without question the Quakers were a "disturbing element," for in several respects their avowed principles came in conflict with the requirements of Puritan law. The Puritans required that every able-bodied man should perform military duty; the Quakers were non-resistants, refusing to fight, and "testifying" against war in unsparing terms. The Puritans administered oaths of allegiance and fidelity to the inhabitants, with fine and imprisonment for those who refused to take the oaths; it was a cardinal precept of the Quakers to "swear not at all." The Puritans levied taxes for the support of ministers and churches; the Quakers were conscientiously opposed to contributing toward the support of the legally established ministers and churches. In an age of religious toleration these would be trifling differences, hardly worth talking about. The persecutions, however, were the events of an age in which toleration was preached against as a sin, "the first-born of all abominations."

Mr. Hallowell is a stalwart supporter of the Quakers. He writes feelingly and with all the force of a Bishop or a Whiting. Aiming to be accurate, he fortifies his position with quotations from the colonial laws and verbatim copies of the records, some of which have not hitherto appeared in print. His introductory chapter deals with the "Rise of Quakerism in England," and presents a eulogistic survey of the religious tenets of George Fox and his followers. His narrative proper commences with the chapter entitled "The Invasion—Measures of Resistance and Defence." The vanguard of the "invading army" arrived at the port of Boston, from Barbadoes, about the 1st of July, 1656. It consisted of two "harmless women," one, Anne Austin, "stricken in years," the mother of five children, and the other, Mary Fisher, a "maiden Friend" of the age of thirty-two. These women were ministers of the Society of Friends, and they brought with them "sundry books," described by the Puritan authorities as containing "most corrupt, heretical, and blasphemous doctrines, contrary to the truth of the gospel here professed." The strangers arrived at an unhappy moment. A few days before, Mrs. Anne Hibbins, the widow of an eminent magistrate, suffered death on the gallows for the crime of witchcraft, and the town was considerably excited over that extraordinary event. The Quakers were made prisoners before they had stepped on shore, and, after being examined for witch-marks "in a manner too indecent to be named," were carried to the jail and there kept in close confinement for the space of five weeks. Their proselyting books were ordered by the Council to be "forthwith burnt and destroyed by the common executioner," and after five weeks' imprisonment the offending women were put on shipboard and sent back to Barbadoes, the expense of their transportation, as also the charges of their imprisonment, being laid upon the captain who had so imprudently brought them to New England. Such was the beginning of the persecution of the Quakers. In commenting upon the treatment of Mary Fisher and Anne Austin, Mr. Hallowell says: "There is nothing in the whole history of their case to relieve the blackness of the diabolical crime of which they were the victims." But surely the fact that Nicholas Upsall, "a church-member and freeman since 1631, bribed the jailer with five shillings a week for the privilege of sending them provisions," lest they should be starved, must relieve the history of their case of some of its blackness, for Mr. Upsall by his charitable course was preparing the way for his own banishment.

On the 7th of August, two days only after the forced departure of Anne Austin and Mary Fisher, eight other Friends' ministers arrived at Boston by ship direct from London. These were Christopher Holder, John Copeland, Thomas Thurston, William Brend, Mary Prince, Sarah Gibbons, Mary Weatherhead, and Dorothy Waugh. Their reception differed but little from that given to Anne Austin and Mary Fisher. They were straightway made prisoners and placed in jail, the keeper being ordered to "search their boxes, chests, and things," and to "keep them close prisoners, not suffering them to confer with any person, nor permitting them to have paper or ink." After an imprisonment of eleven weeks' duration, sentence of banishment was passed upon them, and they were sent back to England by the same ship in which they came. Brave hearts! Within two years all except Mary Prince were back again in America, John Copeland and Christopher Holder to lose their right ears in Boston Jail. By ways mysterious the doctrines of the Quakers were spread through New England, and the "warfare," once fairly commenced, waxed hotter and hotter. Rigid laws were enacted punishing by fine, imprisonment, and banishment "on pain of death" the "cursed sect of heretics." In 1661, the "King's Missive" stopped for a while the hands of the persecutors. The truce lasted for little more than a year, and then the persecutions broke out afresh, and were continued until 1677, when "the Friends rallied in increasing numbers, and once more the authorities were forced to respect their rights."

An examination of the war record shows that four Quakers were put to death. The martyrs were Mary Dyer, described by a Dutch writer as a "person of no mean extract and parentage, of an estate pretty plentiful, of a comely stature and countenance, of a piercing knowledge in many things, and of a wonderful sweet and pleasant discourse"; William Robinson, a merchant of the city of London; Marmaduke Stevenson, a Yorkshire farmer; and William Leddra, a "clothier," from Barbadoes. Three young men, well educated and of good estate, were sentenced to have "each of you his right ear cut off by the common hangman." These victims were John Rouse, Christopher Holder, and John Copeland. Humphrey Norton was branded in the hand with the letter H. This was done in the New Haven colony, and must not be charged against Massachusetts. Norton revenged himself on his tormentors, and in a book called 'New England's Ensign' he blistered them all over. "The number of homes broken up by banishment and the extent of the impoverishment of families by confiscation of property have yet to be computed. Nor is it known how many scourgings were inflicted." From Mr. Hallowell's closing chapter—"The Cause of the War and its Results"—we quote the following:

"If we fully realize the differences that separated them [the Puritans] from the Quakers, we shall see that a conflict between the two was inevitable. Resistance to religious tyranny was an imperative and sacred duty with the Quaker. Extermination of heresy and persecution of Nonconformists were essential articles in the creed of the Puritans. . . . All Puritans were not Quakers, but all Quakers were Puritans. Strong sympathies and similarities intensified the heat of the conflict. Family feuds are proverbially bitter, and theirs was a family quarrel. When Greek met Greek then came the tug of war. . . . The Quakers were abreast, if not in advance, of the foremost advocates of religious and civil freedom. They were more than advocates: they were the pioneers who by their

heroic fortitude, patient suffering, and persistent devotion rescued the old Bay colony from the jaws of the certain death to which the narrow and mistaken policy of the bigoted and sometimes insincere founders had doomed it. They forced them to abandon pretentious claims, to admit strangers without insulting them, to tolerate religious differences, and to incorporate into their legislation the spirit of liberty which is now the life-blood of our institutions. The religion of the Society of Friends is still an active force, having its full share of influence upon our civilization."

Mr. Hallowell has closely studied the whole subject of the persecutions, and, after a somewhat careful reading of his book, we feel constrained to say that it makes a fair exhibition of one of the most distressing episodes of colonial history. A material addition to the value of the work is its faultless index.

WILLIAM ROWAN HAMILTON.

Life of Sir William Rowan Hamilton, Knt., LL.D., D.C.L., M.R.I.A., Andrews Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin, and Royal Astronomer of Ireland, etc., etc., including selections from his poems, correspondence, and miscellaneous writings. By Robert Perceval Graves, M.A. Vol. I. Dublin: Hodges, Figgis & Co.; London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1882.

William Rowan Hamilton was born in Dublin, August 4, 1805, and lived to the age of sixty years. Professor Tait, of Edinburgh, who has perhaps a greater familiarity with his scientific works than any other person, has called him "a man of genius . . . in the most strict and exclusive sense—one of those extraordinary instances which are above every-day comparisons, and in fact furnish themselves the only standard by which they can be measured." The boy Hamilton being, from the early age of three, under the tutelage of his uncle, the Rev. James Hamilton, had acquired at thirteen a thorough knowledge of Persian, Arabic, Sanskrit, etc.; at seventeen began the systematic study of Laplace; at eighteen was rated by Doctor Brinkley as the greatest mathematician of the age; received during his collegiate course at the University of Dublin the unique distinction of double *optime* ("the more remarkable by the fact that one was in classics, the other in science"); was appointed Andrews Professor of Astronomy in the University at the age of twenty-two, and before the actual termination of his undergraduate studies; at twenty-seven had made such generalizations in the science of optics as led him to the theoretical discovery of conical refraction (which Doctor Lloyd immediately verified by laboratory experiments); at twenty-nine, in adapting his method of "varying action" from optics to dynamics, contributed the greatest additions which this latter science had received "since the grand strides made by Newton and Lagrange"; was elected to the Presidency of the Royal Irish Academy at thirty-two; at thirty-seven published his important researches on the "fluctuating functions"; at thirty-eight was so fortunate as to make perhaps the greatest contribution to the mathematical science of the present century—the invention of the calculus of quaternions; and continued the high exercise of his extraordinary mathematical genius in grappling with the most abstruse subjects of analysis until within a few hours of his death (September 2, 1865), having been engaged at that time for many years on his great work, the 'Elements of Quaternions.'

To his uncle, curate of Trim, was Hamilton indebted, more than to any other, for that cautious circumspection of early training which insured a thorough foundation for the massive superstructure of his own erection; and in later life Hamilton was fond of acknowledging this incomparable service. The boy of four first draws the attention irresistibly by the striking combination of his childish frolicsomeness with the learning of the wisest heads. Of his marvellous attainments at a very tender age, Mr. Graves very concisely remarks:

"Continuing a vigorous child in spirits and playfulness, he was at three years of age a superior reader of English, and considerably advanced in arithmetic; at four a good geographer; at five able to read and translate Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, and loving to recite Dryden, Collins, Milton, and Homer; at eight he has added Italian and French, and gives vent to his feelings in extemporized Latin, and before he is ten he is a student of Arabic and Sanskrit. And all this knowledge seems to have been acquired, not, indeed, without diligence, but with perfect ease, and applied, as occasion arose, with practical judgment and tact."

Almost the first occasion of this sort gave birth to his 'Syriac Grammar, compiled from that of Buxtorf, translated into the English language and Syriac characters'—at the conclusion of which he says: "Soon may be expected an account of the irregular and indeclinable words, etc., with a syntax." This document, a manuscript book of thirty pages, was finished a month before he was twelve years of age. At fourteen, on occasion of the visit of the Persian Ambassador, Mirza Abul Hassan Khan, to Dublin, Hamilton wrote him a letter in Persian, of which the minister is reported to have said that he had not believed there was a man in Britain who could have written such a document.

It is always a matter of astonishment to one first acquainting himself with the life of Hamilton, and learning of his extraordinary acquisitions in language when still so young, that his celebrity in mature life came to him chiefly through his power of mathematical research. This meets with a full explanation in a letter by Hamilton himself, wherein he expresses his belief that his experience with Zerah Colburn, the famous American calculating boy—whom Hamilton met and engaged in Dublin at about this age—first gave the decisive turn of his attention toward the science of numbers. A mind of his calibre could scarce fail to leave the world the better for having lived in it, whatever might have been the direction of its activity; but there will be few to doubt that Hamilton's true sphere was mathematical analysis. And, notwithstanding the revulsions of his susceptible nature at the "utter unimaginativeness" of some mathematicians whom he met later in life, Hamilton himself would seem to have entertained no doubt that the field of scientific investigation he had chosen was genuinely his. He saw clearly, at the age of eighteen, that he had derived from the classics all the benefit they were likely to give him; writing at this time to his sister Eliza, that science in its most exalted heights had so captivated him—"so seized on, I may say, my affections—that my attention to classical studies is an effort, and an irksome one." In conjunction with a school-fellow, we find Hamilton, at fifteen, inventing and practically employing a signal-code, the words being spelled out in conversation by properly varied and combined motions of the arms, and viewed from as great a distance as his fellow could be readily seen. Of his lordly ambition, he writes to his aunt, Mary Hutton (p. 111): "Mighty minds in all ages have combined to rear upon a lofty eminence the vast and beautiful temple of science, and inscribed their names upon it in imperishable characters; but the edifice is not completed: it is not yet too late to add another pillar or another ornament. I have yet scarcely arrived at its foot, but I may aspire one day to reach its summit." About this time, at the age of seventeen, he conceived the germ of his illustrious researches in optics. The depth of his love for science, and particularly for mathematics, gave no sign of waning with advancing years—we must, in fact, regard it as the more forceful when, recalling his own propensity for poetic expression, we read what he writes to Francis Edgeworth at twenty-four (page 348): "I must say that I believe myself to find in mathematics what you declare you do not—a formable matter out of which to create Beauty also; and that, to my particular constitution of mind, a mathematic theory presents even more of 'the intense unity of the energy of a living spirit' than the work of a poet or of an artist."

We have serious doubt whether Mr. Graves has increased the attractiveness of his book, as a biography of Hamilton, by the occasional digressions on people—otherwise little known—who have had the slight connection only of a letter to Hamilton, or a talk with him. It is not, perhaps, too much to say that the book goes a good way toward the biography of many other persons of marked distinction. And while, in general, this enhances its literary merit, it is at least a hindrance to one seeking an adequate knowledge of Hamilton as a scientist purely.

When first, a youth of nineteen, Hamilton met Miss Edgeworth, in a letter to his sister he says: "She far surpasses all that I had heard or expected of her, though I confess that, at first sight, I was disappointed by her personal appearance; and though she said at once, 'Mr. Hamilton, I am sure,' I was not at all prepared to say, 'Miss Edgeworth, I am sure.'" In one of the 'Stanley Papers'—a series of essays by the members of a small society of which Hamilton was, at the age of twenty, the chief spirit—we read (pp. 216–17):

"We find that among women many have been eminent as poets, but few as mathematicians. But to be eminent is not, perhaps, the great business of any one; certainly it is not the great business of a woman. Those absurd prejudices have indeed died away by which 'learned ladies' were once looked upon as a sort of wild beasts, to be treated with a mixture of fear and aversion. The times are gone when working in tapestry was one of the highest accomplishments of princesses, and when women of inferior rank were not allowed to aspire much further than the making of a shirt or of a gooseberry pie. . . . I am so far from being an enemy to the cultivation of the female mind, that I am always glad when I see a lady possessed of that energy by which some have surmounted all the obstacles thrown in their way by the restraints of custom and the deficiencies of education. . . . They should be persuaded to add to their native delicacy of taste and feeling something of those habits of accuracy of thought and reasoning which the study of science appears so peculiarly fitted to bestow. . . . I am not quite sure that in anything valuable the minds of men are really superior to those of the other sex."

It was Hamilton's good fortune to meet Wordsworth very soon after his appointment to the chair of astronomy in the University; and their mutual friendship, through an occasional subsequent meeting and the correspondence of years, grew to a healthful maturity. Mr. Graves has given the letters of the poet the very conspicuous position they deserve. Nothing will better illustrate the delicate conscientiousness of Hamilton than a single passage from a letter to Wordsworth (p. 395):

"And if any one, endeavoring to be impartial, conscientiously believes that he has power of original thought, that he can discover new fountains, however small, at which the minds of men may drink and be refreshed—does not that person, in devoting himself to such a search, in following with entire submission the guidance of his inward light, and seeking to accomplish the task assigned to him from within, fulfil his highest duty, not to himself only, but to other men? To me—who do believe myself to possess original power of mathematical thought, however small may be its degree, and who have long been impressed with a deep and enthusiastic conviction that with this power are

connected a duty and a destiny, a task while I live, an influence after I am dead—the questions here proposed are of great and anxious interest. And though, as respects myself, my conscience has long since answered them, and the answer is graved in distinct and luminous characters, it were a lot too happy if the writing were never hid—if the inward voice sounded never faint and dubious—

'But though yet feeble, I will follow still.'"

To Herschel he writes of his possessing "the desire which all ardent persons have for sympathy, and the very little chance which there is of soon or often obtaining this sympathy, when the object of ardent love belongs to abstract Science." It is most gratifying to find Mr. Graves able to add, at the conclusion of this volume, "By nothing was Hamilton more distinguished, from the beginning to the end of his scientific career, than by his scrupulous anxiety to award to all laborers in the same fields with himself the shares to which they had a just title in the priority and independence of discovery."

Of Hamilton and his poetry his previous biographers have written not a little, but presumably without having seen more than a very small part of the immense number of verses he wrote. Except, perhaps, as showing the amiability and healthfulness of his nature, Mr. Graves would have done better to dismiss the poetry with a mere allusion to the fact that Hamilton frequently courted the muse. His poetry is respectable only in expression. That Hamilton himself, in later life, was inclined to regard with disfavor much of his early versification is evident from a letter in which he alludes to "those fourteen-lined productions to which I attach but little value on the artistic side, although some of them are associated with happy or mournful moments; and which at all events may, to a man's self, serve as instruments of culture, and may have some social or other interest to those who know him chiefly as a writer or thinker on subjects of a very different kind." Had Hamilton written his autobiography it seems doubtful whether it would have contained more than a very few of his verses. For a time, everything of this nature which he wrote was submitted to Wordsworth for his criticisms. The poet's replies are uniformly in discouragement of Hamilton's verse-writing, and he finally says (page 492): "But again I do venture to submit to your consideration, whether the poetical parts of your nature would not find a field more favorable to their exercise in the regions of prose: not because those regions are humbler, but because they may be gracefully and profitably trod with footsteps less careful and in measures less elaborate." Wordsworth offered plentiful emendations, but they were rarely adopted.

Hamilton's misfortunes in the early objects of his tender passion entered too largely into his life and work to be passed without mention here. His precocity was hardly less in love than in mathematics. At fourteen we find him establishing relations of permanent friendship at Willow Park, where "his impressible heart received from a daughter of the house the first stirring of a feeling which in after times caused him his keenest joys and his sharpest sufferings"; at nineteen, a member of the Disney family, and at twenty-six, no less a person than Miss Ellen De Vere, sister of the poet, became the object of his affections; while at the age of twenty-seven his mind was "kept on the stretch by the preparation of his University Lectures on Astronomy, by mathematical research, and by the composition of verses filled with all the past experiences of his heart as he gave utterance to the fluctuations of a new passion, which was to conduct him to his marriage."

We must pass with a simple allusion Hamilton's unique discovery of conical refraction, of which (while the praises of the scientific world were pouring upon him in profusion) he wrote to Coleridge, in 1833, that he looked upon it, and all similar predictions, as "a subordinate and secondary result" when compared with the object he had in view—"to introduce harmony and unity into the contemplations and reasonings of optics, regarded as a branch of pure science." Nor can we do more than call attention to Mr. Graves's admirable delineation of Hamilton as a lecturer (pp. 497-8). This volume takes us only slightly beyond the inception, so to say, of Hamilton's scientific career; at the beginning of the second he will be still a very young man—his chief laurels yet to be won. So that, highly interesting—not to say, in some parts, fascinating—as this volume is, it is not too much to expect that the subsequent volumes will surpass it. But, notwithstanding its bulk, it can hardly supersede, on completion, a thorough scientific biography of Hamilton; and it does not, of course, in any respect attempt to deal with his abounding mathematical remains. Mr. Graves has not forgotten the convenience of his readers, having provided, through the kindness of a friend, an index with very copious entries. Two busts of Hamilton were executed during his early years—the one by Kirk, the Dublin sculptor, and the other by Terence Farrell. An autotype copy from a cast from the model of the latter forms the frontispiece of this initial volume of the biography of Hamilton.

Life of Haydn. By Ludwig Nohl. Translated from the German by George P. Upton. Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1883.

Professor Nohl, of Heidelberg, is one of the most prolific of living writers on music, his specialty being biography and the collection of biographic material, such as letters and contemporary critical estimates and notices. Various periodicals are regularly supplied with articles from his pen, and his books on Mozart, Beethoven, Liszt, and Wagner would fill a shelf capable of holding about a dozen volumes. Both in style and tone, his writings are of a popular character, which probably accounts for his alliance with the Reclam publishing house in Leipzig. This firm has issued a large proportion of the most popular German literature, in almost seventeen hundred neat little volumes, varying in price from five to twenty-five cents. Of these Professor Nohl has contributed five, besides a short history of music. They are biographies of Mozart, Beethoven, Haydn, Liszt, and Wagner, each of about one hundred pages, which makes five hundred pages of entertaining biography for twenty-five cents—for those who can read German. For English readers, the first three named have been translated, the latest addition being the 'Haydn.' The translation is clear, and, on the whole, less awkward than might have been expected on account of Professor Nohl's occasionally involved periods. Nohl has a good eye for the significant and suggestive facts in the life of his subjects, and his thorough sympathy with the modern movement in music does not prevent him from appreciating the historical and enduring value of the classical masters. References to the works and doctrines of Wagner and Liszt occur on almost every page, and the only objectionable feature is the occasional intrusion of the stupid Will-theory, with which Schopenhauer endeavored to explain music, like everything else. Wagner himself adopted and developed this theory; but the result only showed that he was as naïve and inexperienced in metaphysics as Schopenhauer was in music.

Haydn's longevity (he died at seventy-seven) brought him into contact with many of his distinguished successors, among them Mozart, Beethoven, Weber, Cherubini. His relations with Mozart appear to have been, on the whole, of a mutually affectionate nature, although there are indications of an occasional feeling of jealousy on the part of the older and of superiority on the part of the younger composer. With Beethoven he was on good terms personally, but in matters of art there was considerable tension between them. For some time, Beethoven was Haydn's pupil in counterpoint; but when he dedicated his sonatas (Op. 2) to Haydn, he refused to place "scholar of Haydn" on them, on the ground that he had not learned anything from him. It seems that when Beethoven presented his first trios to Haydn he was advised to suppress the best one of them—the third—which in "storm and stress," in freedom of harmony and structure, went considerably beyond Haydn. Beethoven naturally attributed this advice to jealousy, and from that moment suspected his teacher, who in turn habitually spoke of him as the "Great Mogul." Greater artistic sympathy existed between Haydn and Cherubini, who had said of Beethoven's great "Leonora" overture, when it first appeared, that he could not discover its key-note, on account of the confused modulation. Cherubini visited Haydn repeatedly, and on one occasion the latter said to him: "Permit me to call myself your musical father, and you my son." There was a certain æsthetic relationship between them, for, although Cherubini lacked Haydn's gayety, he shared his serene grace, and, like him, always made the form prevail over the matter or ideas; whereas with Beethoven, and still more with Schumann, Liszt, and Wagner, the ideas arbitrarily assumed whatever form was most becoming to them, without reference to traditional rules. The perfection of classical form is very apt to degenerate into mere formalism, and this is the reason why so much of the work of Haydn and Mozart is distasteful to the present generation. "Hastiness of conception, and execution according to an acquired routine, furnish the chief explanation of the character of their works," says Wagner. "His truly noble works Haydn wrote only in his old age, in the enjoyment of a comfort insured by his reputation abroad no less than at home." Both Haydn and Mozart were compelled to work at railway speed—Mozart in order to supply the public demand, and keep a few cents in his pocket, Haydn to fulfil the terms of his engagement with Prince Esterhazy, which lasted thirty years.

His life at the castle of this Prince is one of the most memorable episodes in the history of music, for it was here that modern instrumental music was nursed and brought up. Haydn had an orchestra of sixteen, subsequently enlarged to thirty, as well as a number of singers and occasional itinerant soloists. With these he was enabled to experiment *ad libitum*, and thus to develop his own originality and the resources of the orchestra, the different factors of which he was the first to individualize and teach a language of their own. The disadvantages of his position were that, with the exception of an occasional visit to Vienna, he did not come into sufficient contact with musical life in general, and that he had to write to order a vast amount of transient, ephemeral matter. How greatly he was capable of being stimulated even in old age by such an event as his London journeys, is evinced by the great superiority of his London symphonies over those that had preceded them. And how much of his time and genius were wasted in the service of his Prince is most strikingly shown by the statement that he wrote

more than 170 pieces for the baritone or viola di bordone—an obsolete seven-stringed instrument of the size of a 'cello, or smaller, which was the Prince's favorite instrument. Most of these pieces are lost, and none of them printed. His successful journeys to London, which for the first time enabled him to lead a life of ease, had the further effect of awakening his ambition to compose vocal works on a large scale after the example of Handel. But notwithstanding the excessive amount of laudation which several generations have bestowed on the "Creation" and the "Seasons," it has always been our humble opinion that these works were overrated, and that they show but little of the genius which has given a perennial charm to many of Haydn's symphonies and string quartets. But Haydn wrote one song of which Nohl justly says that, had he written "nothing but this song, centuries of the German people's life would know and mention his name." It is the Austrian national hymn, "Gott erhalte Franz den Kaiser," which towers like a pyramid over all other national hymns, and is one of the most sublime inspirations of the human mind. The melody is so rich that it seems to need no accompaniment; but when the grand harmonies, so capable of striking modulation, are added, the meaning of the word patriotism is, for the first time, fully revealed in a thrill of emotion. Not the least remarkable thing about this hymn is that it was written to order. The *Musical Review* gives expression to a general opinion in these words: "From Beethoven downwards, works written to order have died at their birth. The solitary real failure that Wagner can be said to have made was his Philadelphia 'Festmarsch.' Berlioz's prize cantata, 'Sardanapale,' was no student-work; yet it has perished untimely. Schumann holds up Lachner's prize symphony to contempt. Gounod, Massenet, and many others have won the *Prix de Rome;* their compositions had the life of the May-fly." The *Review* forgets Haydn's hymn, which was written at the special request of the Imperial High Chancellor in 1796, and proved so great a success as to atone for all the failures enumerated.

Statistical Record of the Armies of the United States. By Frederick Phisterer, late Captain U. S. Army. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

THIS volume is a supplement to the collection of monographs on the "Campaigns of the Civil War," brought out by the same publishing house, in twelve volumes, and completes the work. As an addition, it is valuable; as the completing supplement, it is very inadequate. As the title shows, it is only a record of the Union armies, the statistics of the Confederate armies being almost totally ignored. It is all but wholly compiled with regard to military organizations, as if intended only to satisfy the special historical interest of members of such organizations, and not to offer to the general reader an easy view of the efforts made and the strength displayed in the successive stages or in the particular combats of the great contest. Its Part 1, embracing eighty pages, specifies President Lincoln's "Calls for Troops," the "Organizations Mustered into the Service of the United States," the "Military Divisions, Departments, and Districts of the United States," the "Military Division of the United States Forces," the "Principal Armies," the "Army Corps," the "Strength of the Army at Various Dates," the "Honors" conferred by Congress for special merits, the "Losses" sustained by the army collectively, and the "National Cemeteries." Part 3—upward of ninety pages—contains only lists of "General Officers of the United States" (according to rank, and with dates of appointment, promotion, death, or mustering out), of "General Officers of States entering service in April, 1861," and of "General Officers Deceased while in the Service." Part 2 is the main portion of the volume, presenting, in 160 pages, a full "Chronological Record of Engagements, Battles, etc."—no fewer than 2,261—with a partial list of losses, and an alphabetical index; but this division, too, gives only scanty information, and mostly information of no general interest.

Take, for instance, No. "36," which records the first great event of the war, the battle of "Bull Run (also Manassas), Va." We read, "July 21—Infantry, Volunteers, or Militia: 2d Maine, 2d New Hampshire, 2d Vermont, 1st, 4th, and 5th Massachusetts, 1st, 2d, and 3d Connecticut, 8th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 16th, 18th, 27th, 29th, 31st, 32d, 35th, 38th, and 39th New York volunteers," etc., etc., and much more information of the same kind, without the slightest indication as to which Federal army fought here, who commanded it, what its numerical strength was, what army or which general opposed it, which was the assailing party, which side was victorious, or where fuller information on the battle could be found. Only in a few exceptional instances are we told which Federal army was engaged, and who was its general, but no such exceptions occur as to the opposing forces. The curious student of the history of the Civil War will, of course, easily discover the description of the battle of Bull Run in one of the twelve campaign books to which this is a supplement, but where shall he look for information about the two thousand engagements entered under names totally unknown to him, without an allusion as to command or campaign? In fact, we consider the bulk of this chronological record as entirely useless. The list of "Losses" in one hundred and forty-nine engagements, in which there were more than five hundred killed, wounded, and missing on the Union side, is interesting in itself, and, being brief, also offers a connected view of simultaneous operations on the various theatres of the war. But "although the losses here given are generally based on official medical returns, the figures must not be taken as perfectly reliable, for in many instances the returns were based on estimates, and the totals of losses were, by *later* and more reliable returns, sometimes considerably reduced." These more reliable returns are not given.

Some of the statistical statements contained in Part 1 are worth reproducing here in brief. Under Mr. Lincoln's first call, of April 15, 1861, for 75,000 militia men for three months, there were furnished 91,000 men; under the call of May 3, 1861, 715,000, most of them for three years; under the call of July 2, 1862, 421,000, for three years; under the call of August 4, 1862, 87,000, for nine months; under the call of June 15, 1863, 16,000, for six months; under the calls of October 17, 1863, and February 1, 1864, 369,000, for three years; under the call of March 4, 1864, 292,000, for three years (with slight exceptions); between April 23 and July 18, 1864, 83,000 militia, for one hundred days' service; under the call of July 18, 1864, 386,000 men, for three years; under the call of December 19, 1864, 212,000 for various terms. Besides these, there were furnished, during the war, by the Territories and some of the seceded States, 182,000, mostly for three years. Total of men furnished (including the smaller figures, here omitted), 2,859,000; reduced to a three-years' standard, 2,320,000. Total of colored troops enlisted, 186,000; of men enlisted in the regular army, 67,000. (In this list men furnished for less than ninety days are not included, nor are the men credited for service in the navy; men who reënlisted are counted twice or more often.) Total of men in service on January 1, 1861, 16,000; July 1, 1861, 186,000; January 1, 1862, 575,000; January 1, 1863, 918,000; January 1, 1864, 860,000; January 1, 1865, 959,000; May 1, 1865, 1,000,000. According to the report of the Adjutant General of February 7, 1869, there were killed in battle 44,000 men; died of wounds, 34,000; died of disease, 149,000; of other known causes, 12,000; of unknown causes, 55,000—total of deaths, 294,000.

Velazquez and Murillo: A Descriptive and Historical Catalogue of the Works of Don Diego de Silva Velazquez and Bartolomé Estéban Murillo. With Original Etchings. By Charles B. Curtis, M.A. J. W. Bouton. 1883.

THIS very handsome *catalogue raisonné* of the works of Velasquez and Murillo is constructed on a plan which appears to us excellent. Seemingly an exhaustive historical and descriptive account of the works of these two famous artists, it puts the student in possession of all the known facts relating to them, while, by avoiding any critical remarks, it leaves him free to form his own judgments. Mr. Curtis has carefully classified the pictures in a manner which "has a certain reference to a chronological system, especially for the religious works." But an exact chronological arrangement is not attempted, because the data for such arrangement do not exist. Each picture is minutely, though concisely, described according to a uniform method. Its size is given, and its present whereabouts, together with its past changes of ownership and the prices paid for it, so far as these facts can be ascertained. To this is appended, in each case, a list of all the important engravings (with their dimensions) and in some cases of the photographs which have been made. Brief notices are also given of the lives and works of some of the followers of the two masters, and the book is completed by a convenient and copious index. Altogether it seems to be a very conscientious and thorough piece of work, such as we should be glad to see done for the greater masters of the Italian schools.

As regards Murillo, we think the labor here bestowed is out of all proportion to the importance of his works; and we regret to see the name of Velasquez coupled with his as if the two artists were of anything like equal merit. In the preface Mr. Curtis remarks that "it is much the fashion nowadays, with a certain class, to exalt Velazquez and decry Murillo. With such critics I have little sympathy. I find no difficulty in admiring both these artists. Each has his merits; perhaps I ought to be frank enough to admit that each has his defects." We had not supposed it to be much the fashion to decry Murillo. It has seemed to us more the fashion to admire him indiscriminately. We feel, however, that there is very good reason why Velasquez should be exalted over him, and the kind of catholicity to which Mr. Curtis gives expression appears to us to imply a want of real understanding of the powers of the two men respectively. Velasquez was a great imaginative realist. Murillo had little imagination, and he failed to appreciate the nobility of the real. Velasquez was also master of the technique of his art, while Murillo was lacking in subtle technical powers. Velasquez, though he possessed no great faculty of graceful design, was in other respects quite on a level with the great Italian masters. His penetration into character is equal to that of Titian or Tintoret, and his felicity, economy, delicacy, and expressiveness of touch are not inferior to theirs. Qualities like these are not to be found in Murillo; and when our author tells us that, "for the rigidity and severe asceticism of the previous age he substituted freedom in drawing, ease and grace in composi-

tion, unexampled richness and harmony of coloring, and a religious elevation that no artist has surpassed," we feel that he fails to comprehend the highest expression of the qualities he speaks of, as they are manifested in the works of the great Italian designers. The relative importance of schools of art must be estimated according to the sum of qualities which they respectively illustrate. Considered in this way, the Spanish school will, in the judgment of the most competent critics, fall into the second rank at best. The finest results in design—such as were attained in Florence and Venice—are the outcome of inherited gifts, of a vast series of favoring antecedent circumstances and contemporary conditions, such as the Spanish school never enjoyed. It was a school without noble traditions, and without such environment as might conduce to the finest artistic development; so that even Velasquez, its one great master, necessarily failed to attain the full standard of excellence which was elsewhere reached, while its lesser artists, including Murillo, are of distinctly inferior merit.

The etchings, of which the book contains four —two by Saint Raymond and two by Lalauze— are not of high quality; but the presswork and the general make up of the book are superb.

Washington-Irvine Correspondence. The Official Letters which passed between Washington and Brigadier-General William Irvine, and between Irvine and others, concerning Military Affairs in the West from 1781 to 1783. Arranged and Annotated, with an Introduction containing an Outline of Events occurring previously in the Trans-Alleghany Country. By C. W. Butterfield. Illustrated. Madison, Wis. : David Atwood. 1882. 8vo, pp. 430.

THE period covered by the Washington-Irvine correspondence is the two last years of the Revolutionary war, when hostilities had, to all intents and purposes, ceased in the East, although the state of war still nominally continued. General Irvine took command at Fort Pitt (Pittsburgh) in November, 1781, soon after the capture of Yorktown, and held command until October, 1783. The term of his command was distinguished by two events of unusual tragic interest—the massacre of ninety Moravian Delawares by a party of militia under Colonel Williamson, in March, 1782 (known as the Gnadenhütten affair), and the ill-fated expedition against the Sandusky settlements under Colonel Crawford, in June of the same year, which resulted in complete failure, Colonel Crawford being taken prisoner and burned alive after terrible tortures.

The Gnadenhütten affair is hard to understand at the present day, even with our experience of the uncompromising temper of the frontiersmen. But these were Christianized Indians, and they appear to have been neutral during the hostilities. It is, therefore, very significant of the state of feeling in the community when General Irvine writes to his wife in relation to it (p. 344): "I conjure you by all the ties of affection, and as you value my reputation, that you will keep your mind to yourself, and that you will not express any sentiment for or against these deeds, as it may be alleged the sentiments you express may come from me or be mine. No man knows whether I approve or disapprove of killing the Moravians." It is significantly remarked by a writer cited in a note to page 386 : "The Indians well knew the distinction between regulars and militia, and from these last they expect no quarter." We must remember that in all the Indian wars of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the cruelties of the natives were under the direction of civilized enemies. The British commander at Detroit, at the beginning of the war, "paid a bounty for scalps, but withheld it for prisoners" (p. 7). The book, therefore, affords a very instructive picture of the relation of the whites and the Indians at the close of the Revolutionary war on our (then) Western border, and would be of great value if only for this. But, besides this, it fills a gap in our knowledge of an important and little-known chapter of our history. The Introduction, of seventy pages, contains in six chapters an excellent history of the Northwest during the Revolutionary war. Considering the importance of this territory to the Union, and the delicacy of the questions arising out of conflicting claims and jurisdictions in regard to it, the clear light thrown upon its history by this publication is exceedingly welcome. The notes are very full and instructive, and must embody an immense amount of labor. There is also a good index, two portraits (of Washington and Irvine), and a facsimile map of the country between Detroit and the mouth of the Scioto.

A Concise English History. By W. M. Lupton, Army and Civil Service Tutor. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; Boston: Roberts Bros. 1883. 12mo, pp. 385.

MR. LUPTON'S concise history contains a remarkable amount of information in a very brief compass. For fulness, accuracy, clearness of statement, and convenience of arrangement—to which may be added the merit of a very full index—it deserves the highest praise. Nothing better, in the same space, could be desired for purposes of reference. Of course a book so crowded with names and dates as to be a good book of reference cannot be suited to general readers, nor, in our opinion, to be used as a text-book. It may serve as a basis of class work and a guide to reading, but interest cannot be secured and the attention fastened by such a mass of dry detail, nor can the memory be expected to master it. From the indication on the title-page we infer that it is designed to be used in preparation for competitive examinations in the English civil service; and we cannot help expressing the hope that the commissioners of our civil service may have the practical wisdom to prevent the reform from degenerating into such "cram" as this implies. The book is brought down to the latest dates, and will be welcome to those who wish to refresh their memory as to those recent events which are so easy to forget in their relation to one another, and so hard to look up. We notice on page 136 "Digger" for "Digges," and on page 237 "Ticonderago." There is a short appendix, on page 320, containing an explanation of terms used in history. The explanations are generally very good, but there ought to be many more. The definition of Tanistry is incorrect, or rather really belongs to the associated institution of Irish Gavelkind: Tanistry "determined the succession to all high office" (Maine, 'Early History of Institutions,' p. 33), and consisted in the election, out of the kindred, of a successor to the deceased chief.

A Book about Roses. By S. Reynolds Hole. W. S. Gottsberger. 1883.

THE Rev. S. Reynolds Hole, an English clergyman of the Established Church, is an ardent lover of roses, and he knows them thoroughly. This volume is the republication, in a smaller and cheaper form, of a work which appeared ten or twelve years ago, and which is well known to rose-growers. If Mr. Hole could contain his vivacity within reasonable bounds, curtail his anecdotes, suppress his Greek, Latin, and French, and spare us the occasional butt-end of a sermon inserted as a counterpoise to his jokes, his book would be more useful to those who want it for information. As it is, about half the space is devoted to gambols which, after a while, become tedious, especially as they are not always quite natural. Yet the book has excellent points. The exhibitor of roses will find it unequalled for his purposes. The lists of select roses, which form a valuable feature in it, have been revised and brought up to the present time, and are as good as any in existence.

Pedigrees of Thomas, Chew, and Lawrance, a West River Regester, and Genealogical Notes. By Rev. Lawrence Buckley Thomas. Thos. Whittaker. 1883. Pp. 139.

THE first thirty-five pages of this tract are given to the Chew family, beginning with John Chew, of Virginia, a burgess of Jamestown in 1623, prominent in that colony and in Maryland. Pp. 37 to 71 contain an essay by Edward S. Lawrance on the family of one Thomas Lawrance, born in London in 1707, who died in New Jersey in 1775. This branch or tribe seems not to be allied to any of the other numerous Lawrence families here. Pp. 73 to 117 relate mainly to the Thomas family, and the next twenty pages are uselessly devoted to miscellaneous notes concerning various Laurences, a name which seems invariably to lead the genealogist into a repetition of idle fables. The book is adorned with several portraits and other illustrations, and exhibits especially that exuberant fancy in the selection of unusual fonts of type which marks the productions of the amateur. Other indications of its origin abound; but, after all, genealogies are vanities, and why quarrel with any gentleman's special exhibition?

Electricity. By Robert M. Ferguson, Ph.D., F.R.S.E. New Edition. Revised and Extended by James Blyth, M.A., F.R.S.E. London and Edinburgh: W. & R. Chambers.

THE student of electricity will welcome this new edition of Dr. Ferguson's Treatise. Its merits are in its clear presentation of the phenomena, and in its avoidance of theories which have not been subjected to careful scrutiny. Many modern writers upon electricity incorporate in their treatises theories which occur to them apparently in the writing. New theories may be as good as old ones; but the age of a theory, like that of a wine, is something in its favor. Dr. Ferguson's book is eminently conservative, and the general student cannot find a better treatise on the principal phenomena of electricity. Professor Blyth has incorporated much that is new, and has not given too much space to useless illustration.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barrett, F. Honest Davie: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Bartlett, W. C. A Breeze from the Woods. 2d ed. California Publishing Co.
Brehm's Thierleben. Chromo edition. Parts 81-84. New York: B. Westermann & Co.
Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 61-65. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus; New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Buck, R. M. Walt Whitman. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Lindsay's Luck. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 50 cents.
Burnham, B. F. Records of Jesus Reviewed. Boston: The Union Co.
Burnham, S. M. History and Uses of Limestones and Marbles. With 48 chromolithographs. Boston: S. E. Cassino & Co.
Carr, J. B. Manual for the Use of the Legislature of the State of New York. 1883. Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.
Chattock, R. S. Practical Notes on Etching. Scribner & Welford.
Chronicle of James I., King of Aragon. Written by Himself. Translated from the Catalan by the late John Forster, Esq. In 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
Coan, T. M. Topics of the Time. I. Social Problems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Cornell, J. H. The Theory and Practice of Musical Form: On the Basis of Ludwig Bussler's 'Musikalische Formenlehre.' C. Schirmer.
Cotterill, Rev. H. My Work for God. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.

Crawford, F. Marion. Doctor Claudius: a True Story. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Dix, Morgan. Memoirs of John Adams Dix. 2 vols. Harper & Bros.
Dulles, Dr. C. W. What to Do First in Accidents and Emergencies. 2d ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 75 cents.
Earle and Congdon. Annals of the General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen of the City of New York. From 1785 to 1880.
Eclectic Complete Geography. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
English as She is Spoke; or, A Jest in Sober Earnest. Introduction by James Millington. D. Appleton & Co. 30 cents. Also, G. P. Putnam's Sons. 25 cents.
Fairy Gold: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 40 cents.
Farrar, F. W. My Object in Life. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Fowler, T. English Philosophers: Shaftesbury and Hutchison. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
Fulton, Rev. J. D. Sam Hobart. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Gibbon, E. History of Christianity: Comprising all that Relates to the Progress of the Christian Religion in 'The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.' Peter Eckler.
Golden Sands: a Collection of Little Counsels for Daily Life. Translated from the French. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 50.
Handbook for Friendly Visitors among the Poor. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 50 cents.
Hawthorne, N. Passages from French and Italian Notebooks. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hoppin, A. A Fashionable Sufferer; or, Chapters from Life's Comedy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 50.
Hawthorne, N. Passages from American Notebooks. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Hill, W. H. Students' Songs. Cambridge: Moses King. 50 cents.
Howison, R. R. God and Creation. Richmond, Va.: West, Johnston & Co.
Humphreys, A. A. The Virginia Campaign of 1864 and 1865. Charles Scribner's Sons.
In the Olden Time. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Jarves, J. J. Italian Rambles: Studies of Life and Manners in New and Old Italy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1 25.
Jones, Major. John's Alive; or, The Bride of a Ghost, and other Sketches. Philadelphia: David McKay. $1 25.
Kaufman, Rev. M. Socialism and Communism. E. & J. B. Young. 60 cents.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK THURSDAY, JUNE 7, 1883.

The Week.

THE Free-Trade Conference at Detroit was timely and useful in drawing public attention to the undoubted fact that the tariff is now a real issue in American politics—much more so than it has ever been in the present generation. Indeed, we must go back to 1846 and the years immediately following to find any period when this question was the dominant one in the national councils. There have been attempts to lift it up by horse-power to some sort of popular recognition since the close of the war, but all efforts were in vain so long as the issues growing out of slavery retained their grasp upon men's thoughts and consciences. In 1872 it was deemed a great *faux pas* that the Cincinnati Convention, composed in part of free-traders, remitted the tariff question to the Congressional districts. We are now far enough removed in point of time from that event to see that the dominant issues of 1872 were the carpet-bag governments of the South and the abuses of civil administration generally, and that the question of duties on imports would not then have controlled an average of five hundred votes in each State. All economical questions are dry and uninteresting to the mass of mankind unless they appeal directly and powerfully to the stomach, as they did in England when the Corn Laws were under debate. Great Britain was literally starved into free trade, and no country ever adopted that policy more reluctantly.

If, as is often alleged, the iron trade is an index of the general state of manufacturing industry, the present outlook is not altogether satisfactory, though in some respects better than it appeared a short time ago. Within the past week the crisis in the iron trade has been tided over without a strike among the operatives, though it has left matters in a somewhat unsettled and demoralized condition, and some important failures have followed, notably that of the Grafton Iron Works, of Leetonia, Ohio, with liabilities of $600,000, while several other firms are mentioned as being embarrassed. The action of the Pittsburgh ironworkers in conceding the demands of the operatives, after giving all the other iron mills of the West to understand that they could not and would not do so, has excited much indignation among the latter, because on the strength of these representations of the Pittsburgh men many mills in the Youngstown and other districts had made preparations for a strike, and cannot now avoid shutting down. This leaves the Pittsburgh men almost a monopoly of the business. It is generally admitted, however, that the production of iron now outstrips the consumption. On April 21 there was a decline of $2 per ton; a further decline of $2 was announced this week, and still lower prices are predicted.

There are some improvements in other features of the industrial situation, The crop prospects are certainly better than a few weeks ago, and there is now not much reason to doubt that we shall have a good average crop of wheat, and also that the certainty of short crops in Western Europe will make a fair market for it. Speculation in the grain markets still maintains prices to some extent, though there has been a decline within the week. The speculation in petroleum, which developed so suddenly, and advanced prices from $1 per barrel to $1 25 in a week or ten days, has declined and the price has dropped to $1 10. In the stock market the tendency has been toward stagnation. Prices of railway stocks have recovered a little from the extreme depression of two weeks ago, but the general public in this country seem to take less interest than usual in the stock market, and the same may be said of the foreign public. There has not been a time for several years when so few American railroad stocks were bought or sold for foreign account. While there is this decline in the speculative temper of the public, and also to some extent in the manufacturing industry of the country, money is accumulating in the banks, and rates of interest are tending downward.

After the Guiteau case, the Star-route case constitutes one of the most remarkable state trials that have taken place in modern times. It is, looked at in any way, a most important case. It involves not only a charge of fraud against two very prominent politicians, one of them an ex-Senator and the other one of the heads of the Post-office Department, but a charge of a far-reaching conspiracy to rob the Government, extending over a number of years, which was engineered by these two men. It is carried on at the seat of the Government; no pains or expense have been spared to secure the best counsel; and it has attracted from the outset an enormous amount of public attention. The Judge is a good lawyer, and certainly not in sympathy with the defendants. Under these circumstances it might be expected that the trial would be at least a dignified proceeding, whatever else it might be. On the contrary, the defendants have as one of their regular weapons a local press, in which they denounce and abuse and revile the prosecution, from the President down, threaten the witnesses, and, though they have been warned to keep quiet, are now publishing a choice collection of closing arguments, to match the closing speech of the Government counsel in court. One of the defendants has published "statements" through the press, during the course of the trial, to break the force of the evidence against him; he has nearly murdered a man for daring to give or suggest evidence against him, and he has maintained the most impudent demeanor on all possible occasions in the court-room. How far all this could have been prevented no one seems to know; but no doubt a great deal is due to the fact that the case is being tried in a little local court. The prestige of the tribunal counts for something, and we hardly think that in a United States court, with say two good circuit judges on the bench, even men like Brady and Dorsey would go to such lengths.

The statements made some time ago in the *Herald*, and on which we commented ourselves, touching the payment of the Baptist foreign missionaries in silver, instead of in gold, came up in a curious way before the Convention of the Baptist Missionary Union at Saratoga on Friday week. The charges—to which we made no allusion—of general financial maladministration were easily disposed of, and indeed seem to have had no foundation whatever, but the origin of the article in the *Herald* was left in some obscurity. It appears that a minister named Douglas was charged with having written it. This he denied on the platform, but read a letter of apology for having "furnished to an individual public printed documents, with no thought of harm to anybody"; and declared that "he did not know the contents of the article founded thereon," and was "not in harmony with the malicious insinuations and aspersions embraced in it." From another source we learn that though there has been difference of opinion as to the method adopted in adjusting the salaries of the missionaries, the question has been long settled, and therefore there is no foundation for the charge that an improper use had been made of the difference between the silver and gold. The explanation would have been more complete, however, if Mr. Douglas had been allowed or required to be more explicit. Why he should ask "forgiveness of God and of you" (the Convention) for furnishing "public printed documents" to "an individual," did not clearly appear.

The Harvard Board of Overseers has refused by a small majority to give Butler his degree. He has received the news with equanimity, maintains that it will help him politically, and will bring up the question "whether there is any good reason why the property of the College should be exempt from taxation which is so burdensome upon us while they use the alms of the State, bestowed on them for educational purposes, in an endeavor to control the politics of the State." "Time at last," he adds, "sets all things even." This threat is thoroughly characteristic of the man, and confirms what we have been saying as to the precise nature of the penalty, and the only one, which the Butlerites had in store, and the College had to fear, for a refusal of the degree. It appears that it was his conduct of late, since he took the Governorship, which decided the case against him. Moreover, the College officers in the Board of Overseers seem to have voted in his favor. The affair will be probably useful in putting an end, as far as Harvard is concerned, to the use of honorary degrees as a means of testifying the respect or admiration of a university for all kinds of merit, or no merit at all. Honorary degrees ought really to be reserved for proficiency in some field of learning or literature which the college is en-

gaged in cultivating. University testimonials for other kinds of merit should consist in resolutions passed by the degree-giving body, whatever it is. A correspondent of the Boston *Advertiser* shows that the practice of giving degrees to Governors has not been uniformly followed from the beginning. Two never received it at all; three had received it before becoming Governor; one received it only in the tenth year of his service, three only in the second ; and of the five who received it in their first year previous to 1844, three were Harvard graduates, and these five did not hold the office consecutively.

When Colonel Burt declined the Chief Examinership under the National Civil-Service Commission offered him by President Arthur, some papers sneeringly remarked that civil-service reformers like him had much to say about their cause, but would not accept an offered opportunity to serve it practically at a pecuniary sacrifice. This was silly talk in every respect, but Colonel Burt has effectually silenced it by accepting the Chief Examinership under the Civil-Service Commission of this State. That he could not accept President Arthur's offer without giving his sanction to a peculiarly ignoble trick, resorted to for the purpose of driving a most faithful and efficient officer from the service, in flagrant disregard of sound civil-service principles, will be admitted by every fair-minded man. The Civil-Service Commission of this State is now in excellent working order. The sincerity and earnestness of the Commissioners cannot be doubted, and they have for their executive officer unquestionably the fittest man that can be found.

Mr. Kennard must be curiously ill-informed of the state of opinion here if he believes that the discussion about the *Alabama* claims, which he proposed in his resolution in the House of Commons, reported in recent despatches, would result in the promotion of good feeling between the two countries. In fact, we do not see how anybody who knows much of human nature in general can expect it to do any good. It would, under his resolution, have to be begun by Great Britain, and would necessarily open with an intimation that, in the opinion of Englishmen, Americans had for ten years or thereabouts been keeping money which did not belong to them, which they had originally obtained by false pretences, and which their best men thought they ought to restore to the rightful owners. In what part of the world would a conference begun in this way be likely to bring people closer together or remove bitterness? The expectation entertained by some people in England, that a portion of the *Alabama* money will be returned, is fast taking on the character of a superstition—that is, a belief which rests on supernatural grounds and cannot be overthrown by ordinary reasoning. It is only one degree more respectable than the expectation that the Confederate bonds will be paid, and not by any means so respectable as the campaign story that as soon as the Democrats get into power they will pay $3,000,000,000 of "rebel war claims." This last has done good service in its day, and may do some service still, which is more than can be said of Mr. Kennard's dream.

The ladies forming the Local Committee on Harvard Examinations for Women have, as perhaps many of our readers know, established classes, under competent instructors, to prepare young women, at a very moderate expense, for the Harvard entrance examinations, which are identical for both sexes, Harvard having taken the bold, if not awful step, from which Columbia shrinks, of asking young women the same questions as young men, in Greek, Latin, and mathematics. These classes have been in existence during the past winter and are to be continued in the fall, but admission to them must be applied for before September 1 to the Secretary, Heyhoe, Palisades, Rockland County, N. Y. Such modifications in the system will be introduced as the experience of last winter suggests or the needs of the students seem to require. The examinations are held here every year, both of young men and young women, but in different rooms, by the same professor, sent on from Harvard for the purpose. Some private schools have prepared candidates for the Harvard examinations on the old plan of a special course for women, but none have met the requirements of the present system. What the Committee now offers is experienced and responsible teachers at the lowest possible cost to the students, thus obviating the large expense of private instruction, which many young women would be unable to bear.

The failure of the attempt to blow up the Welland Canal with dynamite is most satisfactory news. The accounts of the affair telegraphed from Toronto all agree as to the main facts. It was announced beforehand, as is usual in all such cases, that the day fixed to blow up the canal was the 13th of May, the day set for the hanging of Joe Brady. The Canadians, therefore, most prudently stationed sentries, armed to the teeth, all along the canal, keeping, of course, the larger military bodies as well as a batch of detectives in reserve. As soon as the guards were posted, the dynamiters came boldly on, "fifteen rough-looking men, each carrying a satchel." Jumping nimbly from the train, they were immediately shadowed by detectives to the hotel, and, it is unnecessary to add, "overheard in conversation." They walked about for some time "making secret arrangements" to blow up the canal. They had not walked far, however, before they came to the sentry-boxes. Seeing that the game was up, they dispersed and returned to the United States, having, however, by way of precaution, previously held a "secret meeting." To make the story complete, it should be added that "a Government official" connected with the canal, has "admitted" that it was true.

The Civil-Service Commission is troubled by that clause in the law which provides that when two persons of one family are employed in the civil service, no other member of that family shall be eligible to appointment, and it has concluded to ask for the Attorney-General's opinion whether the words "one family" in the law mean only parents and their children, or also nephews and nieces, grandchildren, cousins, and relatives by marriage. There has been a good deal of demagogy in the talk about families being quartered upon the public purse. Of course, it is undesirable that many persons belonging to one family should be in the same office together, so that, if so inclined, they can work into one another's hands and form coteries or rings for mutual protection and advancement. Such family nests should be broken up where they exist, and not be permitted to form again. But there is really no valid reason why several persons belonging to the same family, if they are found competent and suitable, should not be employed in different branches of the service where they can make no objectionable combinations of influence. It is not unfrequently found that certain specialties are cultivated in particular families with exceptional success. We know, for instance, of a family which has turned out a remarkably large number of excellent bookkeepers—real experts, male and female, five or six of them ; and we cannot see why this comparatively rare and extremely useful faculty should not be employed by the Government to the best advantage. We could not imagine any harm to come from their relationship if one were employed in the Internal Revenue office, another by the Commissioner of Railroads, another in the Indian office, another in the postal service, and another in the customs department. The Government should not be hampered unnecessarily in the employment of the best ability it can find.

The more we look into the article on "Authorship in America" in the June *Atlantic*, the more full we find it of new and original instruction for authors. Here is a lesson that we carelessly overlooked at the first reading:

> "I have heard people make the preposterous remark that the publisher grows rich, while the authors for whom he publishes continue to be poor. Of course he does; if he is faithful to the interests of the authors, he must, or what would be the meaning of the rule of three? A publisher with his hundred books ought to be better off for money than each of a hundred authors with one book."

So he ought—just a hundred times better off, if the rule of three is entitled to any lasting confidence—and a thousand times better off than a thousand authors with one book apiece. This neat application of the rule of three to the removal of authors' complaints is founded, it will be seen, not so much on the well-known fact that authors all write one book apiece, as upon the great fundamental idea which underlies the whole article—that one book is just the same as another, provided the weight, dimensions, paper, type, and binding are the same. The profits of publishers, under the rule of three, depend entirely on the number of authors whose books they get hold of, and a publisher could not possibly fail in business, as it has hitherto been foolishly supposed he might, from publishing too many books by authors whom nobody cared to read—for a book is, as is elsewhere fully explained, "a bundle of sheets of paper, stamped with little characters, sewed together, put between

covers of pasteboard dressed in cloth." A book can be used, he adds, by the young "to build block houses with," or "as a missile," or "to raise the seat at the piano"; by adults, on the other hand, "to set off a cabinet of shelves"—though for all these purposes, he points out, "a block of wood or a bit of stamped leather would be as serviceable."

The Nickerson divorce proceedings in Pennsylvania have attracted more attention than usual in such cases, owing to the military rank of the husband, and the peculiar cruelty of the fraud alleged to have been practised on his wife. It has forced upon the judges the necessity of taking some precaution against such frauds, and they held a meeting on Monday to consider the necessity of drawing up new rules of practice in divorce cases. The facts as presented to the court by Mrs. Nickerson were in substance as follows. The laws of Pennsylvania, like the laws of other States, require a short period of residence to give the court jurisdiction. Major Nickerson, therefore, in the first place, acquired a residence. In addition to this he packed his wife off to Europe with her daughter. This was in 1880. In Europe the mother and daughter remained, the Major promising to follow as soon as he could obtain leave of absence. She waited, but he did not come, though he continued to write regularly until about a year ago. About that time letters and remittances began to be sent to his daughter, and he ceased all communication with his wife. She asked him to explain, but he paid no attention to her letters. Finally she learned from her mother that her husband had obtained a divorce, and had married again. He had married, it seems, a few days after he had got his divorce, which showed, of course, that the object of his application was merely to marry again. More than all this, she learned that the ground on which the divorce was obtained was desertion. No notice of the application, of course, had ever been received by her, there having been nothing but a newspaper advertisement. The whole proceeding was conducted by the plaintiff in the absence and without the knowledge of the wife.

Various remedies are proposed to meet the difficulty in Pennsylvania. Several of the judges are in favor of making divorce more difficult by making it more expensive, as they say that people come to Pennsylvania for divorces rather than go to some Western State, because they know they can obtain them there at "bottom prices." Something like the "high-license" plan in liquor legislation is therefore proposed—a fee in divorce cases, sufficiently high ($500 is said to have been suggested by one judge) to make a divorce trip to Pennsylvania unattractive. Of course the effect of this would only be to make it difficult for poor people, and it would constitute a curious kind of reform. The suggestion of a high divorce fee recalls the story of the English judge's sentence of a poor prisoner for bigamy, who pleaded in excuse that his first wife had run off with another man: "What you should have done," he said to the prisoner, "was to obtain a divorce. This, you will probably say, would have cost you 1,000 pounds, while you have not 1,000 pennies in the world. I have to remind you, however, that that can make no difference, for England is not a country in which there is one law for the rich and another for the poor." The requirement of a long term of residence is what is really needed to prevent fraudulent divorces, and also the abandonment of the antiquated practice of publishing notice by advertisement, except in cases where the defendant really cannot be found. There could have been no difficulty, if Mrs. Nickerson's story is true, in getting a notice to her through the mails.

The hardened and apparently shameless Mr. Martin, the Superintendent of the Brooklyn Bridge, appeared before the Coroner's jury at the inquest on the victims of the late disaster, and denied that he was to blame for the accident, in the teeth of the fact that at least six newspapers have said that he was to blame. His conduct under these circumstances reminds us of Grummer's special constable in the 'Pickwick Papers,' who, on being charged by Mr. Nupkins, the magistrate, with drunkenness for laughing in court, denied it in the most brazen manner, and was asked by the magistrate "how he dared to say he wasn't drunk, when he (the magistrate) said he was," and was thereupon committed for contempt. Mr. Martin also had the supreme audacity to maintain that the steps on which the accident occurred were not to blame either, and were better than an inclined plane, although several editors have pointed out to him that he and the steps were the sole cause of the disaster, and that an inclined plane was just the thing, because, as is well known, panics in crowds never occur on inclined planes. In fact, the minute a panicky crowd finds itself on an inclined plane, it grows calm and considerate—all of which the callous Martin has apparently overlooked. The fury with which the press has fallen on the steps, as jointly responsible with Martin, puzzles many people; but it is really a survival of the ancient tendency of the race to impute moral guilt to any object which is the immediate cause of loss of life, and which was expressed in the old rule of law which condemned all such objects to forfeiture as *deodands*, and which still lingers in the children's practice of slapping objects that hurt them, and in the disposition of many a grown man to kick a thing that he trips over, or knocks his head against. If the late accident had occurred over a hollow, some journals would have said it was caused by the hollow, or in fact by anything that was near by or that the people fell on.

The trouble respecting differential or discriminating rates for railway transportation has broken out in England, not for the first time, but with rather more than the usual vigor. The *Economist*, which never opens its columns to a trade controversy until it has assumed a certain degree of importance, commented in a recent number on the hardships to English producers involved in the discrimination practised by English railways which carry foreign merchandise from the seaboard to interior points at less rates than are charged on English goods of the same class. The railway managers reply that they are compelled to meet the competition of water carriage, and they ask whether any interest except that of ship-owners is to be benefited by giving to the latter an exclusive monopoly of such freights. French goods, for instance, destined to interior points near Newcastle may be carried from Havre to Newcastle by water and thence by railway for short distances at very low rates. The same goods may be carried to the same points by the way of Southampton by a long railway haul, but the total charge for carriage cannot be greater in the latter case than in the former, for otherwise all the trade would go by water. The railway officials ask whether they can be required to abandon all this traffic to the waterways. The *Economist* replies no, they cannot be expected to do this; but if they carry from Southampton to Newcastle for a certain rate, they must not charge a higher rate for carrying the same kind of goods a less distance—from Birmingham, for instance, to the same destination. If they do so they attack the principle of fair competition which is the essence and very life of free trade. Equal mileage rates are not asked for—the *Economist* acknowledges that such a rule would be absurd and destructive—but a practice which discriminates against British industry by furnishing transportation to foreigners at absolutely lower rates for long distances than are given to English producers on the same line of railway and the same class of goods for short distances, cannot be tolerated. The controversy is one of long standing, but it seems now to be approaching a crisis. Its settlement will be looked for with the deepest interest, not only in this country, but on the continent of Europe as well.

There is a loud demand in England for a second Suez Canal, as the present one is rapidly proving inadequate to the demands upon it, four-fifths of which are English. The delays caused by the crowd of vessels are now so great as seriously to diminish the value of the Canal, which, of course, consists almost wholly in the time it saves. The capital for a new one could, it is needless to say, be procured now in England without difficulty, if the concession were once obtained from the Egyptian Government. M. de Lesseps and the French stockholders, however, bitterly protest against anything of the kind, on the ground that their charter conveys a monopoly, and they maintain, therefore, that if a new canal is to be constructed, their consent or their stock must be purchased. The Egyptian Juridical Committee of the Khedive's Council has sustained this view in an elaborate opinion, in which they hold that although the concession to M. de Lesseps does not expressly guarantee him against competition, its conditions contain an implied guarantee of the strongest kind, which should protect him against any similar grant to a rival company. It is probable, therefore, that we shall now see either the purchase of the old canal by a new company, or a distribution of shares of the new canal, by way of bonus, among the stockholders of the old one.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, May 30, to TUESDAY, June 5, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Board of Overseers of Harvard College on Thursday, by a vote of 15 to 11, refused to confer the degree of LL.D. on Governor Butler of Massachusetts, at the next Commencement. The debate was long and exciting. Several compromises were proposed and rejected. The chief argument urged against granting the degree was Governor Butler's career since he had filled the Executive chair. Governor Butler said in regard to the action: "I have to thank them for doing me a very great personal and political service. The affront intended by their action is not upon me, but upon the people who have elected me, and is the verdict and execution of the judgment of Harvard College upon the acts of the people of the Commonwealth for daring by a large majority to choose a Governor without asking the consent of that college."

Decoration Day was very generally observed on Wednesday throughout the country. In this city the parade of military and of the Grand Army of the Republic was unusually large. President Arthur reviewed it from a stand on Fifth Avenue, near Madison Square. In the evening there were exercises at the Academy of Music, consisting of music and a patriotic address by Gen. George A. Sheridan. In Brooklyn and Washington the exercises of the day were very elaborate. In other cities the customary parades and ceremonies took place without special incident.

The afternoon of Decoration Day was marked in this city by a frightful accident. The great East River Bridge was crowded with thousands of men, women, and children who were taking advantage of the holiday to view the magnificent structure. Some time after 4 o'clock in the afternoon a woman fell down the wooden steps at the end of the New York approach to the bridge proper. As she lost her footing another woman screamed, and the throng behind crowded forward so rapidly that those at the top of the steps were pushed over and fell in a heap. Those following were in turn pushed over, and in a moment the narrow stairway was choked with human beings. In a few minutes twelve persons were killed (six women and six men), seven seriously injured, and twenty-eight others more or less severely wounded. Many persons received slight injuries. The fearful panic was increased by the operations of young thieves. Policemen and bridge employees tried in vain to quell the disturbance. At length the work of rescue began. The first rescuers to reach the spot found the dead and dying wedged together in the narrow space as if they had been fastened in a vise. So tightly were they packed and squeezed that from dozens of persons blood was oozing from ears and noses. The bodies were piled four or five deep at the foot of the stairway, and most of those at the bottom were of women. The ambulances did good service, and the injured were soon removed to the various hospitals.

Many suggestions have been made since the accident as to how it might have been prevented and what means should be adopted to prevent similar occurrences in the future. On Friday work was begun on a gas-pipe railing to divide the staircases of the bridge into two parts. The rail is to extend about thirty feet beyond the stairs on each side, and will not be carried over the main span until the working of small sections has been observed. Telephone arrangements have also been made for the instant transmission of alarms from one end of the bridge to the other and to police stations. The trustees met on Friday and heard Engineer Martin's report on the causes of the accident, and adopted a resolution to refer the subject of the accident to the Committee on Organization, in conjunction with the Mayors of New York and Brooklyn, to make a report, with such recommendations as were deemed best, at the first meeting of the new Board of Trustees in June. It has already been decided to increase the force of men on the bridge. The Coroner's inquest was held on Monday and Tuesday. A verdict was returned, on the latter day, censuring the trustees for not having a sufficient police force on the bridge.

During the month of May the reduction of the public debt of the United States was $4,890,476 60.

The State Department at Washington has received telegraphic advices that ratifications of the treaty between the United States and Corea have been exchanged at the Corean capital. This is the first treaty between Corea and a Western Power.

The National Civil-Service Commissioners resumed their work in Washington on Monday. Commissioner Gregory says that the Commissioners have been very successful in organizing boards of examiners in all the cities. They have called upon postmasters and customs collectors to designate clerks of sufficient education and of known probity for the task, and they have secured persons who are not only qualified for these places, but enthusiastic in the work.

Major-Gen. W. B. Hazen, Chief of the United States Weather Bureau, and Commander B. B. McAlla, United States Navy, have obtained the steamer *Proteus* for the use of a rescuing expedition for the Greeley polar explorers, and started her from St. John's, Newfoundland, for Franklin Bay and Davis Straits, where the missing expedition was last heard from two years ago. The *Proteus* is a powerful wooden steamer of 467 tons register.

The investigation into the affairs of the office of Supervising Architect Hill, of the Treasury Department, was begun in Washington on Thursday. No witnesses were heard, and after a few formalities the Committee adjourned. A session was held on Saturday. Mr. Poulson, of Brooklyn, stated his case, alleging that his firm had been abused in the matter of the Government building at Austin, Texas. The investigation was continued on Tuesday.

Mr. Merrick made a very strong argument in his speech for the Government in the Star-route trial during the week.

Considerable comment has been occasioned by certain facts in the Ottman case which have been recently reported from Washington. Forty-seven thousand dollars were stolen from the Treasury in Washington eight years ago. Three men were discovered to be the criminals, among them Ottman, a liquor-seller. The latter was twice tried, but the juries disagreed. Through the mediation of Mr. Richard Crowley, a compromise was effected last summer for $12,500, and the proceedings against Ottman were dropped, although the latter had a considerable portion of the stolen money in his possession.

Governor Cleveland on Friday signed the New York City Aqueduct Bill, and filed with it a memorandum in which he explained that he had given careful thought to the objections urged against the measure, and was driven to the conclusion that to temporize with such a question as the present inadequate supply of water for this city forced upon him would savor of a recklessness almost criminal. He adds: "The principal objection urged against this bill is that the designation of Commissioners in the bill itself by the Legislature is unconstitutional, undemocratic, and a violation of the doctrine of home rule. I think the bill is constitutional; and while I am not willing to be committed to the assertion that the best manner of selecting Commissioners was determined upon by the Legislature, I am unwilling to be responsible for the delay of this work because another plan was not adopted." The Governor has vetoed items of the Supply Bill appropriating $250,704 36, out of a total of $637,000. On Saturday he completed the disposition of bills left in his hands at the time of the adjournment of the Legislature. The number of bills passed by the Legislature was 692; number approved, 522; number vetoed to the Legislature, 38, none of which were passed over the veto; number returned for amendment and correction, 40, of which 7 did not again reach the Governor. Governor Cleveland has declined to sign the General Street Railroad Act.

The New York State Civil-Service Commission organized at Albany on Thursday afternoon. Ex-Naval Officer Silas W. Burt, of New York, was appointed Chief Examiner. Mr. Burt explained his apparent inconsistency in accepting a State position after declining last March a similar national one, saying that President Arthur did not appear to make the nomination in good faith, and that he declined it because, "coupled with the promotion of General Graham, it involved an affront to him and to the cause of reform." He takes this place at a lower salary, because he has confidence in the Commission's honesty of purpose. John Jay was chosen President.

At the annual meeting of the Columbia College trustees on Monday afternoon the report of the Committee on Higher Education for Women was adopted after a short discussion. For the present a plan is submitted by which young women, having passed a series of examinations carried on by or under the charge of the professors in the College, shall receive a certificate to the effect that they have completed a course satisfactory to the trustees.

The one hundred and second annual communication of the Grand Lodge of the State of New York, Free and Accepted Masons, was opened in ample form on Tuesday afternoon at the Masonic Temple, in this city. About one thousand delegates were present.

Major W. G. Mitchell, of General Hancock's staff, died on Governor's Island on Wednesday morning. He was Assistant Adjutant-General. During the war he rose to the rank of Brevet Brigadier-General.

A Free-Trade Conference met at Detroit, Mich., on Thursday, and organized by electing David A. Wells, of Connecticut, President. He was made permanent President on Friday. Mr. Wells, upon taking the chair, said the meeting was one of the most remarkable, in any sense, held since the close of the war. Men had come together to affirm their right to sell and buy without restriction. On Friday an address to the American people was adopted, setting forth that "the true interests of America are bound together in free trade, equal taxation, farmers' rights, manufacturing prosperity, and higher wages."

An interview with Governor Hendricks, of Indiana, has been published which points to his willingness to accept a place again with Tilden on a Democratic Presidential ticket.

Advices from San Carlos, Arizona, assert that Loco's wife, son, son-in-law, daughter, and grandchildren, with fourteen women and six bucks, have surrendered to the military authorities near San Carlos. The Indians are direct from Mexico, and report that all the hostiles are anxious to surrender, so that a speedy ending of the Indian war in Mexico and the return of General Crook to Arizona are anticipated.

A conference of the Iron Manufacturers' and Amalgamated Association Committees, in Pittsburgh, on Thursday, resulted in the manufacturers signing last year's scale, which is $5 50 per ton for puddling. This action averts a strike, and, it is understood, insures the running of the Western mills for at least a year.

The New York, Buffalo and West Shore Railroad was thrown open to the public from Jersey City to Newburgh, N. Y., on Monday.

Bismarck was on Saturday selected as the capital of Dakota.

The will of the late Amasa Stone, of Cleve-

land, O., was made public on Saturday. The bulk of his property is left to his wife, and two daughters and their husbands. Adelbert College, Cleveland, gets $100,000, if the estate reaches $3,500,000.

Council Bluffs, Iowa, was visited with a severe rain-storm and flood on Friday evening, which swept away seven iron bridges, and damaged property to the amount of about $500,000.

Hanlan, the Canadian oarsman, defeated Kennedy in a single-scull race, near Boston, on Thursday, by twenty lengths. The distance was three miles with a turn, and Hanlan's time was 19 m. 4 sec., the fastest on record. It is said that the course was a minute short.

The wife of Congressman Phil B. Thompson, of Harrodsburg, Ky., has made a statement in which she exonerates Walter Davis, who was killed by her husband, from any wrong toward her. Her statement is emphatically contradicted by Jessie Buckner.

Cardinal McCloskey, of this city, has decided to postpone the Provincial Council, which was to have convened in a few days, until fall.

FOREIGN.

The coronation festivities continued at Moscow throughout the week. On Wednesday the Emperor and Empress of Russia received the congratulations of the grand duchesses and ladies of the court. In the evening they attended the opera, where the people received them with great enthusiasm. On Thursday evening a state dinner was given, at which 500 persons were present, including the whole imperial family. The imperial regalia were returned to the Kremlin with much ceremony on Friday. A state banquet was given in the evening to the mayors of cities and members of the nobility. The Emperor on Saturday granted certain privileges to dissenters from the Greek faith. A great fête took place in Petroffsky Park on that day. On Sunday there was a grand parade of Circassian troops and Cossacks. There was a military fête at Sokolniki on Monday, attended by the Emperor and Empress.

Stepniak, the Nihilist, in a recent letter said the Czar would not be molested during the coronation festivities, because the system of attacks to create terror had been replaced by plans for a *coup d'état* and attempts at revolt.

The Paris *Temps* says: "The object of the recent journey abroad of M. de Giers, the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, was to inform the Powers that Russia was compelled to seek in Armenia an equivalent for the British occupation of Egypt."

On Wednesday the Paris *Figaro* published a sensational article, in which it sounded the note of alarm against the triple alliance as a scheme of Birmarck's, the ultimate object of which is a division of parts of France among the Powers.

The Italian *Journal de Rome*, commenting on the more friendly attitude which France has shown recently toward the Vatican, says a rupture between France and the Vatican would deprive the former, in the face of the triple alliance, of a great source of strength. She must choose between open war with the Vatican and breaking with atheistical radicalism.

The French have bombarded two ports on the northwest coast of Madagascar, causing great destruction of British and other merchandise.

No serious fighting is expected to occur in Tonquin before the middle of July, when the French will be ready to take the offensive. It is said that Captain Kergaradec, the French Envoy to Anam, has been instructed to hold the King of Anam responsible for the recent hostilities near Hanoi and to demand satisfaction from him, including the payment of a heavy indemnity. The bombardment of the capital of Anam, as a retaliatory measure, is probable. The following details of the recent French defeat are published: Captain Rivière, on leaving the fort near Hanoi, advanced with 150 marines, leaving in reserve a force of 250 men. These, however, remained too far in the rear to be of service to Captain Rivière's advanced guard, which was surprised by a large force of Anamites and almost annihilated. On the rear guard arriving at the scene the Anamites fled, carrying off Captain Rivière and fifteen marines, all of whom were impaled the next day.

It is asserted that Li Hung Chang, the Chinese Prime Minister and commander of the troops in the provinces adjacent to Tonquin, declares that unless France recognizes the rights of China in regard to Anam, China is resolved to fight.

The race for the Grand Prix de Paris was won on Sunday by the Duc de Castries's Frontin.

Prince Bismarck presided on Thursday at a meeting of the Prussian Ministry. It was decided by the Ministry to take the regulation of church matters in their own hands, independent of Rome, and to submit a bill in the Diet providing for a modification of the May laws. The bill will consist of a single paragraph, allowing the saying of mass and the dispensing of the sacraments in consideration of recognition of the Government's modified rule in regard to the duty of informing the Government of Church appointments.

The Workman's Sick Fund Bill was carried in the German Reichstag on Thursday by a vote of 217 to 99.

The German Bundesrath has decided against the coinage of silver at a ratio of 15½ to 1.

The Berlin *North-German Gazette* (Bismarck's organ) denies that Prince Bismarck has consulted judicial authority in relation to the dissolution of the Federal treaty with a view to abolishing the Reichstag.

Baron von Schloezer, the representative of Prussia in the negotiations with the Vatican, will, it is reported by a Roman newspaper, soon leave that city, and will not return. Another report says he will return in three months. The negotiations have failed, and relations between Prussia and the Vatican are not of a friendly character.

The contributions of Peter's pence have continued to decrease so rapidly during the past few months that an appeal, addressed to all the bishops, is being prepared by the Pope, urging them to awaken the faithful to the necessity of providing funds for the needs of the Holy See.

A Roman correspondent telegraphed on Sunday: "I have reason to believe that letters were issued by the Propaganda some days ago, and are now on their way to New York, summoning all the American archbishops to Rome to receive the Papal instructions and make preparations for a Provincial Council of the whole American Church, which is to be held next year at some town in the United States not yet designated. The nominal, indeed the chief, object of the Council is to tighten the bonds connecting the Catholic Church of America with Rome, and to concert various disciplinary measures tending to render the mode of spiritual and social life of Catholic ecclesiastics more austere and severe than, under the influence of democratic republican institutions, it has become lately."

A meeting of the Irish National League was held in Dublin on Wednesday. Mr. Harrington announced that 389 branches of the League had been formed. Mr. Sexton, referring to the Pope's circular, declared that the interference of the Pope in the Parnell testimonial indicated perilous and intolerable intervention in the future political course of the Irish people, but that the priests maintained a dignified silence, with which Mr. Parnell's admirers were satisfied.

Mr. McCoan, member of Parliament for Wicklow, has withdrawn from the Parnell party, principally because of Mr. Parnell's attitude toward him in a personal quarrel with Mr. O'Kelly, which led to a challenge. He published a letter in the Dublin *Freeman's Journal* on Monday, in which he disavowed sympathy with Mr. Parnell's political views, which he asserts are "veiled communism and rebellion."

Thomas Caffrey, the fourth of the Phœnix Park murderers brought to the gallows, was hanged in Kilmainham Jail, Dublin, at 8 o'clock on Saturday morning.

James Carey and other informers have been ordered by the British Government to reside outside of Ireland.

Messrs. Davitt, Healy, M. P., and Quinn, who were sentenced in February to confinement in Kilmainham Jail, Dublin, for six months for making inflammatory speeches, were released from prison at 1:30 on Monday afternoon.

True bills were found by the Grand Jury in London on Thursday against the dynamite conspirators, Doctor Gallagher, Bernard Gallagher, Whitehead, Curtin, Ansburgh, and Willson, indicting them for treason-felony. When they were arraigned on Friday they pleaded not guilty, and their trial was fixed for June 11. A special court has been constituted to try them. It consists of Lord Chief-Justice Coleridge, Justice Brett, of the Court of Appeals, and Justice Grove, of the Court of Common Pleas.

The text of Mr. Kennard's resolution, in regard to the *Alabama* award surplus, which, it is said, he intends to move in the House of Commons, is as follows: "That, in view of the public utterances of eminent American statesmen with reference to the destination of the undistributed moneys resulting from the Geneva award, the House is of opinion that an exchange of views between the English and the United States Governments on the subject would be conducive to the development of the friendly relations between the two countries." On Monday it was announced in the House of Commons that the British Government would not in any way interfere in the matter.

It is reported that Lord Derby, English Colonial Secretary, will not give his sanction to the annexation of New Guinea by Queensland, but will agree to the establishment of English stations on the coast of that island.

The Duke of Albany, it is asserted in London, recently offered himself as Governor-General of Canada, to succeed Lord Lorne, but was rejected by Mr. Gladstone on account of his youth and inexperience.

Alexander Kennedy Isbister, M.A., LL.B., who was instrumental in freeing Northwest British America from the Hudson's Bay Company and annexing that section to Canada, died in England on Wednesday.

A Fenian plot to blow up the Welland Canal, Canada, was frustrated by the watchfulness of the authorities. The fact has just been made public.

It was announced on Tuesday that Lord Rosebery, Under-Secretary for the British Home Department, had resigned on account of a recent insinuation of Sir William Harcourt, Home Secretary. John Tomlinson Hibbert, member of Parliament for Oldham and Parliamentary Secretary to the Local Government Board, has been appointed Lord Rosebery's successor.

Señor Castelar, the Spanish statesman, in a recent speech advocated the union of Spain and Portugal.

The Ceramic Exhibition was opened in Madrid on Wednesday by King Alfonso.

Fighting between the forces of the Ameer of Afghanistan and the Shinwarris has been renewed. The losses have been heavy on both sides.

Fifty persons have been roasted alive for witchcraft in the Sherbro district, Sierra Leone, Africa.

THE COLUMBIA COLLEGE SCHEME OF FEMALE EDUCATION.

THE Trustees of Columbia College have adopted the report of the Committee on the Higher Education of Women, and have prescribed the curriculum for female students suggested by it. This curriculum does not differ greatly from that of the male students—which suggests the question, Why should it differ at all? On what principle has any difference been created? As far as we can see from an examination of the women's course, it contains no recognition whatever of such a thing as sex in mind. The studies are such as any young man would do well to pursue in an academic, as distinguished from a professional, education, and such as no woman can pursue successfully without showing that she has what is called a masculine mind. Why, then, not save labor, and forestall complaints, by simply saying that the course for students of both sexes shall be identical? We cannot think, in fact, of any good reason for the distinction, beyond a desire to save the self-love of those who at first scouted the idea that Columbia College could ever be induced to do anything for female education at all. And yet it can hardly be that a motive so petty as a wish to show the promoters of the higher-education movement that they cannot have everything they asked for, though they may have something, has animated the powerful male minds which have so strongly disapproved of this whole business, in doing anything so serious as laying out a college course. It must be some hidden point of college policy which compels them to refuse to women the solemn privilege of following the present undergraduate course.

The same puzzle meets us with regard to the certificate to be given to the female graduates. It is, we are told, to be "nearly the equivalent" of the diploma given to the bachelors of arts. But why not the exact equivalent? What would happen if it were the exact equivalent, and were given as at Cambridge, England, or at Cambridge, Mass., on the same examination papers, and on the same standards? Would there be any violent disturbance of the framework of human society if Columbia College took this last step, and the whole earth were made aware that Doctor Dix had swallowed the higher education entire? A witty French statesman once accounted for the fixity of Prussian policy by asking: "What would the Universe say if a Hohenzollern changed his mind?" We suppose we must in like manner ascribe this little distinction between the women's diploma and the men's to some vague apprehension, which still lingers among the trustees, as to the effect on the relations of the sexes in all lands of an admission by Columbia College that a woman really can learn anything a man learns.

But we do not mean, in saying all this, by any means to deride what the College offers to do. The courses prescribed are good; the examinations which the College proposes to conduct will, we have no doubt, be searching, and the certificate will be an honor to any young woman who gets it. So that we trust the schools of the city will respond to the offer by sending up plenty of well-prepared candidates, and that the friends of higher education, whose exertions have extorted this concession from the College authorities, will do what in them lies to make the experiment a success. We have little doubt that before the end of the first four years the trustees will have got over what remains of their terror about countenancing female education in the higher branches, and will abolish the somewhat absurd little distinction they are now making.

We cannot help thinking, too, that they will by that time see the impropriety—to use a mild term—of committing the preparation and supervision of a scheme so large and important to a gentleman like Dr. Dix, who has had no experience in education, and no collegiate fame, and who had really disqualified himself for the work in advance, by vigorously denouncing it a short time before from the pulpit. There is no great Protestant university in the world to-day in which such a performance as that would not have been considered a formal disqualification for the duty of reporting on or framing the scheme; and Dr. Dix's appearance on the scene as the specially selected father of it, puts the lay element in the College government in an odd position.

LIBELLING "RESORTS."

WE called attention several months ago to the fact that a suit was going to be brought by a town in England to recover damages for a libel upon its character. The town was one which had enjoyed a high reputation as a "resort"; the libel was a publication reflecting most unfavorably on what is called in such cases the "salubrity" of the place. The libeller—who was, if we remember right, a newspaper man, egged on by a physician—declared that its salubrity was impaired by bad drainage; a most cruel thing to say of any town, and especially heartless in the case of a resort, where so many hotel-keepers, grocers, butchers, druggists, and livery-stable keepers would be unable to amass any wealth, were it not for the popular belief in its healthy condition.

Of course, if one town could maintain such a suit, another could, and the damages recovered by a slandered town might be very heavy; a few such suits would cure even the most reckless editors and physicians of the bad habit of calling attention to the unhealthiness of resorts. More than this, all the really healthy resorts would get such thumping verdicts that they would prosper more than ever; their salubrity would become more and more famous; larger and larger crowds would flock to them—the sick to become well, and the healthy to become more healthy still. Besides this, the poor hotel-keepers, butchers, grocers, druggists, and livery-stable owners would be better able than ever to keep the wolf from the door, and a general spirit of contentment and happiness would be spread throughout the community. Better than all, there could be no economical objection, for the money taken away from the editors and physicians would not be lost, but be profitably employed in business and kept active. The prospect was really one to raise the spirits even of an economist.

The only difficulty that could be perceived in any quarter was of a legal nature. The lawyers, who are always raising objections to everything, would, we ventured to suggest, make trouble, not over the fact that the suit would have these consequences, but that it would have still more—that if a town could maintain an action for libel, so could a county, or a State, or a sovereign nation; and as the newspapers of every country are continually saying the most unpleasant things about such political bodies, both at home and abroad, the number of suits instituted would be so great, and the amount of damages involved so enormous, that no man could tell what the end would be. How shamefully New York, for instance, has been slandered by Boston newspapers, and how recklessly, on the other hand, has Boston been slandered even by our own careful press! Either city might free itself from a considerable portion of its debt by a suit, say, in a United States court against the press of the other; while, oddly enough, the latter could, as the lawyers say, "recoup" to a terrible extent by a suit against the press of the first. There would, no doubt, be legal inconveniences about a suit brought by the United States against the London *Times* for its attitude to us during the war; and yet if a libel suit could be maintained by a mere town, it was hard to see how jurisdiction could be denied in the case of a friendly nation.

The suit had of course a far greater interest for Americans than for the English, because America is the great country of "resorts." This is the only country in the world where every little town in the mountains or on the sea-coast changes itself, when summer comes on, into a "resort," and, what is more important, into a healthy resort; for no matter how unhealthy they are during the winter, no matter what the death-rate, nor how bad or few the drains, nor how much malaria or low fever there may be, when the summer comes, by some beautiful law of nature—perhaps what is sometimes called the "principle of compensation"—these evils all disappear. This, at least, always was the case until recently.

Within a few years, however, as every one has noticed with pain, the newspapers have taken up the habit of denouncing resorts in various parts of the country as unhealthy, on account of bad drainage, malaria, or some other defect of that sort. The last case of the kind has arisen in the State of New Jersey, the town of Red Bank having been libelled by a Mr. Cook. The facts in the case appear to be that Mr. Cook, who is the editor of a New Jersey newspaper (which certainly makes his act all the more base), had the cruelty to publish articles criticising the health of this resort. The consequences of course immediately followed which happened in the English case. Not only was the little town filled with aching hearts over the cruelty of the thing, but the hotel-keepers, grocers, butchers, bakers, and druggists felt their profits threatened. They accordingly determined to make a stand, and, to make sure work of it, the town got the State of New Jersey to indict Mr. Cook for an article published in the *Register*. Every jurist early learns that one of the great arts in bringing a lawsuit is the "selection of the remedy,"

and an indictment was probably chosen in this case instead of a civil suit, in order to get over the trouble about damages. Moreover, to send an editor to jail whenever he libelled a resort, would teach him a lesson which he would not soon forget, and would probably have a more wide-spread moral effect. We are very sorry, however, to say that the case has broken down, the Judge having directed the jury to bring in a verdict for the defendant, first, on the ground that "the health of a place is a legitimate subject of discussion"; second, that the State had failed to prove that the criticisms in the *Register* of the health of Red Bank were untrue. On this account it was unnecessary, he said, to consider whether such publications could under any circumstances be indictable.

We are still, therefore, as far off as ever from knowing how far and under what circumstances there is any legal redress for the barbarous practice of criticising summer "resorts" and maintaining that some of them are unhealthier than others. There was a time when patriotic feeling was enough to prevent any questions of this sort from arising; when their equality in salubrity was recognized by every editor and resort correspondent in the land as the basis of discussion about all resorts. There was, no doubt, a difference between mountain and sea air, and one hotel might be larger than another; but the man who would publish an article denouncing the drainage of a resort, or suggesting that it might be well for the summer residents to look into the death-rate among the permanent residents, would soon have been made to feel his moral isolation. But this has gone by. Resorts are no longer merely described in glowing or beautiful language, but they are openly criticised on the score of their management and health. Patriotism can no longer be relied on to protect them even in New Jersey, and whether the law can do it is still involved in doubt.

THE SITUATION IN IRELAND.

THE release of Healy, Davitt, and others from the confinement to which they were sentenced in default of bail for their good behavior, before half their term had expired, indicates either that the Government thinks it made a mistake in shutting them up on a judge's order for violent language, or that it thinks that all necessity for severely repressive measures is past. There is no doubt that it has got the better of the murder societies. It has hanged four, and will soon have hanged five, of the Phœnix Park murderers, and it has nearly all the others, except the informers, in penal servitude. We doubt if it will be possible, for some years at least, to get anybody in Ireland to enter into conspiracies for the "removal" of either agents, landlords, or Government officers. In other words, the party of violence among the Irish malcontents have signally failed, and must be, for the moment at all events, thoroughly discredited in the eyes of the people. They will not be able to raise their heads again for some time to come, if for no other reason, because they have accomplished nothing for the national cause, and have once more brought home to all believers in the policy of violence the fact that those who adopt that policy must always expect the appearance of the informer. He may be long in coming, but come he does at last, and when he comes he makes a clean breast of it. Carey is the most finished specimen of the class that Ireland or any other country has produced, and it is hardly conceivable that he should not have made a profound impression on the popular imagination, and that he should not, for the present at least, have made a secret society seem the very jaws of death.

If the Government has gained much, however, by recent events, we incline to the belief that the Parnellites have gained more. It was the confident expectation of all their enemies, when the informers began their revelations, that evidence would be forthcoming to show the connection either of the Land League or of some of its leaders with the assassination societies. Carey's statement, for instance, that some one said, or some one thought, that the money for the expenses of the Phœnix Park assassins came from the Land League, was received with a shout of joyful expectation in England. Lady Florence Dixie's calculations, too, suggesting that all acknowledged receipts, the outlay of which the Treasurer of the Land League did not account for in his published statements, must have been spent in murder and outrage, were received with a certain cheerful credulity. But nothing has been elicited on the trials or inquiries in the least degree supporting these suspicions. Not a scintilla of evidence has been produced connecting the Land League, or any of its chiefs, with crime of any description. Even the "blonde-bearded" member of Parliament, whom somebody thought he saw at some of the meetings of the assassins, has faded from sight, leaving no trace behind.

In the second place, those who successfully opposed the Repression Bill in its original shape, when it made all these crimes triable by judges only, have been fully justified by events. The Irish judges strongly objected to this feature, and sent a written protest against it, but Mr. Gladstone, deferring to the English and Scotch majority, said in substance that it made no difference what the Irish judges thought. Subsequently he yielded to the remonstrances of the bulk of the Irish members and of some of the English Radicals, and left trial by jury optional with the Crown. The result has shown that he was wrong in the beginning, and that the Irish judges and members of Parliament were right. There has been no more difficulty in getting juries to convict in Ireland than there would have been in England. The trials have been as swift, orderly, and conclusive as they could have been anywhere, and far more so than they would have been in the United States; and the presiding judge, whose name shows unmistakably his Celtic origin, has set an example of calm, and dignity, and efficiency, from which a good many of his brethren in London might learn something. Nevertheless, under the plan of pacifying Ireland which some Englishmen sketched out after the news of the Phœnix Park murders came—a general massacre of the population of the island—the Irish judges, jurymen, lawyers, policemen, jailers, who have been administering justice so admirably under such trying circumstances, would have been slaughtered along with Brady, and Curley, and the others. Of course, this talk was simply enraged balderdash, but it was also an exaggerated specimen of the sort of nonsense which is talked on Irish affairs by a great many sensible men. There appears to be a subtle influence in Irish politics which makes fools both of the Irish politicians and of their enemies.

THE MEDICAL LIBRARY AT WASHINGTON.

THE special collection attached to the Surgeon-General's Office at Washington has grown from an ante-bellum basis of a few hundred text-books into a library which, in the particular sphere of medical literature, is without a peer. It is the first medical library in the world probably by an actual census of books, certainly as a working mine for professional men. This estate has been reached by zeal and tact in management, not by wealth, for the moderate Congressional appropriations, bestowed after prayerful and persistent entreaty, are barely sufficient to purchase two-thirds of the medical publications that appear day by day. The remarkable energy, organizing capacity, and erudition of the officer in charge have procured for it its 60,000 volumes and nearly 70,000 pamphlets, have made it a treasure-house of learning, and, better than all, have laid its wealth open in accessible form to the public of that profession. Its shelves hold about 66 per cent. of the medical literature extant, and nearly the whole of what has current practical value and is not merely historical. Its librarian early recognized the fact that the springs of medical thought first drained into the periodical press, and then, after evaporation and filtration, flowed together and settled in the more imposing volumes. The miscalled journals—the weekly, monthly, and quarterly expression of the medical mind—are the channels through which the newest ideas, truths and heresies, reach their readers; and in that department, especially as to American speculation and reflection, this library is nearly perfect. Every periodical in the world relating to medicine is taken, with an infinitesimal exception every American journal is complete, and the foreign files of the past are growing as opportunity occurs. And this not merely as to orthodox medicine: all the isms and pathies that the weakness of man or the invention of the adversary have poured upon humanity find there their own organs and their own expositions, ungarnished and undefiled. The library receives without adorning and keeps without abatement. The antiquary digging for rubbish and the student delving for treasure—both rubbish and treasure have use in intelligent hands—will be rewarded. But the collection makes no specialty of trash. Its object is the preservation of all medical writings; and those who use them may designate them as they please.

This is not a part of the Congressional Library, as is sometimes imagined. If it were, it is fair to assume that it would have neither the scope nor the value it actually has acquired. It is fair so to assume, because, by careful comparison with the medical sections of other great national libraries—for example, the British Museum and the National Library in Paris—actual count of similar portions shows the Washington Library to have more works and better ones for practical purposes than either, and this notwithstanding the advantages in money, in age, in situation, and in general experience which the

former possess. The Library of Congress receives two copies of every copyrighted book (why, by the way, should not one of those that are medical be diverted to the Surgeon-General's?); it has standing, its librarians have experience and scholarship; but in this branch of learning it is outstripped, and fortunately, by the one under discussion. Fortunately, because foreign experience shows that abroad special professions look to special collections as better and more accessible, and so they would at home; but especially because the Surgeon-General's librarian, Dr. Billings, with skill and enthusiasm, with an administrative capacity of the first order, and an appreciation of books as working material that no mere bibliomaniac possesses, has succeeded in diverting into it copious voluntary contributions of medical works of all sorts from all sources. It has acquired the confidence of the profession. Physicians give their books freely, because they realize that in the best sense they are putting them where they will do the most good. Its liberal management, the loan of volumes under proper guarantee to local libraries for distant students, the courteous response to literary inquiry where current work permits, and, above all, the publication of the monumental Index Catalogue, have created a vital interest in the medical men of the country, and in other scientific men also, toward this magnificent collection. It has acquired by its generous management voluntary contributors abroad. At home it is regarded with pride and affection, for, with a lively sense of the fraternity and responsibility of science, it is conducted as a public institution for the public benefit. It is a singular credit to the country and to that scientific corps of the army whose creation it was and in whose custody it is.

But a shadow rests upon it. Congress will give it no proper shelter. Before this is in print it may be in ashes. Congress doles out parsimonious supplies. Congress is not unwilling to consign it to that limbo which is known as its own library, to that vasty deep from whose surges the spell of no ordinary applicant can raise the buried spirits, to that wilderness of sheep and calf and boards to enter whose tangled wilds in search of light on hidden points is to leave hope behind. Congress is willing to transfer, and the over-burdened Librarian of Congress is willing to accept, this huge accession, which is now a symmetrical and illuminated whole, but which will then become lost in a labyrinthian mass of unrelated matter. Is it not well that the medical men of the country, who would be a power if they would work in unison—and, if they need help, that scientific and educated men generally—should impress Congress with a sense of its duty to preserve the Medical Library (however it may be ultimately housed) intact, and at liberty to develop in the way which has proved so eminently successful?

THE DUCHESS OF TOURZEL.

PARIS, May 11, 1883.

THE Duc des Cars has published the 'Memoirs of the Duchess of Tourzel,' who was the governess of the children of the royal family from 1789 to 1795. The precious manuscript was in the hands of the Duchesse des Cars, the mother of the present Duke, who was the granddaughter of Mme. de Tourzel. This lady was born in Paris, June 11, 1749. She was the fifth child of the Duc de Croy-Havré, Prince of the Holy Empire, grandee of Spain, etc., who was killed, in 1761, in the battle of Fellingshausen, and of Marie Cunigunde de Montmorency-Luxembourg. She was married April 8, 1764, to the Marquis de Tourzel, grand-provost of France, and five children were born of this union. The first years of her married life were spent chiefly at the fine château of Sourches, near Le Mans, which was built by her father-in-law, who lived very little at Versailles. The Marquis de Tourzel became grand-provost on the death of his father; and when the Queen Marie Antoinette was forced to separate herself from the Duchesse de Polignac, who had become the object of most violent attacks on the part of the revolutionary party, she offered the place of governess of the royal children to Mme. de Tourzel, who was notorious for the purity of her life and the excellence of her character. The situation of the royal family was already such that Mme. de Tourzel accepted her mission in a spirit of devotion and of sacrifice. Marie Antoinette greeted her in her new functions with these words: "Madame, I had confided my children to friendship, I now confide them to virtue."

The memoirs begin at this moment. A beautiful engraving shows us the Queen Marie Antoinette at about this period. It is taken from a pastel by Kucharsky, which was made for Mme. de Tourzel, but was interrupted by the journey to Varennes and finished only in 1792. It is an excellent likeness of the unfortunate Queen. It escaped the fury of the mob on the 10th of August at the Tuileries, and was found again behind a door, three years afterward, by the Marquis de Tourzel. The thin, somewhat pointed features of the Queen, her *grand air*, her aristocratic countenance, the fine oval of the face, the clear eyes, the Austrian features, the curious costume of the first years of the Revolution, contribute to give great value and expression to this portrait. Louis XVI. had only two children left, the Dauphin and Mme. de France, when Mme. de Tourzel became governess. She established herself at Versailles, in the first days of August, 1789. In the month of September, the King, alarmed at the increasing disorganization of the Government, began to think of leaving Versailles, and confided this idea to Mme. de Tourzel. She was told to be in readiness, so as to be able to leave in a moment, if necessary. The King and Queen had not yet decided where to go. Soon afterward they changed their minds and resolved to remain. The King had still, besides his own guards, the regiment of Flanders, which was very loyal, and the chasseurs of Lorraine, who were at Meudon. With this force he could have left Versailles without any difficulty. The banquet which the Guards gave to the regiment of Flanders was a useless demonstration, which only afforded an opportunity to the revolutionists. The armed bands of Paris came to Versailles, took possession of the royal family, and brought it back to the capital. After the famous days of the 5th and 6th of October, Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette became the prisoners of the National Guard of Paris, and of the clubs.

Mme. de Tourzel gives a curious detail on the behavior of the Parisian mob at Versailles. Everything was quiet in appearance on the evening of October 5. The National Guards were mounting guard at the château:

"The *brigands* did not sleep, and, assured of the National Guard of Versailles, they prepared the execution of their projects. Their barbarism had a mixture of superstition, and, what will seem almost incredible, they went at 6 o'clock in the morning to the curé of Saint-Louis [Saint-Louis is the principal church of Versailles] to ask him to say mass for them. The mass was hardly ended before some of them went to force the entrance of the barrack of the *gardes du corps*, and massacred all the guards they met."

Another troop forced the grilles of the Château and invaded the courts and terraces of the garden, so as to penetrate into the Château. These bandits massacred two sentries under the apartment of Mesdames the aunts of the King, and had the heads cut off by a monster who followed them and was called the *coupe-tête* (the head-cutter). They mounted the great staircase, and went straight to the apartment of the Queen. The guards, though they were in small number, defended the entry with much courage; they had fortunately time to scream, "Save the Queen!" The Queen was saved; she ran away in her nightgown, and the brigands could only tear her bed with their pikes. These scenes are well known; they fill us with shame even at the distance of a century. The detail of the mass of Saint-Louis was unknown to me, and is very characteristic.

When the King was obliged to return to Paris, it could be said that he had virtually abdicated, and that his reign had come to an end. Mme. de Tourzel thus describes the royal progress:

"The cortége of the unfortunate Prince was worthy of these terrible deeds. First came the Parisian troops, each soldier carrying a loaf of bread at the end of his bayonet. All round them was a populace bearing on pikes the heads of the unfortunate bodyguards. Then came cars full of sacks of flour, and market-women [called *poissardes*], decorated with foliage, and having loaves of bread in their hands. Everybody was screaming: 'Long live the nation!'"

The King was received by the Mayor of Paris, Bailly, who afterward died on the scaffold. The royal family found the Tuileries quite unprepared to receive anybody. The Dauphin spent the night, without guards, in an apartment opening on all sides. "I barricaded the doors," says Mme. de Tourzel, "with what little furniture I found, and spent the night sitting near his bed, lost in the most painful reflections, and considering what could be expected of a people capable of such terrible excesses." Life became intolerable for the royal family in the Tuileries. The palace was surrounded constantly by the populace; the King, the Queen were loudly called for, and were forced to show themselves on balconies with tricolor cockades. The bodyguards were sent away; the only sentries were national guards. The King was already a prisoner.

In 1790 the royal family left Paris for Saint-Cloud, during the summer; but the King came almost daily to Paris. The young Dauphin was a little happier, and played constantly in the park. Once, while Marie Antoinette was walking at Saint-Cloud with Mme. de Tourzel and the Princesse de Tarente (who was one of her ladies-in-waiting), she was surrounded by National Guards, among them many of the *gardes françaises* who had rebelled at the beginning of the Revolution, and who had been incorporated in the National Guard. "How astonished would not my mother be," said Marie Antoinette, "if she saw her daughter—a daughter, a wife, a mother of kings, or at any rate of a child who is destined to be a king—if she saw her surrounded by such a guard! It seems as if my father was a prophet." She then told them that when Francis I. left for Italy, he took leave of his children. "I was the youngest," said she. "My father took me on his knees, embraced me several times, and seemed to be hardly able to let me go. It seemed singular to all the bystanders."

At the moment of the Federation, when the new Constitution was proclaimed in the presence of the deputies of all the provinces of France, the *fédérés* showed great sentiments of loyalty toward the King and the Dauphin. They urged the King to visit the provinces; but the ministers did not favor such a project. The King was timid; "discontented with the education which he had received, he did not judge himself favorably, and did not do himself justice." Mme. de Tourzel says that on the journey from Varennes to Paris "Barnave spoke with Mme. Elizabeth on the events of the Revolu-

tion, and, speaking of the Federation, he said: 'Ah! madame, don't complain of the Federation; for, if the King had known how to profit by it, we had been all lost!'" In the beginning of 1791 Mesdames Adélaïde and Victoire, the aunts of the King, seeing no security for themselves any longer in France, determined to leave the country and to go to Rome. The King was beginning to meditate seriously on the possibility of leaving France himself. He signed all the decrees presented to him by the ministers, but he detested almost all the resolutions taken by the Assembly. He acted so as to give the impression at home and abroad that he was no longer free; he did not exercise any royal prerogative, and, if he had tried to do so, he would probably have endangered at once his own life and that of the Dauphin. The Tuileries were a prison; he was living among spies, and the most innocent actions were denounced by the revolutionary clubs.

One day the Queen entered the room of Mme. de Tourzel, who was ill, and urged her to go to Plombières. "It is probable," said she, "that we shall be obliged to leave Paris, and you are too weak to follow us." Mme. de Tourzel said no consideration could induce her to abandon the Dauphin and Madame. The journey to Varennes was already planned. Marie Antoinette woke her son herself, and told him that she was going to take him to a fortified place, where he would command his regiment. The child was delighted. Mme. de Tourzel and the children left the Tuileries by a door which was little used, in an old coach, which was driven by the Comte de Fersen. The King only arrived after midnight at the house which had been chosen for the rendezvous; he had received Lafayette and Bailly before leaving the Tuileries, and had left the Tuileries alone, on foot, the guards taking him for the Chevalier de Coigny. The Queen had only left the Tuileries after the King. The journey took place in a great *berline*. Mme. de Tourzel was supposed to be the principal person, under the name of Baroness de Korff; the King was her valet, the Queen her maid, and Mme. Elizabeth the child's nurse. Everybody knows how the King was recognized by Drouet, the postmaster of Sainte-Ménehould, and arrested at Varennes and brought back to Paris.

The rest of the tragedy is only too well known. Mme. de Tourzel was separated from the royal family. She escaped the scaffold almost by a miracle, and established herself at Abondant, near Dreux, where she was forgotten during the last years of the Revolution and during the Empire. She built in her park a little monument, which still exists, and on which may be read:

"Quid sunt cineres? heu! cinis ipsa deest!"

in allusion to the fate of the unfortunate Dauphin. The inhabitants of Abondant, a small village, did not disturb the profound sorrow of Mme. de Tourzel. When Louis XVIII. ascended the throne, he attached to the person of the Dauphin Mlle. de Tourzel, who had become Countess of Béarn, and he conferred on her the hereditary title of Duchess, which became extinct in the person of her grandson Olivier, Duc de Tourzel. Mme. de Tourzel died herself on the 15th of May, 1832, at the advanced age of 82. She lies buried at Abondant, in the church. The Duc des Cars, who now publishes her 'Memoirs,' is, as I have said, the husband of one of her granddaughters. She had five children, four of them daughters. The Countess of Béarn wrote a very interesting book, 'Souvenirs de quarante ans,' in which she gives a most interesting account of the massacres of September. The fifth child was a son, the last grand-provost of France. At his death, all the family papers passed into the hands of the Duchesse des Cars, one of his children.

Correspondence.

THE CATALOGUE OF THE ASTOR LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to an article in this day's *Nation* on the Astor Library, I beg leave to say that the Board of Trustees, believing that they had in Dr. Cogswell's four volumes a reasonably good author-catalogue of half the collection, decided that the most obvious step in advance would be to make an author-catalogue of the other half on the same general plan.

It is evident that this will not preclude, but rather prepare the way for, a thorough subject-catalogue of the entire Library, should the making of one be ordered on the completion of the present undertaking.

With regard to the conditions under which the work of correcting the cards is now progressing, the revisers have ample facilities as to appliances, place for working, and assistance in handling books. The only "hurrying" arises from the business-like desire of the trustees to confine the work to the simplest practical limits, and to bring out the catalogues as speedily and economically as possible.

C. Alex. Nelson,
in charge of new catalogue.

Astor Library, New York, May 31, 1883.

THE SUCCESSION AT PRINCETON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "Alumnus," in his letter printed May 31, is probably correct in saying that the trustees of Princeton will decline to accept the resignation of Doctor McCosh, and will seek to relieve him of much executive work by the appointment of a dean. He is certainly correct in thinking that at least some of the alumni would prefer another solution of the problem than the appointment of an heir presumptive. Many of them remember that the vice-presidency was suffered to lapse for sufficient reasons; and the reasons that sufficed for the extinction of that office are valid against its revival in another name. If President McCosh finds the legitimate duty of the presidency inconsistent with the special teaching that he is so qualified to give, and prefers to merge the administrator in the philosopher, why obstruct the way? To be sole or senior professor of the School of Philosophy gives full scope to laudable ambition, especially when his name is already indissolubly associated with the period of Princeton's greatest material and intellectual growth. Why, then, insist that he be held, even in name, to the office from which he asks relief? The trustees reply that the New York influence is unwilling to separate him from the titular position. New Yorkers have given munificently to Princeton, and have bought respectful attention; but the constituency of Princeton is national, not local. The metropolis has furnished money, but the country sends students. And notwithstanding the million and a half from Mr. Green, and the Stewart, the Marquand, the Libbey, and other gifts from that city, there are also liberal donors in other places. It is satisfactory to know that the management of the College commends itself to those representing the liberality of its greatest givers, but the stream began to flow toward Princeton before Doctor McCosh was elected, and it will probably be diverted or suppressed only by gross maladministration. It is hardly fair to insist, as the trustees are understood to be willing to do, that Doctor McCosh must be retained in an office that he wishes to resign merely because he is pleasing to New York.

It is a suggestive fact that Princeton's greatest benefactors are not her own children—partly, perhaps, because a liberal education does not as certainly as commerce lead to great wealth, but also partly because, as "Alumnus" has hinted, the foster-mother has never very warmly welcomed home her scattered sons. The annual alumni meeting at Princeton is dreary beyond description, and the occasional Yale or Harvard man drifting thither goes away wondering why neither numbers nor enthusiasm can be brought out. But, in spite of neglect and the "Oriental exclusion" from direct control, affection for Alma Mater remains with many who would help her with influence although dollars may be denied them. These, grateful for what Doctor McCosh has done, would have his services substantially honored, his graceful resignation accepted, as he evidently desires, and would place in the president's chair a man to be president only. They, believing Princeton to have a future as well as a past, remembering that in better days it has seen one-sixth of the Senate its own graduates, and that its public men were its ancient boast, would place at its head a man to inspire its students with both scholarship and patriotism. They would cultivate philosophy, and literature, and science, and public spirit. They would have the new president president in fact, not dean by title; and they would send thither every boy who had aspirations to be a good citizen first and a carer for money afterward.

But the Princeton alumni will not be consulted, nor can they intrude upon the patriarchs in their old home. D. Q.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The trial, recently ended here, of two young men accused of complicity in shooting Axel Winberg, I witnessed. When the two Proudfits gave in their testimony, I saw the effect on the jury, and no after-argument of the counsel had any effect upon them. Winberg had slapped the face of the young man, and was the first aggressor. Not one of that jury, though composed of laboring and wealthy men, that did not feel it was *right* to wipe out the insult with blood.

I have no words to express the pain and indignation felt in reading the comments upon the Thompson-Davis tragedy by the generality of the Southern papers. This affair, like many others, is the result of two codes of morals held for men and women, and of "ownership" in women. Much as I honor Mr. Watterson as a man, his comments upon it, viewed from a woman's standpoint, seem to merit the scornful contempt of women. Let me cite the parallel case of Kate Southern, of Georgia, who killed the mistress of her husband while dancing in her own parlor. She had refused to invite the woman, who was living in open liaison with her husband, to a party she was about to give. The husband *did* invite her, the woman came, and during the evening taunted the wife by telling her she did love her husband, was getting a divorce, and would win him from her, daring her to do her worst. The worst was done when, a few hours afterwards, she stabbed her rival to the heart, while dancing with her husband, with a knife borrowed from her father. These facts came out on her trial, yet for doing *precisely* what men are honored in the South for doing, she was sentenced to serve a long term in the penitentiary—I think was condemned to death on the first trial, but had her sentence commuted.

Nothing will tend more to change these unhappy features of social life than open discus-

sion of them by women and men both. The education of women will tend to change it more than all else. Men constantly declare that women do not demand as high a standard for men as men demand for women. Woman has never been allowed the rôle of censor, and never will be, so long as she is mentally, financially, and politically in bondage.

ELIZABETH L. SAXON.

MEMPHIS, TENN., May 29, 1883.

A LAST WORD ON UNIVERSITY HONOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You said in your last number that your readers had perhaps had enough of this controversy over "University Honor—North and South." Allow me to say that a rather large number of them, to my certain knowledge, are not at all satisfied to have it end in its present condition. We think that the true line has not been drawn, nor the existence of that line properly accounted for. "E. G.," of Boston, as it seems to us, has alone written in the proper spirit on this subject.

Nothing can be better established by human testimony than the fact that there is a contempt and hostility for deception of any kind at some Southern schools, so deep and general that tricksters and liars cannot find existence at them supportable. From my knowledge of the students at the University of Virginia, I vouch for what I say, that there is not only no cheating spirit there, but there is no spirit of deception of any kind. The burden of proof is upon those who allege its existence. I need not, most likely I could not, establish by argument the truth of my assertion, but there is a cloud of witnesses living in the North and in the South who will, I am positive, sustain it with their testimony. But without attempting to prove that "cribbing" and "skinning" are not the failings of the students at the universities of Virginia and Georgia, at Hampden Sidney, Randolph Macon, and other colleges, I shall, assuming my facts admitted, endeavor to account for them. Whatever may be the present character of the Southern people, it cannot be denied that, at the time some or all of the above institutions were established, the classes of our people who patronized them were, while full of faults, scorners of a lie, as a species of cowardice and weakness.

No reader of history is amazed to hear that, amidst much national profligacy and immorality, some one virtue is conspicuous in a people. Whatever may be the character of Virginians now, it is certain that at the time many of their schools were founded they hated falsehood, not, probably, as such, but as an indication of a lack of bravery. Their schools have acquired a tone. They are impressed with an idea. They are great conservators. Though the State as such may have lost its respect for its word, yet in these schools there remains that which inspires all lovers of the South with hope: an aversion to falsehood and underhand methods.

Now, the students at the schools I have mentioned do not refrain from cheating because they are Southerners, but because they are impressed with the idea of the schools. The same men have cheated at other schools, and would have continued to cheat had they gone where the atmosphere was different. At some of our comparatively young Southern schools there is, to my certain knowledge, an enormous and ever-increasing amount of cheating. What I want to lay stress upon is that Southern schools like the University of Virginia owe their absence of cheating not to the class of students in attendance upon them, but to the idea impressed upon the particular institutions by their founders, first professors, and the general sentiment of society at the time. The methods used at them are more the result than the cause of the unquestioning belief in the veracity of the young men. This unquestioning belief I cannot exaggerate or too highly commend. There is no "play belief." There is no ostentatious "don't-deceive-for-behold-my-trust" air which those often assume who are otherwise helpless. There is at the University of Virginia a feeling that it cannot possibly occur to a professor to doubt, or to a student to deceive. This is a mere matter of fact, which every alumnus or student or observer will affirm.

Not only is this the case between teacher and pupil, but also between the pupils themselves. While at the University of Virginia, after having attended schools of a lower tone, I was filled with amazement at the reverence shown there for one's word, even by those I knew to be of the most dissolute class. A man who had been sowing wild oats profusely was in no danger whatever of being tempted by his gay comrades after he had once quietly announced that he had promised to drink no more during the session. However weak his will, it was immediately taken for granted that his pledge could not be broken. I never heard of one breaking a temperance pledge, even when it had been forced upon him as an alternative for expulsion, or of any one tempting another who had taken it.

Of course, the system at the University of Virginia, while, as I have said, a result of the trust, helps to keep alive the trust. As your readers have been told by others, there is no grading, no honors, no demerits, no medals. There are also no police duties enjoined upon the professors. On the contrary, they are in the full sense of the word the friends of the students. It is very significant, and it helps to show the truth of this assertion, that among the hot-blooded young men who have attended this school there has never been fought a duel. This is a strange fact, and inexplicable to all who know the character of Southern students, but who do not know the professors of whom I speak, and the relation between them and their students. To me there can be no doubt that the ingenuousness and straightforwardness of the students at the University of Virginia have been to no small degree preserved by the wise non-interference of the school with matters of creed. No one need make any pretensions of a religious kind in order to win more respect or affection from his professors. He may be sure, however widely he may differ from them in matters of belief, that by his deportment alone he will be rated. The scorn entertained there for a cheat is largely due to the fact that a degree granted by that school is justly valued highly, because conditioned not upon length of stay, but upon a very respectable proficiency of the student. It is the selfish interest of each one, therefore, to prevent any one from gaining by sly trickery what he is trying to gain by arduous toil. For this reason he would expose and help drive away one who cheated at examination, just as he would aid in bringing to shame and punishment a common thief. At Princeton and at other Northern colleges there is no cheating, I am informed, among those who are striving to secure high positions in the graduating class. But those who it is thought will barely succeed in getting the minimum mark will be expected to cheat, will cheat, and will be aided in cheating, because it is not the degree that is prized, but the rank in the class.

Were not the general cause which I have mentioned still exerting its influence at the University of Virginia, were the grand *idea* eradicated which has so long controlled the conduct of all connected with it, there would exist at that institution, under a similar system, the same amount of cheating.—Very respectfully,

E. I. R.

ATLANTA, GA., May 29, 1883.

THE SOUTH AND THE NATIONAL DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The day has come when the national Democratic party can no longer count upon the solid support of the Southern branch of the party. In fact, it is not going too far to say that already they form two separate and distinct parties, who have heretofore, from motives of self-interest (or supposed interest), acted together more as allies than as a unit.

We of the South find that we have reaped no benefit from this alliance in the past, and that, whatever success may come to the party, we at least shall have no share in its blessings. We have learned that we are to be used to lift the party to ascendency, and when we ask for consideration at its hands are to be told by our Northern brethren—as has invariably been the case—that this, that, or the other measure is too Southern, and will injure the party, and therefore they must oppose it. We wish to know, under these circumstances, of what benefit to us is a national Democratic victory.

It has been suggested to the Southern Democracy to draw off from both parties and form a separate third party, thus holding the balance of power; not with the expectation of party ascendency, but to hold itself ready to coöperate with either party as policy may on the particular occasion direct. And whether or not this idea crystallizes into form by the next national election, it is very certain that the Southern vote will, in a very large measure, hold itself independent of the direction of the national party. There are many reasons why we cannot consent longer to follow blindly the dictates of the national party.

These reasons may be summarized somewhat in this way: (1) There are no issues of principles between the parties. (2) The South is unanimous for free trade, let it come from what direction it may. (3) We are setting out on a career of unprecedented prosperity; consequently we want quiet, stability, and a maintenance of the present financial policy of the Government—in fact, having no political ambition, we are fearful of any sudden change or shock that might injure our material prosperity. (4) But above all this, we feel that the tendency of the national Democratic party is not in the direction of our sympathy or judgment. We recognize the fact that there is yet another "irrepressible conflict" brooding in this country, which some have termed—although improperly—a contest between capital and labor, but more properly between intelligence and ignorance, and that in such a contest our interest must lead us to an alliance with that party which most vigorously repudiates the propagandism of the Communist, the Nihilist, and the modern demagogue.

The South realizes the necessity of maintaining her State governments in the hands of the intelligent whites, but in national matters there is little doubt but that she will in the near future inaugurate a policy totally unbiassed by past affiliations.

R. K. CHARLES.

DARLINGTON, S. C.

Notes.

E. CLAXTON & CO., Philadelphia, will follow up their octavo "Avon" Shakspere with a corresponding "Newstead" Byron, to embrace the complete dramatic and poetical works of the

author of 'Childe Harold.' It will be printed from new plates. An illustrated Life of Byron, by Prof. John Nichols, will first be published by the same house.

We have already announced the limited *édition de luxe* of Sheridan's plays to be published by Dodd, Mead & Co. Another edition of Sheridan will form one of Professor Morley's new series of shilling volumes. Mrs. Oliphant's volume on Sheridan is announced as the next issue in the "English Men of Letters" series, and Mr. J. Brander Matthews has in preparation an illustrated and annotated edition of the "Rivals" and the "School for Scandal," to be published by James R. Osgood & Co. It will be preceded by a brief biography of the dramatist. Among other new matter, Mr. Matthews believes that he can give the exact explanation of Sheridan's extraordinary purchase of Drury Lane Theatre, which has hitherto been one of the puzzles of literary history.

The next of "Appleton's Home Books" will be the 'Home Library,' by Arthur Penn. It will contain more than thirty illustrations, chiefly of the more recent library devices to save time, trouble, and money. It is a practical book rather than a treatise on reading or a list of books to read. Among the chapters is one on book-plates, with copies of French and English examples, the only American representative being one drawn by Mr. E. A. Abbey for a dramatic collector of this city.

Harper & Bros. have decided on destroying the plates of their *Magazine* and *Weekly* up to 1880, and all the stock of those periodicals on hand they have sold to Estes & Lauriat, Boston.

Charles Scribner's Sons have likewise disposed of their entire list of school text-books to Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

In 'Recollections of My Youth,' translated by C. B. Pitman, G. P. Putnam's Sons make accessible to English readers Renan's complacent 'Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse.' Our Paris correspondent has already qualified our own audience to judge of the intrinsic worth of this volume. The chief charm of the original, the author's style, could not indeed be easily reproduced; but more might have been done to imitate it in this version, intelligent as it is, if greater pains had been bestowed upon it. A crucial test is the opening paragraph of the preface; and if we compare "qui sonne encore des cloches obstinées à convoquer aux offices sacrés des fidèles qui n'entendent plus," with "its bells calling to prayer a recalcitrant congregation," we shall see how too great haste has led the translator to neglect the poetry and falsify the sense of a passage presenting no difficulties except those of style. This was not owing to lack of intelligence, any more than the occasional printing of Renan's name with an accented *e*, as upon the title-page and the cover.

Another welcome translation, and even more skilful, is 'The Growth of a People: a Short Study in French History' (Henry Holt & Co.). This is, with a changed title, Paul Lacombe's 'Petite Histoire du Peuple Français,' the English being Mr. Lewis A. Stimson's. It supersedes a wretched performance made some years ago, and now, we are glad to learn from the translator's preface, unprocurable. We have tested it in a number of places, and its accuracy may be relied on. Since the same publishers have the original French on their list, teachers have now a rare opportunity of combining a capital introductory course in French history with dictation exercises in turning English idiom into French, and vice versa.

It never rains but it pours. We noticed last week the simultaneous appearance of two editions of samples of 'The New Guide of the Conversation'; now we have the entire work in a "first American edition, reprinted verbatim et literatim" (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.). In this case, certainly, the whole is better than any number of its parts. Mark Twain furnishes a short introduction, full of appreciation of the irresistible drollery of the book, but he seems to miss the key to what he calls "its enchanting naïveté," namely, its being a translation from the French. The difficulty of reprinting *literatim* is well known; but it is singular that the Osgood, Putnam, and Appleton editions should all have "typographical [for *typ*graphical] correction" in the preface. Is it possible that they all followed a reprint instead of the rare original?

Very recently we had occasion to mention the latest German-French-English Technological Dictionary. There now lie before us the first two instalments of Part I. (English-Spanish) of the 'Diccionario Tecnológico Inglés-español y Español-inglés' (New York: Ponce de Leon). The publisher, who is also the editor, has had ample experience of the need of such a work, and the best opportunities for compiling it. It is based on Tollhausen's trilingual dictionary (German-French-English, 1864), with the aid of some thirty other dictionaries in all languages, whose titles are given in the preface. It is expressly a work not of definitions but of equivalents, in this respect differing from the work first named above, which united the two. Some idea of the laboriousness of the task may be had from the single fact of the great diversity of synonyms in the various provinces of Spain and in her former possessions in this country. Purists may object, if they please, says the author, to some of the new terms thus admitted; but he has chosen to be as liberal in naturalization as his adopted country. He modestly craves correction of errors which cannot fail to exist in a pioneer work, and promises to profit by it in his appendix. The two numbers already issued (A–Bombon—*sic* for Bonbon) justify the pretensions of this dictionary to surpass every other in point of fulness. The names of craftsmen which we missed in Eger's German work are here given. In short, the 'Diccionario Tecnológico' cannot fail to meet the need of the ever increasing commercial and industrial intercourse of the great Spanish and Anglo-Saxon races.

The English translation of 'Das Reich der Töne' (The Realm of Tones), published by E. Schuberth & Co., is a book which no one interested in music can examine without feeling a strong desire to possess it. It contains, on a dozen plates, more than 300 photographs of distinguished composers, singers, and instrumentalists of all countries and periods, besides short and pithy biographic notices of them. The subjects are arranged partly according to nationality, partly with reference to their specialties. The insertion of several virtuosos in whom the artistic faculty was more or less obscured by the desire to tickle the public with cheap tricks is perhaps pardonable in view of their general popularity; but the line might have been drawn at Kontsky: nor was there any reason for placing Eduard Strauss by the side of Johann and Joseph. Among the regrettable omissions are Frau Materna and Herr Vogel, the two greatest living dramatic vocalists. The most serious objection to this book is that there is no index, and as the names are somewhat indefinitely arranged, with the biographic notices generally on the opposite page and not in alphabetic order, it is often difficult to find the name that is wanted. Of the photographs it must be said that they are in most cases based on the best models, and differ advantageously from the idealized photographs usually sold in the music stores, which make every composer appear a sort of Apollo. A valuable feature of the present edition is the addition of two plates containing the pictures of noted American musicians, the biographic notices being supplied by Dr. F. L. Ritter, who is also, as stated in the preface, at work on a 'Musical Dictionary.'

The late Prof. James Orton's 'Comparative Zoölogy,' first published by the Messrs. Harper in 1876, has now been revised by Professor Birge, of the University of Wisconsin, whose liberties, while not great, have heightened the original excellence of this work. The success of it may one day justify a renovation of the cuts, many of which have by long service earned an honorable discharge.

A Preliminary Catalogue and Synopsis of the collections exhibited by the U. S. Fish Commission and by special exhibitors, at the International Exhibition now open in London, has issued from the Government Printing-office.

To the Essex Institute Historical Collections (Salem, Mass.) for January-March, 1883, Mr. Robert S. Rantoul furnishes a long and interesting "Note on the authenticity of the portraits of Governor Endecott." Eight exist, some copies of the others; but in the case of the originals, or supposed originals, there is much obscurity as to the date of their execution or their painters. However, these bear a resemblance one to the other, and have the still higher stamp of authenticity which the resemblance of Governor Endecott's posterity affords in certain family features.

With the approval of the Board of Trustees of Washington's headquarters at Newburgh, Major Edward C. Boynton has compiled the general orders issued thence by the commander-in-chief during 1782–83 (Newburgh: E. M. Ruttenber & Son). Some of these orders have never before been printed. The pamphlet is illustrated.

The attention of all who are interested in spelling reform should be called to Mr. Alexander Melville Bell's article in *Science* for June 1, which gives a glimpse of his "visible-speech" alphabet, and shows what portion of it could be advantageously introduced as a beginning. Notoriously, Mr. Bell's system is both scientific and universal, and just as far as it was adopted in one language it would be intelligible to all. "But," as he himself says, "why not have two alphabets?"

The current number of the *Student and Statesman* (New York: Louis Kempner, 5 Clinton Place) contains an appeal for a more effective support from the public.

We have received from the State Charities Aid Association (No. 6 East Fourteenth Street) their pamphlet, "Suggestions for the Use of Workers among the Poor," issued last month, and known as Document No. 33. Some of the topics are loans, employment, provident schemes, legal aid, etc., and every section will repay consideration.

The Twelfth Annual Report of the Secretary of the State Horticultural Society of Michigan (Lansing), with its reports of auxiliary societies and Secretary's "Portfolio" or scrap-book, is calculated to instruct horticulturists everywhere in much the same way that their special periodicals do; but the index is far too meagre.

Late American books reprinted in the "Tauchnitz Series" are Mr. Crawford's 'Mr. Isaacs,' Mr. Howells's 'Undiscovered Country' and 'Modern Instance'; Dr. Holmes's 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table,' and Mr. John Habberton's 'The Bowsham Puzzle.' The German publisher still reflects English opinion of American writers; and if his list bears an increasing number of American names, it is only because American novelists are exciting far more attention of late in England itself.

Dr. Philipp J. J. Valentini's paper on the Olmecas and Tultecas, "a study in early Mexi-

can ethnology and history," has been printed separately from the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society, with a map drawn by the author himself to illustrate his text. These primitive peoples he considers to have been of one family, settling in different parts of Mexico, and reuniting after the lapse of some centuries, but before the traces of kinship had vanished. Tultecas was a name never assumed by the tribe in question. Their architecture cannot be thought a development from the pueblos of the North.

The number of members of the British Association for the Advancement of Science who have announced their intention of being present at the proposed meeting at Montreal in 1884 continues to increase, and is now between four and five hundred. It is stated that Lord Rayleigh has accepted the presidency for the Canadian meeting.

Astronomers have so far been baffled in their attempts to rediscover D'Arrest's comet at the now approaching perihelion-passage. This occurs January 14, of next year, and the comet should now be visible, though very faint. Even when most favorably situated for observation, toward the close of this year, the intensity of its light will be less than the lowest value at which the comet has ever been observed at previous returns to perihelion. There is a surprising number of faint nebulæ along its track, and this fact alone largely diminishes the chances of its being seen at all at the present return.

The astronomical prizes of the Academy of Sciences, Paris, have been awarded as follows: The La Lande prize falls to M. Souillart, Professor in the Faculty of Sciences of Lille, for his investigations of the theory of the satellites of Jupiter. The Damoiseau prize for the revision of the theory of these satellites was not granted, but an encouragement of 2,000 francs was given to Dr. W. Schur for his recent determination of the mass of Jupiter, and of the eccentricities of the orbits of the two inner satellites. Two Valz prizes were awarded—the one to Doctor Huggins for his spectroscopic work and his recent great advances in celestial photography, and the other to M. Cruls, Director of the Observatory at Rio de Janeiro.

—The *Academy* having remarked upon the small amount of fiction circulated in the Mitchell Library at Glasgow, the librarian, Mr. F. T. Barrett, wrote to say that this was because the library had less than 400 volumes of fiction. The "turnover" of these was last year 97.93, the turnover of the whole library being 8.59. And yet Stirling's Library, within a short distance, has a large supply of fiction, and there are plenty of private circulating libraries from which novels can be procured at a penny a week. There could not be a better proof of the strong craving of human nature for this refreshment, or stimulant—a proof which is paralleled in the statement lately made that of 363,000 volumes circulated by the *arrondissement* libraries in Paris 200,000 were novels; and repeated with more or less strength in every library report which is published except that of the Germantown Library, which has more than doubled its circulation in eight years without this aid. But the existence of a craving and the advisability of gratifying it are two very different things. There is a still greater demand for alcoholic stimulants; but both physiology and sociology urge us to throw every obstacle in the way of their supply, or rather every obstacle that will be effectual. There is, however, this difference between alcohol and fiction, that the first is manifestly and undeniably productive of great evils, and that the belief in the evil effect of the latter, though widely spread, would, if examined into, be found to rest upon a very slender basis of observed facts.

—In these days of bric-à-brac-hunting, picture-buying, and book-collecting we may welcome M. Henri Rochefort's 'Petits Mystères de l'Hôtel des Ventes' (Paris: Jules Rouff; New York: F. W. Christern), which is a lively criticism of man and manners at the Hôtel Drouot, the Parisian auction-mart where all kinds of things are daily knocked down under the hammer. Few people remember that M. Rochefort, now known to the world as a ferocious political partisan, was once known in Paris only as a writer for the comic papers. It was in the *Charivari*, a score or so of years ago, that he published a series of humorous sketches of the manners and customs of the buyers and sellers at auction, utilizing thus the notes taken while he himself was picking up curiosities and the various objects of "bigotry and virtue" of which he has always been fond. In 1862 he made a book out of these serial sketches, and it is this book which is now published in a new edition, with a few additions and a slight revision, although nothing in the present issue bears witness to the original publication twenty-one years ago. The book is interesting, and shows its age but little, although we confess that we do not exactly see what there was in it to serve as the basis of a three-act farce, which M. Rochefort and M. Albert Wolff jointly made out of it, and which was acted at the Variétés in 1863. It is a simple and straightforward account of Parisian sales by auction, accompanied by a running fire of small jokes more or less clever, and quite in the usual style of the *Charivari*. Some of the illustrative anecdotes are very amusing. One of them sets forth that an expert in pictures, having been told that the subject of a certain painting was taken from the Apocalypse, made due announcement to the assembled bidders, kindly explaining that Apocalypse was a German master, whose works, although not well known in Paris, were highly esteemed abroad. Another declares that this same expert, seeing a head of Christ with the legend "Salvator Mundi," asserted that it was one of the best works of the Venetian painter Salvator Mundi, well known as a rival of Salvator Rosa. Still another relates how a certain collector of literary rarities bought a lot of Arabic MSS. beautiful in character and on irreproachable vellum, and how he rashly bragged of his bargain before an Arabic scholar, who was led to examine the MSS., only to find that they were the account books of various modern dealers in camels, dates, and spices.

—A correspondent at Florence writes us that at the recent sale of the Toscanelli collection at Florence the Boston Museum purchased a large and important altar-piece of the Sienese school, of the date of about 1400. The artist is not with any certainty determinable, for, though the piece was in the catalogue attributed to Bartolo di Maestro Fredi, it is certainly not by him, but by a pupil (unknown by name) of Lorenzetti, and the picture appears to have been painted in the closest relation with that master, the types of the heads as well as method of painting closely corresponding to those in pictures known to be by him. It is a group of small pictures in an architectural arrangement, the panels being ten in number and the frame of elaborate Gothic, in excellent preservation, as well as the pictures (considering the date), the little circles of imitation gems which enter into the decoration being mostly still in their places between the panels. The gilded backgrounds are to a great extent still preserved in the original gold. The subject is the death of the Virgin, the treatment being that of Lorenzetti, the saints mingled with angels laying the body in the tomb, and the spirit going up surrounded by a halo of angels. It is arranged as a triptych, the wings having two saints in each, and in smaller panels above are four prophets. The painting is in the conventional style of that early period, and characteristic to the last degree of the school of Siena, and of that manner of regarding painting which made it a part of the *ensemble* of worship with the architecture, stained windows, and decorative features of ceremony and building. Without studying these as a whole, no idea of Christian art, whether of its painting or its architecture, can be arrived at. The Museum has also acquired an example of a little-known but very able painter of the Bolognese school, Massari—an Entombment, from the Rosini gallery at Pisa, a powerfully and largely painted group of figures in an important landscape motive. If the Sienese picture is in the extreme of the mystical art, the Bolognese is as remarkable for straightforward, unaffected naturalism and thoroughly good painting.

— The appearance in rapid succession of Balg's English translation of Braune's 'Gotische Grammatik' (New York: Westermann) and of Skeat's 'Gospel of St. Mark in Gothic, with Grammatical Introduction and Glossarial Index' (Oxford: Clarendon Press), gives one a good opportunity of contrasting German and English scholarship. Braune's grammar in the original is so well known to American philologists that it is almost superfluous to speak of its merits. It is, in truth, a model text-book, giving the facts of the language, and avoiding all speculative discussion, while arranging the matter in a way to facilitate such discussion. The present translation will commend itself to those who are not able to read German with perfect ease, although we must confess that the translator's English is at times queer enough. There is an unidiomatic turn on almost every page. Still, these mere blunders of style will not impair the usefulness of the book. On the other hand, we are forced to state that Professor Skeat's work, while good as to its English, is very poor as to its Gothic. We regret to have to speak so sharply of one who has done such valuable work in editing Anglo-Saxon texts. We rank Skeat with Morris and Sweet as the most conscientious and trustworthy English editors now living. But his knowledge of Germanic philology is twenty years behind the times. It is so imperfect that it has hindered him from even perceiving the novel features in Braune's grammar (upon which his own grammatical outline professes to be based). Thus he does not seem to have heard of the distinction between East and West Germanic, or of the two *gg* sounds, and he gravely puts down *a* as an original vowel. In general, wherever he has departed from Braune he has made a blunder, and hence his work is not a safe one to put into the hands of the beginner. The only valuable and original feature is the palæographic elucidation of the Gothic alphabet, §7 and §8.

—The preliminary report of the Swedish Arctic expedition, which, under the scientific command of Nathorst and De Geer, was detailed, in the summer of 1882, to effect a survey of the interior and coast-line of Spitzbergen, gives some interesting facts and speculations connected with the geography and geology of that land. According to the observations of the naturalists above mentioned, as reported in the *Revue Scientifique* (March 17), the fjords and narrow valleys owe their origin not to simple water excavation, but to erosion by ancient glaciers, or those belonging to the glacial period. Up to this epoch, it is contended, the island and the peninsula of Scandinavia were united to each other;

the dissolution (as effected through terrestrial subsidence), which has persisted ever since, having followed about at its close. A subsequent reëlevation, not sufficient, however, to bring the entire submerged portion up to the sea-level, is indicated by the banks of marine shells, of existing species, which are scattered throughout the land—a feature, well known to the older geologists, which repeats itself on the opposite Scandinavian coast. The existence in Spitzbergen of some of the more characteristic species of the Scandinavian fauna and flora is explained on the hypothesis of migration at a time, probably not much post-dating the close of the glacial period, when the plateau uniting the two countries was still elevated above the oceanic surface. Considerable strength is lent to this hypothesis by the occurrence in the interior of the island, and consequently at a nearest distance of about four hundred and fifty miles from the mainland, of certain continental land-birds, and of the remains of the common fresh-water edible mussel (*Mytilus edulis*) and other molluscan types, which no longer at the present day inhabit the same localities. The various facts connected with the distribution of organic life on the island would seem to indicate that even after the era of great northern glaciation the climate of the region was at one time considerably milder than it is at present, a circumstance probably attributable to the more northward deflection, by the connecting land barrier, of the heated waters of the Gulf Stream.

MORTON'S NEW ENGLAND CANAAN.

The New England Canaan of Thomas Morton. With introductory matter and notes by Charles Francis Adams, jr. Boston: The Prince Society. 1883.

EIGHT or nine years ago Mr. Adams gave an historical discourse on the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the settlement of the town of Weymouth. This was the beginning of a series of studies of which this volume is the natural outcome. It led him into an examination of the scattered evidences of the feeble and uncertain settlements which were made about Boston Harbor previous to the coming of Winthrop in 1630, and subsequent to the settlement at Plymouth. It was a time when the Gorges representatives were striving, by actual possession, to make good their claims to territory around Massachusetts Bay. The subject had long been obscure, and scarce more than conjecture had defined what little was supposed to be known. With study and acumen Mr. Adams grasped the subject in this address; and more minutely in some later contributions, like a paper on the "old planters," which he printed in the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, and a chapter which he contributed to the 'Memorial History of Boston.' In these he set forth, in an orderly and interesting way, the story of this shadowy period, showing how a careful collation of widely scattered statements could, under a skilful disposition, be made to yield a coherent narrative.

Thomas Morton was of course a central figure in much of this recital; and it was natural, as it was clearly profitable, that such special study should be applied to the elucidation of one of the most striking of the books pertaining to the early settlement of Massachusetts. The book itself is a rare one, and has been in some respects a bibliographical puzzle. It was written to play upon the prejudices of Archbishop Laud, so as to instigate him to measures which should impede the temporal progress of the two colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay, and make the way easier for the establishment of episcopacy under Gorges and his minions in the country, which was then engrossed by the Puritans and the Separatists. Gorges was always crippled in his efforts by lack of money, and it was probably some similar poverty which led to the printing of this book in Amsterdam, most copies having an imprint of that town, though one at least has the name of a London bookseller instead. The book was plainly intended for effect in England, and there is no evidence that any copy found its way to New England, certainly for some years. When Morton in 1644 was on trial in Boston, though the fact of his publishing the book was known to the Court, not a copy of it could be found to establish the evidence. Bradford, indeed, speaks of it as scurrilous and infamous, but if his description was from inspection, there is no proof of it. When John Quincy Adams found and bought a copy of it in Europe some time before 1801, it was not known that any existed in America; at all events this Adams copy was long reckoned the only one in existence, and Mr. Savage, in editing Winthrop's 'Journal,' said he had never heard of any other. A few copies, perhaps twenty in all, have since been traced. Peter Force unearthed one, and reprinted it in his 'Tracts,' with reasonable care, but on collating his reprint with the Adams copy, in preparing the text of the present edition, about a hundred variations were found; not many of these were serious, and they were not all errors, perhaps, for Force's copy, now in the Library of Congress, may have differed in minor points, as books kept standing in the type, after the fashion of that day, not unfrequently do. It is doubtful if the book made any mark even among those whom it was intended to influence, but it did not escape Bishop Kennett when he was forming his American library; and when he printed his catalogue in 1713 he included it in the list, giving the date "1632" in the margin. This seems to have been the origin of the belief that it was printed in that year, a belief into which Force was led, as it now appears, because his copy lacked a title. The Bishop's copy, now preserved, chanced to be one of those with the London imprint without date, and he had pencilled a conjectural date in its title, which was copied into his catalogue.

Morton's habit of multifarious allusions, as well as the natural crop of errors from Dutch type-setters dealing with English copy, renders the book a peculiarly fit one for editorial elucidation. Mr. Adams confesses to a want of previous editorial experience, but he has called upon the best men to help him in the various branches of Morton's studies which cover the geography and natural history of the country, as well as the peculiar conditions of society and theological belief which he tried to make obnoxious. The fellow, indeed, was an ardent admirer of the country, if not of its people, and as a follower of Gorges it was not unwise for him to set off in high colors its advantages as a plantation. The modern student of the physical conditions of the soil and waters and what they support, finds considerable satisfaction in these early records of Morton, Wood, and particularly of Josselyn regarding the things which they saw, and not a little has been done by the modern scientists in elucidation of these early observers. Mr. Adams has summoned such students to his aid unreservedly, and we know we have the best knowledge when we find the names of Professors Gray, Shaler, Sargent, and Messrs. Lyman, Allen, Putnam, and Brewster put down as vouchers. Of course, in Indian linguistics Dr. Trumbull came to the rescue; and for broad acquaintance with early New England history, Mr. Adams makes an exception in not limiting his recourse to contemporary writers by counting among them, as "just as good," so accurate an authority as Dr. Charles Deane.

In his introduction Mr. Adams has gone over, with precision and skilful grouping, the whole story of the beginnings of Massachusetts history, so far as it was a struggle against the possible victory of the Gorges party in wresting from the colonists their charter; and it is an instructive story, meaning much for the future, and best read in the light of what the Bay Colony became. Morton in all this was a man obnoxious in every way, representing hostile views and agencies—not, as Mr. Adams properly says, a remarkable man in any sense, except that nuisances are always noticeable. Of late years a reaction against Puritanism has induced a writer, given by instinct and belief to impugning the motives of the Puritans, to go so far as to place Morton's obnoxiousness to the score of his love of the prayer-book, and of his efforts to Christianize the Indian women! Mr. Adams refers to this writer's zeal by allowing him an "apparent gravity" in the exposition. Nothing, however, in the New Canaan can be droller than representations like these. Morton was repulsive enough to the Puritan or Separatist sense in his politics, his morality, his very jocoseness; but to picture him as making converts of the dusky women about Merry Mount to any code but the libertine's is to add to his character a blackness that even the descendants of the Puritans would not venture to give. Apparently Blackstone and the other Episcopalians who joined with the colonists of Salem and Plymouth in putting an end to his mischievous practices had not in that day reached to such a refined perception of his holy character.

Mr. Adams, as an editor, has certainly not been sparing of pains. He found the book full of difficult passages. He is not wrong in saying that Morton is "always confused and inaccurate in his statements," and the "most careless and slipshod of authors." Add to this, that he was fond of curious and not always apposite allusions, and we have the editor's task before us. We have been struck with the success of Mr. Adams's application, and with the deftness of his research. On one point, however, we are not quite satisfied. We suspect that Morton did not base his wild geographical theories regarding the interior of the country upon the map which appeared in the 1632 edition of Champlain's 'Voyages,' as Mr. Adams is led to believe; and he is certainly in error in supposing that there was no other map in 1634 which Morton could have seen. Some of the Dutch maps much more likely came within his notice after his return to England in 1631, as they very sensibly affected the cartography of New England for some years after that, producing sometimes a very strange jumbling of the imaginary nomenclature of John Smith's map with that of Adrian Block and the other Dutch navigators. Mr. Adams, it is to be presumed, purposely ignored Champlain's earlier maps of 1612 and 1613; but he must have overlooked the series of Dutch plots which, beginning with the so-called "Figurative map" of 1614, were the main dependence of the cartographers of other nations for some years to come. This map, as a manuscript, might not indeed have been known to Morton or to the circle about Gorges in London among which Morton lived; but the printed map of Jacobsz of 1621, and more particularly the map of New England and New France which De Laet added to the second edition of his 'Novus Orbis' in 1630, as belonging to a well-known and even popular book, translated into Dutch and French, was much more likely to come within the knowledge of these English promoters of colonization. Champlain's earlier

maps (1612 and 1613) had indeed given the lake of the Iroquois which that explorer had discovered; but such travellers and geographers even as Master Briggs and Speed seem never to have heard of it in 1625 and 1626, when their respective maps were published. Moreover, it is very doubtful if Champlain's books were known at all in England at this time; and it is certain that he had nothing like so just a comprehension of the distance between Massachusetts Bay and Lake Champlain as was shared by De Laet and Morton. The latter gives this distance as about 300 miles, or something in excess of the truth, while Champlain brings the lake very nearly down to the region of Cape Ann. The later Dutch geographer, Blaeu, in 1635, seems to have followed Champlain rather than De Laet, so that the lake in his map lies close upon the Merrimac and Blackstone Rivers. It is significant that Morton nowhere mentions Champlain, while he printed his book, as we have seen, in Amsterdam, and had knowledge of the doings of the Dutch on the Hudson. We know, too, that he begrudged them the possession of "the pleasant and commodious country of Erocoise [his form of Iroquois], the principal part of all new Canaan for plantation, and not elsewhere to be paralleled in all the known world."

There is one little possible local trace that naturally escaped Mr. Adams. Morton was several times in Plymouth, abiding there for a space. He is known to have been a zealous sportsman, often tramping off with his gun and his fishing gear. We have a distinct statement that in 1643 he annoyed Captain Standish by fowling on his grounds in Duxbury, and it was not probably an unwonted field for his sporting propensities. Now, it happens that in the tide-water contiguous to Standish's farm there is a place known to this day as "Morton's Hole." It is mentioned in the records at an early date, but after Morton's early sojourn there, when he came back with Allerton. It is of course possible that it is associated with another of that name; but it is not very difficult to imagine the sportsman's punt, floating upon the shallow waters of this cove lying under the shadow of Captain's Hill and within eye-shot of the pilgrim hero, smoking upon his door-stone.

LIFE OF BISHOP WILBERFORCE.

Life of Bishop Wilberforce. By A. R. Ashwell and R. G. Wilberforce. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1 vol. 8vo, pp. 553. (Abridged from the English edition.)

THOSE who expect to find in this volume, because of the stir it has made in England, the caustic personalities of the recent biographies of Carlyle and Byron will be sadly disappointed. Indeed, to Americans who are not especially interested in the details of the late history of the British episcopacy, much of this book must be pretty dry reading, although it presents the career of a prominent and, to some extent, a typical man at a period of important change.

It is evident that Wilberforce started with powerful influence to push him, as well as the prestige of his famous father's name, for preferment opened to him in many directions as soon as he took orders. This book tells us little of his childhood, except the strong religious influence and oratorical training imparted by his father. On this, as on many other points, we can learn more from other sources. Mr. Mozley tells us how, when he was only twelve years old, the boy quarrelled with his tutor (he never went to a public school), and demanded to be sent home at once. When the tutor refused, he threw himself in the road, in the track of a score or two of coaches, and "announced his intention of staying there till he was sent back. After he had remained there several hours, the tutor struck his colors, and Samuel was sent home." And this energy lasted through life, but not the obstinacy. Indeed, more than once in later life his sudden change of front bewildered and disappointed his friends and brought upon him ill-deserved suspicion of double dealing. It is known that he lost much of the high favor which he at first enjoyed at court from some appearance of over-worldliness which Prince Albert thought he saw in the conduct of the ambitious young prelate; but this may probably have arisen more from some social over-dexterity like the following than from any more serious dereliction:

"Staying once, during the dog-days, at a friend's country-house, it was his hap to sit at dinner next to a prosy old gentleman, to the influence of whose conversation (the ladies being gone) Wilberforce at last succumbed, and fell fast asleep. He did more: he *dreamed*—dreamed that he was afloat on a tempestuous sea. 'And the storm was so violent,' he said slowly aloud, 'that the ship—could never live—through the surge.' 'Now, do you know, my lord,' said the old buffer solemnly, after a pause of bewilderment, 'I find myself utterly unable to see the bearing of that remark on our previous conversation?' The Bishop waked up instantly, and, perceiving the gravity of his situation, but knowing his man, rejoined with the utmost gravity: 'Then all I can say is, I'm *astonished* at you. Let us join the ladies.'"

Such an incident would be sure to arouse distrust in a non-humorous person like the Prince Consort; but it would not be just to accuse of time-serving the man who censured so freely both Palmerston and Disraeli at the height of their power, and never hesitated to tell Gladstone his own opinion when they differed. His frankness evidently hindered his advancement. But the popular sobriquet of "Soapy Sam" which his social cordiality earned him, is not sufficiently explained by his own witty remark that it was because he was so often in hot water and always came out with clean hands. Generally this ready tact stood him in good stead. For example, once at the opening of a church, where a procession of the clergy in surplices had been arranged, and at the last moment two of them appeared in black gowns, to vindicate their evangelical principles, the rector was in despair, but the wily Bishop assured him that all would be well; and as the procession formed he stepped up to the first black-gowned clergyman with a "Good morning, Mr. ——. Will you have the kindness to read the first lesson for us this morning?" and passed to the other with a like request for the second lesson. The two hurried on the proper surplices, and the procession entered all clad alike. It is only just to say that this dangerous cleverness seems never to have been employed where principle was concerned. His desire for what he thought soundness of belief at any cost was carried much too far for a national church which may properly disregard minor differences in order to gain universal harmony. Over and over again we find him rebuking or attacking the clergymen in his diocese, sometimes upon matters of importance, at others as to mere trifles like the hour for holding the communion service, and by no means always with success. The proceedings against Doctor Hampden, the author of the Bampton Lectures, were certainly hasty and ill-judged, as his own subsequent ill-explained change of opinion showed. In general, however, he was a very efficient Bishop, working with immense energy, dictating four or five letters at once, never allowing himself a moment's rest, and possessing the invaluable power of enlisting and directing others and communicating to them his own enthusiasm.

In broader matters, too, he played a really important part in the Church. At the time of the great Tractarian movement, which carried so many enthusiasts over to Rome, his brothers, his brothers-in-law, even his daughter, passed over, but he, notwithstanding his High-Church position, stood firm. He compared ritualism to "some brilliant fantastic coruscation which has cast itself forth from the surface of the weltering mass of molten metal, which, unaffected by such exhalations, flows on with its full stream into its appointed mould. These burning sparks witness of the heat of the mass from which they sprung; they are not in their peculiar action of its essence or its end." His influence was exerted to repress extremes. He opposed regular confession, sisterhood vows, and any unwelcome change of rites. It is reported that he said that he never heard a Gregorian chant "without feeling a wish to lie down on my stomach and howl," and yet his influence was strongly in favor of the High-Church movement in a moderate shape. When the leaders of the first sisterhood went over to Catholicism, he nursed it back to life. He loved the legal rites, and it was his influence that revived the Convocation after a lapse of a century and a half. He was a leader of great earnestness and commonsense at a time when people wanted an advance and were terribly afraid of going too far. He was not a student or a profound thinker; but with the exception of his weak letter against unsectarian education, he said very little that was unwise.

We must remember that his defects and powers were those of the orator, from youth up. He was always enthusiastic, sensitive, impulsive, daring, and fond of verbal effect. His preëminence in society and the pulpit went together. Some of his mots were excellent—for instance, the Latin one in which he translated "hearse" by "mors omnibus"; and the other, often quoted, in which he said of an orthodox but wordy brother who was called "sound": "Yes—*vox et præterea nihil.* I never hear the northwest wind blow on Sunday but what it troubles me to think that poor —— is preaching." Many of his pulpit figures were strikingly fine—for instance, that describing sin as forgotten, but not forgiven, like footprints in yesterday's snow, which are still there, though hidden by the fresh fall over night. As with other great orators, many of his best passages were impromptu; thus, when one of his friends wished to recur to a singularly eloquent and powerful description of the effect on the soul of the clearing away of doubt, he found in Wilberforce's notes only the one word, "fog." He was the first of a new order of bishops, and so full of Christian devotion that Carlyle well said of his sudden death: "It must have been a glad surprise."

VÁMBÉRY'S ORIGIN OF THE MAGYARS.

Der Ursprung der Magyaren. Eine ethnologische Studie. Von Hermann Vámbéry. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 1882.

IN a late review of 'Die Ungern oder Magyaren,' by Paul Hunfalvy (*Nation*, No. 889), we pointed out what decision as to the origins of the Magyar nation has been, after a vast and varied amount of speculation on the subject, "generally accepted as conclusive." The Magyars are deemed a branch of the Finno-Ugric family of the Uralo-Altaic, or Turanian, division of mankind; their nearest ethnic kindred are the Voguls, Ugrians, Ostyaks, etc., of the Ugric subdivision of the family, rude peoples dwelling on or near the Volga; and the original home of their nationality, formerly sought among the lofty ranges of the Caucasus, Altai, or Himalaya, is believed to have been discovered in the low wilds between the Ob and Irtish, in western Siberia. The general acceptance of this solution of an almost romantic mystery is due mainly

to the labors of Professor Hunfalvy and his coworker at the University of Pesth, Joseph Budenz, linguistic followers of the traveller Reguly. Among the few scholars who still demur to this decision is Professor Vámbéry, of the same university, who, after acquiring, some twenty years ago, a world-wide fame as the first European who travelled extensively in Turkestan, has worked hard to maintain himself as the foremost authority on Central-Asian matters by a series of linguistic, ethnographic, and political writings evincing equal diligence and ambition. His philological works embrace 'Studies on the Tchagatai Language,' 'Linguistic Monuments of the Uigurs,' 'Hungarian-Turkic Word Parallels,' 'Etymological Dictionary of the Turco-Tataric Languages,' and the book before us—all of which have been issued, in German, by the publishing house of Brockhaus in Leipzig. As author and journalist an adversary of Russian expansion in Central Asia, and a loud defender of British-Indian interests in the still neutral zones, he has been assailed and represented as a fraud by Russian travellers and scholars, and by his (if we are allowed so to say) philo-Turco-Tataric etymological studies on the Magyar language he has also incurred the wrath of the upholders of the Finno-Ugric theory, and chiefly of Budenz. Against his Russian assailants he is strongly sustained by English and German predilections, and for his philological notions he himself fights gallantly with an untiring pen.

Professor Vámbéry does not contend against the presumed relationship, grammatical and lexicographical, between the Magyar and the Finno-Ugric idioms. To do this would be shutting one's eyes to what is as clear as daylight. However strange it may appear to represent the nearest neighbors of the Lapps and Samoyeds as speaking languages of all in the world most closely akin in structure to the vernacular of Kossuth and Deák, the living evidences for the fact are there, and cannot be shaken. Numerals are universally—and very naturally so, for their meaning admits of no nuances—deemed excellent tests of linguistic kinship. Now, let our readers compare the following table of cardinal numbers in Aryan, Semitic, Turkic, and Finnic idioms, compared with Magyar, and judge for himself concerning the family to which the dominant language of Hungary must be assigned :

English.	*Hebrew.*	*Osmanli.*	*Vogul.*	*Magyar.*
One	e'hād	bir	āk	egy
Two	sh'nayim	iki	kit	két
Three	sh'lōshāh	utch	korm	három
Four	arbā'āh	dört	nelyä	négy
Five	'hamishshāh	besh	ät	öt
Six	shishshāh	alti	kat	hat
Seven	shib'āh	yedi	sat	hét
Eight	sh'mōnāh	sekiz	n'alalu	nyolcz
Nine	tish'āh	dokuz	antellu	kilencz
Ten	'āsārāh	on	lau	tíz
Twenty	'esrīm	igirmi	kus	húsz
Thirty	sh'lōshīm	otuz	vat	harmincz
Forty	arbā'īm	kirk	nelimen	negyven
Fifty	'hamishshīm	elli	ātpen	ötven
Hundred	mēāh	yüz	sat	száz

A comparison of the commonest words leads to the same conclusion :

English.	*Hebrew.*	*Osmanli.*	*Vogul.*	*Magyar.*
Head	rōsh	bash	pong	fej
Eye	'ayin	göz	sem	szem
Ear	ozen	kulak	päl	fül
Mouth	peh	agiz	sop	száj
Tooth	shēn	dish	ponk	fog
Tongue	lāshōn	dil	n'elm	nyelv
Throat	gārōn	bogaz	tur	torok
Hand	yād	el	kat	kéz
Blood	dām	kan	ver	vér
Heart	lēb	yürek	sim	szív
Water	mayim	su	vit	víz
Fire	ēsh	atesh	tut	tüz
Stone	eben	tash	kav	kö
Grass	'ēszeb	ot	pum	fü
Horse	sūs	at	lu	ló

English.	*Hebrew.*	*Osmanli.*	*Vogul.*	*Magyar.*
Dog	keleb	köpek	amp	eb
Fish	dāg	balyk	kul	hal
Father	āb	ata	azhe	atya
Mother	ēm	ana	angve	anya
Woman	ishshāh	kary	ne	nö
Child	yeled	tchodjuk	kär-kve	gyerek
Son	bēn	ogul	pi	fi
Daughter	bath	kyz	ay	leány

What Vámbéry objects to is the conclusion that, because the Hungarian language is structurally Finno-Ugric, the Hungarian people must be of Finno-Ugric descent. Such a conclusion in itself would indeed be fallacious. Some millions of Irish in America, all speaking English, and only English, would not prove the Anglo-Saxon descent of the Irish nation. The Celts of Gaul adopted the language of their Roman conquerors, and the Germanic Franks who wrested Gaul from the latter exchanged their own idiom for the Gallo-Romanic. The Normans did the same after them. Italy, Spain, Rumania present analogous phenomena. Besides, Vámbéry contends, the Magyar tongue is far from being purely or predominantly Finno-Ugric. Its Turco-Tataric elements—comprising words related to the Osmanli, Uigur, Tchagatai, Turkomannish, Tchuvash, etc.—he finds to be much weightier than those common to it and such idioms as the Vogul, Ostyak, or Finnish. Hunfalvy himself acknowledges that the Magyars adopted from their southern Turkic (or Turco-Tataric) neighbors a large number of words, including names of animals, articles of husbandry, implements, ornaments, and similar objects—such as the words for lion, camel, monkey, ox, calf, steer, buck, ram, swine, hen, apple, wheat, barley, pea, cradle, hemp, gate, hatchet, club, quiver, kettle, brush, ring, thimble, pearl. Most of these words came to them, he believes, together with the objects, which were unknown in the rude northern home in which they abode with their Finno-Ugric kindred. Vámbéry adds a vast multitude of other terms derived, as he asserts, from Turkic roots.

He also, in long dissertations, passes over the whole field of discussion concerning the nomadic or semi-nomadic nations, non-Slavic and non-Germanic, which, like the Magyars, and mostly before them, roamed over the vast plains between the Jaxartes and the Danube, carried terror and devastation among many peoples, and, unlike the Magyars, more or less completely disappeared. After examining their ethnic characters, as described by the ancients, the Byzantines, and the Arabs, and all the indications as to their languages, he finds it highly probable that all of them, with hardly an exception—Scyths, Huns, Avars, ancient Bulgarians, Khazars, Cumans—were, in the main at least, of Turco-Tataric race. This sweeping conclusion clashes with the opinion of the greatest authorities, and especially with Hunfalvy's, who, with more or less positiveness, upholds the Ugric descent of the Huns, Avars, and Bulgarians, and leans toward the opposite view only in regard to the Khazars and Cumans. In the Magyars Vámbéry sees a people of mixed race, in which the Turkic element decidedly predominates over the Ugric, and in their language an idiom equally leaning toward both linguistic groups. English might be compared as such a nondescript among languages ; but the comparison—if Vámbéry were right—would be lame, for, mixed as English is, it yet is and must be classed among the Germanic tongues, and it would be so classed even if the French element in it were much stronger than it is. But in fact the equal leaning of the Magyar vanishes on close examination, and that language appears as distinctly Ugric as English is Germanic, the Turkic element being an absorbed one, as the French is in English, and comparatively much less weighty. It is, perhaps, not weightier than the Celtic element is in English, while the equally absorbed Slavic element more properly holds the relation to the absorbing Magyar which the French holds to the Anglo-Saxon.

Professor Vámbéry considerably weakens his argument by extending it so widely. If the Magyars were an essentially Turkic people, and all the nations among and with whom they moved through many centuries on their wanderings from beyond the Ural to the Carpathians—including the powerful Huns, Avars, and Khazars—were also Turkic, where is there a reason discoverable for their adopting, in large part at least, a foreign Ugric tongue ? The Celt adopted the language of his oppressors ; the Frank the language of the people whom he conquered, and in whom he was merged ; the conquered Anglo-Saxon and the conquering Norman blended their native idioms ; the Magyars, according to Vámbéry, were never merged in a more numerous, though feebler, Ugric population, nor ever ruled by a stronger. And if, for any reason entirely hidden from us, they exchanged a portion of their vernacular for a stock of foreign words, how did it happen that they gave away the commonest and oldest expressions, numerals and the like, for terms which did not in the least expand or modify their conceptions ? The opposite theory is all clear : the Magyars were a people of the Ugric North, not of the Central-Asian and Southeast-European Turkic belt ; they moved southward, and dwelt or migrated between Ugric and Turkic nations, powerful and weak, by turns fighting and intermingling with them ; they preserved their original northern language, but adopted many terms, chiefly for things new to them, from their southern neighbors or fellow-nomads ; they assimilated the Turkic words to their own vernacular, as they subsequently assimilated the Slavic. That Byzantine writers of the tenth century called the Magyars Turks as well as Huns and Mazars, is certainly a disturbing point, but the ethnography of the Byzantines of that age was based on such slender knowledge that we can easily conceive of their confounding with each other two branches of the Uralo-Altaic division of nations.

Professor Vámbéry further spoils his argument, or at least arouses suspicion as to its general substantiality, by the levity with which he advances his views and proofs. There is no end of assertions unsupported by authority or reference, of begging of the question, of bombastic sententious talk ; and, while the author's vast acquaintance with Central-Asian things and conditions is unmistakable, there is no evidence whatever of profound and conscientious study and research, or of habits of accuracy and regard for critical opinion. The Turco-Tataric linguistic field is so extensive, and as yet so poorly cultivated in most of its parts, that doubt naturally attaches to every point not clearly established by competent students. Vámbéry presents himself as an authority in the least-known portions of the study, but rudely shakes our confidence in the correctness of his knowledge by constant exhibitions of inaccuracy. We are required to rely on his statements as to the sounds or meanings of verbal roots in Tchagatai, Uigur, or Tchuvash, and on his amended readings of names in Byzantine and Arabic writers, while he shows himself so little mindful of precision in his reading or writing that what he calls Bokolaor on page 30 becomes Bocolabra on page 42, and what is Mundzukh on page 34 is Mundjuk on page 35, Munjukh on page 36, and Mundzuk on page 46 ; that he almost throughout this book changes Tchagataic into Tchagatic, repeatedly misquoting the title of his own work on that language ; that he writes the name of a great Slavic scholar of our century in

three different forms: Schaffarik, Safařik, and Šafařik—the last of which alone is quite correct; that he speaks (p. 4) of "the father of history" as a writer whose work was not composed before the third century B. C.; that, in quoting from Jordanis, "eas partes Scythiæ . . . quas Dunapri fluenta prætermeant, quæ lingua sua Hunnivar appellant," he refers "quæ," in opposition to Hunfalvy, not to the corresponding neuter "fluenta," but to the feminine "partes," forgetting his Latin grammar and overlooking the "quas" before him.

All these may be slips which do not directly invalidate our author's historical or etymological speculations. But we can less easily pardon evidences of critical levity like the following: In his effort to identify Hun, Avar, Bulgarian, or Magyar proper names with Turco-Tataric words, he explains names of persons as signifying sand, frost, repast; renders names of towns by *fleshy, priesthood;* and names of families by *surprised, reply, advice.* On page 169 he sneeringly remarks: "Herrn K. Szabó dürfte es unbekannt sein, dass das ungarische karvaly, karvaj mit dem türkischen karga, kargaj = Rabe identisch ist," and on page 572 the same *karvaly* is quietly and correctly identified with *karkara*, and *Sperber* and *varju* with *karga* and *Rabe*—which stands for *Krähe;* while *Krähe*, immediately following as the German equivalent of Hun. *holló*, stands for *Rabe.* On the following page *Flachs* stands for *Hanf*, as the equivalent of *kender*, hemp. On page 167 the mediæval chronicler Kézai is quoted as rendering the German bird name "Jegerfalc" (*Jägerfalke*, gerfalcon) by the Hungarian word *kerechet.* Vámbéry adds: "In der Sprache der heutigen Magyaren ist ein Vogel mit solchem Namen unbekannt," and immediately proceeds to identify the proper name Kerechet with the Tataric *kartchia*, falcon; and yet, at the very place in the Hungarian dictionary where he ought to have looked for *kerechet*, in its modern spelling *kerecset*, he would have found *kerecsen, kerecseny*, with the very meaning of falcon, gerfalcon, as Kézai has it—a word far from unknown "in der Sprache der heutigen Magyaren."

Some Impressions of the United States. By Edward A. Freeman, D.C.L., LL.D. Henry Holt & Co. 1883.

We doubt if there is any more entertaining reading for an educated American of the present day than some of the early work of English travellers in the United States, which on its first publication so exasperated the whole country. It is quite impossible to be exasperated any longer by Mrs. Trollope or Captain Basil Hall ("Captain 'All" we find him contemporaneously designated by a discerning American critic), or even Dickens's "American Notes"; for the America of these observers has become to us nowadays a foreign country. That the United States has greatly changed is a commonplace; and perhaps a foreigner could get no better idea of the change than by comparing such impressions as those of Mr. Freeman with the pages of the early English travellers. Most of them, it must be confessed, now that the bitterness of the rage their criticism excited has died out, told the truth about the country as they saw it. They did, no doubt, enjoy finding that the civilization of America at that time was not such as to justify our boast that that of England was at all points inferior to it; but then we must remember that every English writer of that time wrote under the influence of a belief that the happiness, progress, and comfort of the subject were a sort of product of the form of government under which he lived; that it was British constitutional monarchy that produced all good British institutions and customs and mental and moral excellences—just as any American writer of the period insisted on attributing everything good in this country to democracy. There was really a great deal more to be said for the theory in England than in the United States, because up to that period the development of English civilization had been the concomitant if not the effect of a development of the government of the country by a small, but very conspicuous, fraction of its population, which seemed to supply all the social impetus. In this country, on the other hand, our form of government, so far as it was novel, had been consciously adopted, and was democratic simply because the whole framework of society was democratic. Nevertheless, we insisted on adopting the old English view of the subject expounded with such elaborate patriotism by Blackstone, and pointed with pride to the perfection of the civilization produced by democracy, just as he had expatiated on the magnificent work turned out by the British constitution. The truth was, that neither civilization was perfect, and an American of our day would not have liked the America of fifty years ago any better than Mrs. Trollope did.

Mr. Freeman represents a very different generation of English observers, and his book, which is an amplification of some magazine articles published shortly after his visit here, is a very fair specimen of its class. As the country has changed completely, so has the observer. No two critics could be more unlike than Mr. Freeman and Mrs. Trollope. Mrs. Trollope set out with a determination to be fair, but we know by the tone with which she does it that we shall shortly hear some unwelcome truths. Mr. Freeman throughout betrays a nervous dread that by some possibility he may wound our feelings, which is almost painful. He was not eager to write about America at all, he explains in his preface. On the contrary, he rather shrank from it, for he had only been in the country a few months; in fact, he would not have done it at all had it not been that it was "laid upon him" as a duty—how or through what stress of circumstances he does not clearly explain.

His account of the United States, when we come to examine it, is not such as any American could find much fault with. But his desire to be fair has led him to be so cautious that it is really often very difficult to get from his book a distinct idea of what his impressions are. He has a great deal to say about the linguistic differences between the two countries, most of which is rather trite, and something about corruption, and city life, and the newspapers, and interviewing, and most of the common topics which now attract every traveller's attention; but we constantly feel how much salt would be added to what he says by a little of the old Trollope spirit. For instance, he tells a really very curious anecdote, going to show something which neither Ruskin nor any other writer on architecture has ever pointed out—that the peculiarities of style and the magnitude of our public buildings are sometimes accounted for popularly, not by any architectural explanation, but by a suggestion of some species of fraud in the building contract. We can imagine what delight such an idea would have given Mrs. Trollope—how she would have dwelt on it, and drawn the proper lesson for her readers from it. But Mr. Freeman is evidently handicapped throughout his book by the feeling that he was not in the country long enough to deal properly with such delicate subjects, and yet he has, we know, a native vigor of expression and command of the "British" language, as he would prefer to have it called, that would have made a hostile book about America by him delightful reading.

He is also, to a certain extent, the victim of a theory which he was anxious to verify by observation—that of the essential unity of the English nation on both sides of the water. His book is in part a labored attempt to show that we are more English than we are anything else; in other words, he is really more interested in finding points of resemblance between life in the United States and life in England than points of dissimilarity. There is something novel about this; indeed, Mr. Freeman is a pioneer in the field, but it must be confessed that it is a very misleading kind of criticism. It is only by seeing how our life differs from English life that we get any clear idea about ourselves. The unity of race and language is what makes the divergence so interesting, and what gave the old English observer his great opportunity. Mr. Freeman has gone to the other extreme, and endeavored to point out how wonderfully alike the two branches of the race are. He is for ever telling us how remarkably little difference there is between American law, and religion, and language, and customs, and institutions, and the corresponding things in England. He finds likeness in unlikeness everywhere. If Mr. Freeman is to be taken as the type of the English observer of the future, it is obvious that almost all our ideas about this class of writers will have to be not modified, but reversed.

In the Shadow of the Pyrenees. From Basque-Land to Carcassonne. By Marvin R. Vincent, D.D. With etchings and maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

At a time when bulky works of travel, full of pedantic descriptions of commonplace objects and trivial occurrences, or tiresome with exhaustive repetitions of things a hundred times told, glut the literary market, it is refreshing to stumble upon a little book like the one before us. Its subject—the Basque-Land and the approaches to it on the French side, including Bayonne, Biarritz, Lourdes, and Carcassonne—is far from hackneyed.

Dr. Vincent lingered in the shadow of the lofty international range not only as "one who loves to surrender himself leisurely, day after day, to the charm of nature," as "one who is in search of a quiet nook where the summer may melt away in a delicious climate, tempered by the salt breezes of Biscay and the bracing air of the Basses-Pyrénées," but as one who also has a keen eye for national peculiarities, and "loves to study the life and characteristics of a strongly-marked and noble race." He gives, perhaps, too many details of what fell under his notice—while walking, riding, or reading about his subject; but we readily pardon the minuteness of the reproduction on account of its vivid faithfulness. What he tells us, for instance, about the various Basque and Roman names of San Sebastian—Hizurum, Irurum, Donostiya, Easo—or about its jurisdiction in the twelfth century from Fuenterrabia to the river Oria, and from Pasages to Navarre, detracts somewhat from the symmetry of his narrative; but along with it are interesting remarks on the ferruginous rocks lining the road from Pasages to the capital of Guipúzcoa, the excellence of the native metal which rendered the Cantabrian arms so formidable to the Roman legions, and the iron industries of the Basque provinces, and the following descriptions of the appearance of San Sebastian and its beach:

"The road begins to descend. A fortress crowning a headland, and a high tower beyond, come into view. Then, in the valley beneath, a fine railway station and a *plaza de toros;* cultivated terraces sprinkled with houses and gar-

dens, rise from a beautiful semicircular bay; there is the silver line of a little river; a flash of white breakers flinging their spray at the castellated headland; a fine bridge spanning the river; and a compact, handsome town, crowded thickly under the landward side of the citadel and stretching round the semicircle of the bay. This is the capital of Guipuzcoa. . . ."

"Down on the beach . . . cluster the pavilions of *La Perla del Oceano*, the great sea-bathing establishment. The beautiful dun cattle slowly draw the gayly-painted bathing-machines into the surf; boats hover on the safety-line, which is marked by a row of flags, and mount guard over the host of bathers; while a remarkable barge, a combination of the Roman galley and the Chinese junk, gay with floating streamers, and furnished with trapezes and diving-platforms, presents attractions for more adventurous swimmers. The Madrilenes are here in troops. . . . Morning, noon, and evening, the white lines of foam are dotted thickly with black heads, reminding one of a preserve of seals or of sea-lions. . . ."

". . . Such deep sapphire along the horizon-line of the sea! Such translucent green of the billows, rallying from their first shock against Urgullo and Santa Clara, poised in curves of emerald for an instant ere they drop upon the sand, then climbing the sea-wall, and as they recede encountering the on-coming breaker in tossing whirls of foam and spray! Such undulations of purple, rolling silently landward when the wind goes down at sunset, and Chubillo stands out against the flames of the rosy west, and the light begins to twinkle on Santa Clara!"

Dr. Vincent describes the physical type of the Basque as fine, and often imposing, though his own observation does not confirm the current statements as to the beauty of the women. Everywhere, in the field as well as in the street, men are frequently encountered "whose truly grand faces would adorn an assembly of senators": the head large and round, the forehead full, the face oval, the complexion light but sunburned, the eyes black, the hair brown, the body muscular and well-proportioned, the bearing dignified. The author devotes many of his pages to the history, language, and peculiarities of this remarkable people, but has little sympathy for the stubbornness with which, after having kept itself out of the Roman world in antiquity, and out of feudal society in the Middle Ages, it now struggles to keep out of the modern world and hold itself aloof from the brotherhood of nations. He thinks its days as a distinct nationality are practically numbered. The common army, the common school, and the railroad do the work of assimilation on both sides of the Pyrenees. Emigration to South America, prompted by aversion to military service, diminishes the numbers of the Basques in France. Fifty or sixty thousand French Basques are settled on the borders of the Rio de la Plata.

On the subject of the Basque language Dr. Vincent, wisely enough, gives us no learned disquisitions. He only alludes to its apparent affinities to remote Oriental sources, and its having no likeness whatever to any of the dialects of southern Europe. It is deemed so difficult that, "according to the popular legend, the devil, who has a special interest in mastering as many tongues as possible, spent seven years in the study of Basque, and learned only three words," possibly including the two following, "which M. Garat cites as specimens of many others": *izarysaroyaenlurrearenbarena* and *azpilcuetagaraycosaroyarenberecollarea*. "As to pronunciation, it is sufficient to cite the Andalusian proverb, that the Basque writes 'Solomon' and pronounces it 'Nebuchadnezzar.'" Dr. Vincent expends much good-humor on the Basque flea, which, the first of fleas, "jumped upon the Cantabrian sands when the morning stars sang together," and has since, "like the Basque mountaineer, successfully resisted the enervating influences of modern civilization," and both humor and serious reflection on the mummeries of Lourdes, in their opposition to the same civilization; but he has only grim earnest for the bloody record of bigoted Toulouse. In speaking of the expulsion of the Jews from Spain (p. 4), he commits the error of assigning to it the date of 1495, instead of 1492. The compositor is obviously responsible for "1840," instead of 1849, as the date of the abdication of Charles Albert (p. 159), and possibly also for the constant use of "San Sébastian," which is neither Spanish, nor French, nor English. On the whole, however, the book is as remarkable for correctness as for neatness. Four interesting etchings—two by Smillie, and one each by Gifford and Yale—add to its attractiveness.

Games and Songs of American Children. Collected and Compared by William Wells Newell. Harper & Bros. 1883.

ALL remember the great surprise a few years ago at finding that there existed among us a rich mine of folk-lore, and one that had hitherto been almost entirely unworked. If "Uncle Remus" was a new revelation, there was some excuse for previous ignorance, for the freedmen were a peculiar and separate people. What shall be said, however, when it is shown that we have had in our very homes a more ample and, in many respects, a more interesting source of folk-lore? Had even those interested in such researches been asked in regard to the popular games and songs of American children, we fancy the answer would have been: Almost nothing popular has survived the incursions of the children's periodicals. That materials for a handsome volume of more than two hundred pages, containing one hundred and sixty separate numbers or articles, could still be collected, would have seemed incredible before the appearance of Mr. Newell's book. The editor says:

"The existence of any children's traditions in America, maintained independently of print, has hitherto been scarcely noticed. Yet it appears that, in this minor but curious branch of folk-lore, the vein in the United States is both richer and purer than that so far worked in Great Britain."

This assertion is borne out in the pages which follow. We remember, some years ago, that Professor Child, while making preparations for his masterly collection of ballads, thought that some which had disappeared in England might possibly have been brought to this country by emigrants, and he urged his friends and others interested to question their English and Irish domestics. We do not know that any valuable results were obtained, but Mr. Newell's experience shows that Professor Child's idea was not so fanciful as might have been supposed. Imagine, for example, a version of "Hugh of Lincoln and the Jew's Daughter," the subject of which is mentioned as far back as 1256, being gathered from the lips of the child of a squatter near the Central Park! The American child in the hands of the modern novelist is fast becoming a European bugbear; it is but fair to recognize that he has other and better uses.

It is difficult to find room for even a superficial idea of the contents of this novel and entertaining volume, the material of which, with the most praiseworthy industry, has been drawn from almost every one of the older States. The editor has limited the scope of his work to such games only as are "played with words or quaint formulas," with some exceptions "in favor of certain amusements which possess interest as folk-lore." These songs and games are divided into fifteen categories, with an admirable introductory chapter on the "Diffusion and Origin of American Game-Rhymes," etc., and an appendix containing a bibliography of collections of children's games and comparisons and references. In regard to this introduction and appendix, we may simply say that it is refreshing to find Mr. Newell accepting the latest results of investigations in this field, and accounting for the diffusion of popular songs and games on some other theory than that of "a primitive Aryan origin." The references to parallel customs in other countries are accurate and sufficient, and show—as does the whole work—the hand of a scholar who has an intelligent grasp of his subject. Professional folk-lorists may add to the list of resemblances or swell the catalogue of works cited; readers may supply from their own memories variants of many of the games; but Mr. Newell will always have the credit of first opening a path into a singularly attractive and neglected field of research.

It must not be supposed from what we have said that this work is interesting to the student alone, or primarily intended for him. Men, who are but children of a larger growth, will enjoy it for the memories it awakens and the scientific interest now attaching to popular literature, but the children will turn it to practical account in expanding their circle of amusements. Nowadays, when fairy-tales are made the medium of imparting scientific truth, and nursery rhymes are replaced by sentimental ditties, we welcome anything that represents and is calculated to nourish a simpler and more natural type of childhood. The contents of the volume are as varied as can be imagined, and will afford endless opportunity for comparison and completion. The music of the songs and the localities are given where possible. Several of the games, Nos. 75, 155, 160, are nothing but childish dramatizations of well-known fairy-tales. We have alluded before to the extraordinary survival in a most unlikely spot of a version of Hugh of Lincoln (No. 18, "Little Harry Hughes and the Duke's Daughter"). Another, No. 59, "Marching to Quebec," may, as the editor says, "be of Revolutionary origin, as it can be traced to near the beginning of the present century." The chapter devoted to formulas for counting out is one of the most curious in the book; every reader can perhaps supply some trifling variant. The names of the games, too, change with the locality—thus, No. 100, "Thimble in Sight," is known in some places as "Monkey in Sight." We have noticed but one misprint: Vernaleben, in the list of authorities, for Vernaleken, as it is afterward correctly given. The word *carol* is now admitted to be of Celtic, not of Latin, origin, as might be inferred from Mr. Newell's mention of the Middle Latin *choraula*, from *choreola*—neither of which, by the way, is to be found in Du Cange.

Glossary of Terms and Phrases. Edited by the Rev. H. Percy Smith, M.A., of Balliol College, Oxford. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 521.

THIS work is intended to meet the wants of the ordinary reader, by including words which are "among the more uncommon in current literature," and whose explanation must perhaps be sought "among a large and varied number of books, many of them not easily accessible." A cursory glance through the volume, however, will show that the "ordinary reader" is supposed not to have within his reach a common dictionary. Let us take at random the first column on page 153, which defines the following terms and phrases: Custard-apple, Customary freehold, *Custos morum*, Custos rotulorum, Cutch, Cutchery, *Cut his painter*, Cuticle, Cutis, Cut of the jib, Cutter, *Cuttle* (*Capt.*), Cuttle-fish, Cutty, Cutty-stool, Cuvette, Cyan-, Cyanogen, Cyanometer, Cyanotype, Cyathiform, Cyathus, Cybele. Now, comparing this list with an English dictionary, the 'Imperial,' the

italics indicate the only excuse for the 'Glossary,' since information in regard to all the other words and expressions is to be found in the 'Imperial.' This seems like very little pork for the shilling, as the homely saying goes; yet, though an extended comparison would doubtless be more to the advantage of the 'Glossary,' the above is not an unfair sample by way of general criticism.

No principle of inclusion being laid down, it is not worth while to hunt for evidence of consistency, or to guess why Captain Cuttle was taken in and Pecksniff and Pickwick left out, both the latter having furnished adjectives which are apparently a permanent possession of the language (pickwickian is recognized as such in the 'Imperial'). Gresham and Bampton lectures, Gretna Green, Thorney Island, Rois d'Yvetôt (*sic*), Romagna, Young England, we do not expect to find in a common dictionary; neither do we Palatinate, Jingo, and Chiltern Hundreds, though these are actually given in the 'Imperial' as well as in the 'Glossary,' and, what is more, the definitions are generally better and fuller in the former than in the latter. Take, for instance, Philistinism. The 'Glossary' says of it rather than defines it:

"A word used to describe the supposed lack of sweetness and light in inferiors by those who think themselves superior."

Such lexicography is on a par with Johnson's celebrated definition of oatmeal. The "ordinary reader" will not only miss the little dig at Matthew Arnold, but will be left wholly unenlightened as to the meaning of the term in question. On the other hand, the 'Imperial' defines a Philistine as

"a matter-of-fact, commonplace person, especially of the middle class, deficient in liberal culture and large intelligence, and so wanting in sentiment and taste, entirely imbued with utilitarianism; a person of narrow views; a man of 'parochial' intellect; a prosaic, practical man";

and adds illustrations from Mr. Arnold which complete the notion.

The entries and cross-references of the 'Glossary' are very imperfect. "Mutineers of the *Bounty*" we find, but no *Bounty;* "Cut the painter," as above, but the idiom is not noticed under Painter. A really large part of the work is obtained by introducing Latin phrases which are usually, in our dictionaries, placed together in an appendix. Finally, there are no woodcuts.

Recollections of Arthur Penrhyn Stanley, late Dean of Westminster. Three Lectures delivered in Edinburgh, in November, 1882. By George Granville Bradley, D.D., Dean of Westminster. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1883.

THIS volume owes its interest almost entirely to the subject treated. The excellent Dean who has succeeded to Stanley's place has little of his predecessor's grace and charm of composition. He is evidently well acquainted with Stanley's life and writings, and he has for both his character and his career a hearty admiration; but in the art of putting things he is not skilled. His style is clumsy and diffuse, and withal exclamatory. He seems in constant fear lest he shall seem to do something less than justice to his friend. We could have spared his excessive anxiety—excessive it surely must have been—to convince his Scottish audience of Stanley's appreciation of all Scottish things. But worse than this—as bad as possible—is his self-congratulation on his succession to the Westminster Deanery, at the close of his first lecture.

The work, though having these defects, is nevertheless extremely interesting. The original lectures have been made over into three chapters, somewhat expanded, and made consecutive in their treatment, as the original lectures were not. The first lecture takes us from Stanley's birth to the conclusion of his undergraduate days at Oxford in 1840, when he was twenty-five years old. Nothing is better than the account of Stanley's father, Bishop of Norwich, who lived again in many of his son's most noble traits. The Rugby period is also interesting. The question is raised whether the Arnold of Stanley's Memoir was the real Arnold. Dean Bradley answers in the affirmative. The influence of Arnold upon Stanley is another matter of debate. The second chapter treats of Stanley's travels in Greece, then of his Oxford tutoring and lecturing, then of his Canterbury canonship, and finally of his return to Oxford to assume the lectureship from which came the now famous lectures on the Eastern and the Jewish Church. His first and second journeys in Palestine were in this period—1840 to 1863. As a traveller he seems to have cared little for scenery, however beautiful, which had no human interest. The third chapter covers his London life as Dean of Westminster. The section of this chapter which treats of his controversial experience is particularly good, and reaches its point of highest interest in his defence of Bishop Colenso, when, amid a storm of hisses and opposing clamor from "the venerable Society for the Propagation of the Gospel," he recounted the good deeds of Colenso, and concluded: "For these deeds he will be remembered when you who censure him are dead and buried and forgotten."

We are given to understand that a full biography of Dean Stanley is in course of preparation. With all respect for Dean Bradley, we hope it has fallen to another—to one as well fitted for the task as Stanley was for writing the biography of his friend and teacher, Thomas Arnold.

Henry Ward Beecher: A Sketch of his Career. Edited by Lyman Abbott, D.D. Funk & Wagnalls. 1883.

WE have here a remarkable piece of bookmaking. The most cheerful passage it contains is that in the preface, which assures us that "Mr. Beecher had no knowledge of this book until the arrangements for its publication were completed," and that "he has not seen a word of it." The saying of Dr. Johnson is naturally recalled, that if he knew that any one was going to write his life, he would prevent it by taking that of the would-be biographer. But in Mr. Beecher's case prevention is impossible. The thing is done, and done in such a way that the sympathies of all good men would be with him if he should now make sanguinary reprisals on Messrs. Abbott and Halliday, the perpetrators of this atrocious outrage on his natural modesty and sense of general unworthiness. Dr. Abbott is naturally anxious to credit Mr. Halliday with the major part of the performance. Mr. Halliday is the "Pastoral Helper of Plymouth Church." He it was who conceived the idea of writing to twenty-nine different persons (mostly clergymen), and getting them to write out for him their opinions of Mr. Beecher's character and genius. Some of these opinions are discriminating; the most of them are merely laudatory. They come from various sects—Dr. A. P. Putnam, of Brooklyn, by the way, figures as Dr. E. P. Putnam both in the table of contents and in the body of the book. Following these opinions are certain magazine and other articles. There are real laurels here, unfading, irreversible; for example, the *Atlantic* article of Dr. Holmes on Mr. Beecher's visit to England during the Civil War. The address of Dr. R. S. Storrs at Mr. Beecher's "Silver Wedding"—Plymouth Church the wife—is reserved for the climax. This has an air of wanton cruelty.

Dr. Abbott's chapters, hastily thrown together, treat of Mr. Beecher's childhood and youth, his preaching, his methods of study, his journalism, his lectures, and so on. They contain much that Mr. Beecher's numberless admirers will be glad to read. Mr. Halliday's "Reminiscences" are neither interesting nor impressive. That so little worth remembering has stuck to him is most astonishing. A true Boswell's little finger would have gathered more. A Third Part contains some of Mr. Beecher's most characteristic utterances, among them his famous London speech, and that on evolution, recently delivered. The book contains many illustrations, the majority of which are counterfeit presentments of Mr. Beecher. He has been much photographed. His pictures on one page at twenty-three, thirty, forty, fifty, and sixty-five are an interesting example of development. He will be seventy years old on the 24th of the present month, and this volume is a shadow which that coming event has cast before it.

Fables, by Mr. John Gay. With a Memoir by Austin Dobson. [Parchment Library.] D. Appleton & Co.

THE immediate and long vogue of Gay's Fables doubtless entitles them to a place in the indefinite body known as "English classics," and so to a reprint in the Parchment Library. It must, however, be a very gentle reader nowadays who (assuming him to be an adult) can feel toward them otherwise than did Thackeray when he wrote, in his 'English Humorists,' "I have not, I own, been able to peruse [them] since a period of very early youth." They are, in fact, at the present time fit reading for children if for anybody—a fate measurably shared in practice by those contemporaneous perennial works, 'Robinson Crusoe' and 'Gulliver's Travels.' Mr. Dobson, making the most of them as in duty bound, says "they have enriched the language with more than one indispensable quotation, . . . still part of the current coin of conversation." He might have gone further, and said that other lines could be named which deserved to circulate with the stamp of popular, or at least literary, approval. Nevertheless, in the total, these are too few to redeem the general flatness and commonplaceness of the versification, and remind us of the gems in equally unenjoyable and prosaic poems which Wordsworth could be guilty of in his lucid intervals.

This volume, therefore, differs from its predecessors in this pretty series in possessing an historic and bibliographic rather than an intrinsic interest. The editor tells the story of Gay's life in an agreeable way, with little or no pretence to originality, and gives a brief account of the principal editions. He singles out that of 1779 as the one "which contained some of the earliest woodcuts of Thomas Bewick"—indeed, which first brought him into notice. That of 1772 is also worth remarking. Whether or not it was the last before the 1779 edition, it was profusely adorned with copperplate engravings, which were then on the eve of extinction as a popular mode of illustrating books. Moreover, the plate representing the Hound and the Huntsman—the subject of Bewick's prize cut in 1779—is clearly the original of the cut No. 86 in Hugo's folio collection, though this was certainly never produced by Bewick's graver, being a mere copy upon wood in copperplate style.

Mr. Dobson has let some faulty punctuation pass which mars the typography of this volume. On the other hand, he has had etched for it a taking likeness of Gay from an oil sketch by Sir Godfrey Kneller, never before engraved. Print-

ed in a reddish brown ink, it makes a charming frontispiece.

Italian Rambles: Studies of Life and Manners in New and Old Italy. By James Jackson Jarves. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1 vol. 8vo.

MOST of the papers contained in this volume have appeared in journals and periodicals, and attracted attention at the time by their charming description of localities outside of those usually visited by travellers, and by their portraiture of the manners and customs of the Tuscan peasants and mountaineers. The long residence of Mr. Jarves in Florence, his artistic taste, his summer wanderings on Apennine heights for health and pure air, afforded him many opportunities of observation; and in his first chapters on "Pescaglia," "Serra," "The Mountaineers of Tuscany," he gives us interesting and graphic sketches of this aspect of Italian life. It may astonish and puzzle the philologists to learn that those rude and unlettered mountaineers speak a purer language than all other Italians—Florentines and Tuscans of the plains included.

To the above are added chapters on the "Ancient and Modern Glass of Murano," "Ghiberti's Gates of Paradise," "The Pursuit of Bric-à-Brac," "Two Busts in Terra Cotta," supposed to be Michel Angelo and Vittoria Colonna, written with Mr. Jarves's well-known artistic insight. One of the most characteristic chapters is entitled "Venice in the Summer Time." We mention this in particular, because Venice has been so universally described that we are very much inclined to be prejudiced when the name appears in a sketch-book. Who has not written about Venice? And what more, or new, can be said about it? Yet Mr. Jarves has given us a picture of Venetian life seldom alluded to—that is to say, when the city is "completely amphibious," not only as to her streets and houses, but as to her entire population—men, women, and children; with the addition of a very appreciative account of the series of ancient mosaics in the *atrium* (or entrance hall) of St. Mark, frequently overlooked by art students. The book is well printed, and will make delightful and instructive summer reading.

Early English Literature (to Wiclif). By Bernhard Ten Brink. Translated by Horace M. Kennedy. Henry Holt & Co. 1883. Pp. xv.-394.

SEVERAL years ago, when Ten Brink's work appeared, we commented at length upon its rare merit, and recommended it unqualifiedly to our readers (see *Nation* No. 667, April 11, 1878). Since then the book has found its way among many teachers and professors, and has been of inestimable service to them. But the lack of a translation has hindered the author from gaining that hold upon the ordinary reading public to which his sound scholarship entitled him. This want is at last supplied by the work before us. The translator, Professor Kennedy, was a pupil of Ten Brink's at Strassburg, and has prepared his translation under the author's direct and constant supervision. This fact alone is a sufficient guarantee of accurate workmanship. In some respects, indeed, the translation is even superior to the original. The author has modified here and there his views, in accordance with the criticisms and suggestions of his German reviewers. Thus, by comparing p. 66 of the translation with p. 84 of the original, we see that Ten Brink has abandoned his interpretation of the passage from Cockayne's 'Leechdoms,' in consequence of Zupitza's corrections in the *Anglia*, i. 189. Again, at p. 253, the translation explains the word *Novelle*, which the original uses as a matter of course. We call attention to such minutiæ as evidences of the extreme care that has been taken with the translation. Besides, we get in the Appendix twenty-four pages of entirely new matter, in which the author epitomizes—with his wonted clearness and impartiality—the literature that has sprung up in the last five or six years around certain points of controversy, notably the Cædmon Genesis, and Cynewulf. In fine, with such a translation before him, the mere English reader will no longer have any excuse for ignorance or error concerning the nature and growth of English literature anterior to Wiclif. We can only express the hope that the book will now be introduced in our colleges and academies, superseding there all the so-called "Manuals" and "Introductions" under which so many generations of pupils have groaned in vain.

In the main the translator has produced a very readable version. But occasionally he shows that his English is not quite adequate to the German. Thus we cannot admit that *erschöpfende Sammlung* and *zusammenhängende Erklärung* are fully rendered by "thorough collection" and "consecutive explanation." Such a sentence as this (p. 125) is at least awkward: "Anglo-Norman England remained somewhat alien to this entire epic development, as it culminated in France after the close of the eleventh century—or rather it shared it but receptively." In general the translator would have done better, we judge, by giving less heed to German phrase-structure. The translations from Anglo-Saxon poetry are sometimes in verse, sometimes in prose, according as Ten Brink has given them. For the sake of uniformity, we could have wished them all in the same shape. And in one respect we regret extremely that the translator has not seen fit to supplement the author. The chief, in fact the only, serious defect in Ten Brink's work is the meagreness of its references, especially in the Anglo-Saxon part. Had the translator and the author, in coöperation, made the references as complete as those given by Schipper in his 'History of English Metres' (see *Nation* No. 902), they would have greatly enhanced the practical usefulness of the work without materially increasing its size. But for the book as it stands we cannot be too thankful. Both translator and publisher are to be congratulated upon their enterprise, for which we wish them a more substantial reward than mere thanks.

A Chronological History of the Origin and Development of Steam Navigation. By George Henry Preble, Rear-Admiral United States Navy. Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co. 1883. 8vo, pp. 483.

THIS volume is precisely what it purports to be—a chronological statement of the origin and development of the art of navigation by steam up to the date of its publication. Its author has been collecting his material during the past twenty-five years, and has printed many of his notes in the *United Service* during the years 1881 and 1882. These notes have been revised and carefully arranged in chronological order, for publication in this book, which sustains the claim of its author, that it contains more facts relating to the progress of steam navigation than have ever before been collected in any one volume. While no attempt is made to record all the improvements of detail in the construction of the steam engine, which would demand several volumes like that here presented, the author has gathered together an enormous mass of valuable and intensely interesting material, upon which the historian can draw in the construction of a more formal account of the growth of the steam engine. This service is especially to be commended, because it exhibits the extraordinarily large share taken by Americans in the creation of the modern steamboat.

A very full description of the inventions of the earliest known engineers, such as those of the Marquis of Worcester, of Papin, of Captain Savery, Hulls, Périer, and the Marquis de Jouffroy, is given in the earlier chapters; and, following these, the most extended account of the earliest American inventors—Bushnell, who introduced the screw, Fitch, Evans, Read, and especially of John Stevens and Robert Fulton—that we have met with. The accounts of the early steamboats are apparently complete and are, in many cases, exceedingly interesting. The growth of the great transatlantic lines of steam-transportation is exhibited in a very thorough manner, some fifty pages being given to the subject; and the application of the steam engine to purposes of war is here, for the first time, so far as we are aware, adequately treated. No pretence is made to offer to the reader a finished history of the application of the steam engine to marine purposes. This work is a scrap-book in the best sense of the term. It contains much that is not usually considered as permanently valuable, but also a vastly greater quantity of really important historical matter, some of which would certainly have been lost if it had not been thus put in permanent form. It is brought up to date by descriptions of the existing domestic and foreign lines of steam vessels, and includes the dimensions and performance of some of the very latest vessels, as the *Servia* and the *Alaska*.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barrows, Rev. S. J. The Doom of the Majority of Mankind. Boston: American Unitarian Association.
Bonalde, J. A. P. El Poema del Niagara. New York.
Campbell, L. The Theætetus of Plato, with a Revised Text and English Notes. Second edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
Dreams. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

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Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1882, to 31st December, 1882.....		$4,390,305 90
Losses paid during the same period.....	$2,013,767 35	
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The Nation.

NEW YORK THURSDAY, JUNE 14, 1883.

The Week.

In August of last year, Congress passed a law to reduce the navy, by the simple process of discharging a certain number of cadets on the termination of their six years' course at the Naval Academy, with one year's pay. A legal question has arisen as to whether the act applies to cadet engineers, or only to midshipmen. The cadet engineers threatened with discharge, for no fault of theirs, not unnaturally took the matter into the Court of Claims, and obtained a decision from the Court of Claims to the effect that the law did not apply to them at all. On the strength of this decision they appealed to Mr. William E. Chandler, as Secretary of the Navy, to recognize the decision as binding. This he declined to do, on a variety of grounds, the only important one being that the case was to be taken to the Supreme Court, and therefore could not be regarded as decided until that tribunal had passed upon it, declaring at the same time that he thought the decision of the court all wrong. He wound up his letter with a very remarkable moral lecture, advising the young men to pause in their mad attempt to enforce their rights, before it was too late. Apprehending, however, that the Supreme Court might affirm the decision of the Court of Claims, and determined to put the Department in an impregnable position, he laid down in the course of his letter the following proposition:

> "There is also high authority for the position that neither the executive nor legislative branch of the Government is required to accept as guides for its action the legal opinion of even the Supreme Court. They must submit to the enforcement of any final judgment of such court where the power of enforcement exists in the particular lawsuit decided. Beyond this, every officer and every citizen should continue to act upon any clear convictions of law which he may honestly entertain."

When we read this we supposed that the "high authority" referred to must be General Andrew Jackson, in the course of whose checkered career high authority may be found for almost any proposition on almost any subject; but it seems not, for Mr. Chandler explained last week to the correspondent of the *Herald* exactly what he meant. He referred, it seems, first to "the Dred Scott decision"; second, to a speech made in the Senate by Judge Drake; but third, and chiefly, "to the decision declaring the Legal-Tender Act unconstitutional, when people went so far as to say that to reverse that decision the number of justices had to be increased and the court packed to secure a reversal of that opinion." Explaining this, he added: "Everybody knows" that "neither Congress nor the Executive heeded for a moment" the original opinion of the Supreme Court in the legal-tender cases. In other words, when the Supreme Court goes wrong it should be disregarded; when it goes badly wrong it should be packed. This letter and interview show how little high official position changes a statesman's real nature. The Hon. W. E. Chandler who gravely writes down and utters these novel constitutional ideas, is clearly no other than our old friend "Bill Chandler," who always talked in this way, and is evidently too old to change merely because he has charge of the navy. We ought to add, perhaps, that Judge Drake, to whose constitutional views in the Senate, whatever they may have been, he attaches so much importance, is the Judge Drake whose opinion as Judge of the Court of Claims he considers as a matter of no consequence. Finally, he is a lawyer.

Advices from the West during the last week show considerable improvement in the general mercantile and industrial situation. In the jobbing and dry-goods trades there has been an increase of sales of summer goods. The crop prospects continue to improve, especially for corn and for the spring-wheat crop of the Northwest. The iron trade is still very much depressed, and the present low prices compel many furnaces to suspend operations. Still, it is believed that prices have certainly touched bottom, and any change from the present must necessarily be in the line of improvement. The net result of the dissatisfaction of the operatives, and the threat of striking, is that the production of iron has been reduced, and this may soon allow the consumption to overtake the production and cause an advance in prices. The rates for money in New York have been tending downward, owing to the usual concentration of money here at this season of the year. The last weekly statement of the New York banks, however, showed an expansion of $3,560,800 in their loans, which was undoubtedly taken for speculative purposes. This has been followed by a gradual upward movement in prices of railway stocks, the advance during the week being from 2 to 5 per cent., due mainly to the operations of local speculators, as is shown by the fact that the regular commission houses dealing in stocks report but little increase of buying as yet from speculators outside of the city, and less is being done in either buying or selling of American securities for foreign account than for a long time. The rates of foreign exchange have, therefore, remained almost unaffected by any movement of securities. The exports of breadstuffs and cottons keep up in excess of the same time last year, and some bills of exchange are already being drawn for July against grain shipments to be made from the new crop. By next month, also, there will be similar forward drawing against shipments of cotton to be made in September. In view of these facts, there is no prospect of the export of specie from this country, as was apprehended a few weeks ago.

Mr. T. G. Shearman writes to the *Tribune*, about Dr. Cyrus Hamlin's unfortunate excursus into the tariff controversy, a letter in which he shows that the doctor apparently knows no more about the tariff in Turkey, where he lived for thirty-five years, than he knows about the Cobden Club. For he said that when he went to Turkey in 1838 there was a protective tariff under which many industries flourished till England introduced free trade in 1855. Mr. Shearman calls attention to the fact that this story conflicts with Prof. Ellis Thompson's assertion, which is perfectly correct, that the Turks have levied 3 per cent. on English goods for four hundred years, and, indeed, have never had a protective tariff or anything approaching to it. In fact, the good doctor has been wandering in fields which he knows nothing of, and is consequently constantly tempted into Oriental inaccuracy and hyperbole, which must injure him as a college president.

The Philadelphia *North American* some few weeks since attempted to bolster up the silly, but none the less favorite, argument of the protectionists, that the cause of free trade in the United States was subsidized and maintained by "British gold," by printing an ancient story, that the London *Times* in 1844—nearly forty years ago—contained a statement that over $2,000,000 had been (recently) subscribed in England to circulate free-trade tracts in foreign countries, and "that some of these tracts are to be printed in New York." Rejoicing that something positive in relation to this mysterious subject had at length been uncovered, we promptly called on the *North American* to dismiss all generalities of statement, and tell on just what day and in what issue of the London *Times* it found this remarkable item. We were anxious to hunt it up, and publish it for the discomfiture of those pestilent fellows in this country who must have had the handling of at least part of this money. But we are sorry to say that thus far the *North American* is dumb; and it begins to look very much as if this venerable organ of the Pennsylvania protectionists, thinking possibly that files of the London *Times*, accessible for ready reference, were not in every library, had ventured upon a little game of bluff. But we hasten to assure the editor of the *North American* that we have at command a complete file of the *Times*, and are only too willing to commence a search and verification, in the great cause of historical truth, if he will but help the investigation by stating a few particulars which he undoubtedly has ready. Shall we be under the necessity of calling again, or shall we conclude, and say, with the impudent Chicago *Tribune*, in commenting on this subject: "We predict that the editor of the *North American* will go to the grave with that secret locked in his breast"?

General Butler is receiving some consolation for the rebuff administered to him by Harvard. The Presidents of Williams and some other smaller colleges have invited him to their Commencements, and he is also going to attend that of Phillips Academy, at Exeter, in which he received his own education. He would have appeared officially at Harvard, and therefore his presence would have meant nothing in particular except the continuance of a

custom; but at Williams he will appear as an example to the young men specially selected for that purpose by the President, which suggests many curious and interesting reflections touching the relations of our educational institutions to elementary morality. Butler's chief contribution to political morality is his maintenance, in 1868, when he was advocating a repudiation of the national debt, that "the State had no conscience." We wonder if any professors of ethics have begun to teach this yet.

The chance of a war between France and China seems to have raised the question in France whether in such a war American privateers could be fitted out to prey upon French commerce. The Declaration of Paris, in 1856, to which France and the other great Powers of Europe are parties, abolishing privateering, is not binding on the United States. But this country has a treaty with France which has a good deal of bearing on the subject. Article XXI. of the treaty of 1778 provides that no "citizen, subject, or inhabitant" of the United States shall take out any commission or letter of marque from any country with which France may be at war; and that any one who does so "shall be punished as a pirate," or, in other words, shall be hung if he can be caught, the same treatment being probably applicable to all the crew. Besides this, our neutrality laws (U. S. R. S., Sec. 5281 et seq.) provide that any citizen of the United States who, within our territory, accepts a commission to serve against any country with which we are at peace, shall be deemed guilty of a "high misdemeanor," and may be punished by fine and imprisonment, and contains similar provisions with regard to fitting out vessels or military expeditions of any kind.

Señor Rodriguez, the Secretary of the late General Jerez, Minister for Nicaragua at Washington during the Blaine period, has been giving a curious account of the disquisitions which he says his chief had to listen to from Mr. Blaine, on the propriety of "reorganizing Central America as a single nation." General Jerez, he says, was highly in favor of the plan, and used to go to see Mr. Blaine about it, on Mr. Blaine's invitation, but at these conferences, strangely enough, Señor Rodriguez declares, General Jerez was not allowed to do any of the talking, Mr. Blaine had so much to say. On one occasion he "made use of innumerable arguments, employing them with strong oratorical effect," while the Nicaraguan Minister remained silent. "Why the Washington Cabinet endeavored to make one nation of the five Central Republics," Señor Rodriguez declines to explain, simply because, we strongly suspect, he does not know. Mr. Blaine himself would probably have been unable to give any better reason than that it was "a big thing," and would make much talk. Of course the notion that any power on earth can make five nations into one except the nations themselves, and that any foreign government can profitably take part in such a process, was an absurd one, but it was a not unnatural product of a mind accustomed to live on sensations, and surprises, and fireworks.

The *Tribune*, speaking of the divorce question, admits that the "only remedy which promises any result" is "a national divorce law enacted under a constitutional amendment," but insists that the great difficulty in its way is, that the prevailing looseness on the subject of marriage would produce a loose national law. But it would produce, as we have frequently pointed out, a single uniform law, and put a complete stop to at least half the divorces which are obtained by fraudulent changes of residence and other little devices of that kind; and would bring to an end the farcical state of the law which makes what is a lawful marriage in one State bigamy in another, and often puts it out of the question for innocent women to know what their legal position or that of their children may become if the head of the family changes his place of abode. Whatever the causes for which divorce is allowed within the limits of the United States, the status of the family ought to be unchangeable. No such state of things as we have exists in any other civilized country, and of course agitation for reform, without a definite proposal as to what shall be done, is absurd. The agitation has been going on for nearly twenty years, and the statistics on the subject recently published show that the evil is worse than ever.

The trouble which the Barber Boys got into in Iowa was chiefly owing to their love of their mother and fondness for home. Originally they had to become bandits owing to a difficulty with a sheriff, who came to arrest them, and whom they consequently had to kill, but everything seems to have prospered with them after this, until, a fortnight ago last Monday, they grew homesick, and resolved on a visit to Mrs. Barber and the girls. Had they been able to reach the Barber mansion, no doubt they would have been quite safe, but as the boys were quietly going into the house of a married sister, they were seen by another boy who was loitering about—probably some rascally boy who envied them their fame and the pleasant meeting they were about to have—and who immediately "aroused the people." They were captured on Wednesday, while eating supper affectionately together, in a house about six miles south of Tripoli, Iowa, and have since been taken out of jail by a mob and hung. The singular thing about the banditti of the Western States is their always being found in families of brothers. This seems to show how little truth there is in the idea so many foreigners have that our institutions have a tendency to loosen the family tie. In all the accounts we have of great European robbers, their tastes lead very early in life to a severance of all connection with their home. Their parents and brothers and sisters, in fact, are so little moved by family affection when it comes in conflict with the claims of respectability and social position, that they usually turn the young thieves out of house and home as soon as they find out what they are. This accounts for the fact that in history we hear only of Jack Sheppard, Dick Turpin, and so on, not of the Sheppard Boys, or Turpin Boys. With us, however, when one Boy takes to crime, whatever his parents may do, his brothers at least stick by him to the last; rob with him; murder with him; "compromise" with him, or even go to the gallows with him, if necessary. A brotherless Boy bandit is unknown in the West. How can all this be reconciled with the idea that family affection is on the decline in the United States?

The "Kentucky" news of the Louisville *Courier-Journal* of June 9 is very entertaining and somewhat characteristic reading. First of all comes an account of a set-to between Professor Shannon and Professor Simmons, School Commissioners of Warren County, at Bowling Green. They first "came near colliding in Smith's book store," and on the following day Professor Shannon caught Professor Simmons on his way to supper and gave him a severe beating. The day after, however, Simmons lay in wait for Shannon at the same place with a pistol, and fired four shots at him without effect. Paris was "somewhat disturbed" on the 8th by the conduct of Professor G. T. Gould and two friends who got on the train with a number of young ladies of the Millersburg Female College, and seeing the Rev. Elisha Green, an old colored minister, in a seat, "roughly demanded it," but Mr. Green refused to surrender it, so two of the party held him in his seat, while another "beat him with a heavy, brass-bound valise." Mr. Green, who is a cripple, is "suffering from the injuries inflicted on his head and hands," which we can readily believe. But why didn't he give up his seat, the old villain? At Fulton, too, it appears, a number of men named Oagle have been "trying to run the town," and the Marshal and his posse tried to arrest them. So there was a regular fusillade between them, and after a few volleys it was found that Joe Oagle and a negro were dead, and John Oagle, Will Jones, and the Marshal were wounded. At Frankfort, also, in a lawyer's office, Mr. Ned Conners, being dissatisfied with the conduct of a Mr. Kiernan, who had gone surety for his (Conners's) stepson and had to pay the note, expressed himself unpleasantly about it, so Mr. Kiernan drew a pistol and took one shot at him, but only one, and the ball grazed Mr. Conners's scalp, and is now lodged in the wall of the office. Mr. Kiernan is "a prominent citizen."

It is difficult at this distance to make out why Massachusetts Republicans should have thought it worth while to make a stand on General Butler's veto of the Safe Deposit Bill. The sole question involved was a technical one as to whether the bill was sent back to the Legislature with due formalities; and the Supreme Court have replied to the questions addressed to them on the subject to the effect that there is not a shadow of doubt that it was. The effect produced among Butler's followers, therefore, is of a merely factious opposition to the gallant old champion of popular rights by the rich Bostonians. This was, of course, the object of the veto—the safe-deposit vaults being managed by a number of well-known and wealthy anti-Butlerites. The Boston *Advertiser*, commenting on the case, declares, in language which recalls the Declaration of Independence: "He has committed misdemeanors, he has violated the laws,

his attitude toward the Legislature has been scandalously insolent." This looks as if they were beginning to think of impeaching the old reformer. As the Republican majority in the Senate is only four, probably nothing would give him greater delight than a chance to figure as a defendant in a great state trial of this sort.

The Rev. J. Hyatt Smith has been warning the Brooklyn Sunday-school children against the "Sunday-school dude." This is very proper. If there is such a creature, the children ought to be warned against him, but the description given of the type by the Rev. Mr. Smith shows that the word dude is already beginning to be used, as such words always are in the end, as a mere term of reproach, which may be applied to any sort of person the speaker does not like. Mr. Smith declares that a Sunday-school dude would be capable of carrying on a flirtation with a Sunday-school girl "instead of giving the water of life to the thirsty scholars." This may be so, but he went on to declare that dudes were "impudent fellows"—so impudent that it is difficult to get rid of them at all unless they are "booted" out of the way. But what Mr. Matthew Arnold would call the "note" of the dude is certainly not impudence. Modesty, shyness of an almost feminine kind, characterizes him; a brazen dude would be a contradiction in terms.

In a learned article on dinners, the *Saturday Review* calls attention to a curious idea of dinner-givers, that the number of dishes provided should increase in proportion to the number of guests. There is no doubt of the prevalence of the notion in this country as well as in England. The number of entrées, for instance, that are regarded as sufficient for a family of six, are never regarded as sufficient for a dinner-party of twelve. In part, this is due to the desire of the host to offer his guests a choice of dishes; but we believe it is also owing in part to a mistaken attempt to apply, to the modern civilized dinner, traditions of hospitality handed down from the old Anglo-Saxon cuisine. In the time of Cedric the Saxon dinners were not served regularly in courses, but all the food was put on the table at once; and the essence of hospitality was to have more food in sight than usual. The most hospitable man was he who provided most food, just as the most respected guest was he who could eat most of it. This state of things produced the rough rule, the more guests the more dishes, which has been handed down to us, and erroneously applied to the modern dinner—a meal of a wholly different character. A great deal of the indigestion and dyspepsia of which guests so frequently complain is no doubt traceable to this curious survival.

An attempt to revive the practice of hissing at the Adelphi Theatre, in London, led a day or two since to some curious scenes. One of the actors came forward and inquired what the audience meant, and reminded them that the play they were hissing was the work of "a grand man and novelist," for whom he and his associates were endeavoring to do their best. For this he got a round of applause, and then tried to strengthen his position by declaring that one of the ladies of the company was "entirely prostrated." To this, however, the audience replied that they did not "want to be lectured," and much confusion prevailed to the end of the play. All this shows that, whatever may be thought of the practice of hissing, remonstrances against it will do the grand men and novelists who write our plays little good. When a modern English play is so bad that a modern audience hisses it off the stage, all further argument is probably useless.

The withdrawal of Herr von Bennigsen from the German Reichstag, as well as the Prussian Landtag, signifies that the cause he represented is felt to be utterly helpless and hopeless. Herr von Bennigsen is the leader of the Conservative wing of the "National Liberal" party. He is a man of large ability and of the highest character. He was a strong Nationalist in the darkest days of division. But his Liberalism never was of the self-asserting, fighting kind. He has been rather a Liberal in the way of sympathy and good wishes. He has always sincerely desired the establishment of genuine constitutional government; he has ardently hoped that things would develop themselves in that direction, and been very much gratified when they seemed to do so. Meanwhile he endeavored to avoid, as much as possible, all conflicts between the Liberal party and the Government. But he found it impossible to follow Prince Bismarck constantly in all his marches and counter-marches. He supported the Church policy of the Government which culminated in the Falk laws and the "Kulturkampf," with great fervor. But when Bismarck, finding the Catholic Church a tougher antagonist than he had anticipated, threw Falk overboard and began to negotiate with the Vatican, Bennigsen offered a vigorous opposition to the Chancellor's new policy and to the proposed coalition between the Clericals and Conservatives which was to be the political outcome of it. He actually succeeded, in the session of the Prussian Landtag of 1879–1880, in defeating the recall of the banished bishops and in embodying several important amendments in the Government Bill.

He has now abandoned that opposition too, and desires the adoption of the Church Bill, yielding the principal points of the Falk laws, which was a few days ago laid before the Landtag by the Government. But it seems that the National Liberals, and even most of his own followers, are determined to oppose that measure; and, finding himself isolated and powerless, he has resigned. His retirement will probably put an end to further efforts at compromise on the Liberal side, and thus have a tendency to solidify the Opposition. In the absence of Bennigsen, Prince Bismarck is likely to find it more difficult than ever to draw any portion of the Liberal party into a parliamentary combination in favor of the Government. He is by no means relieved of such contingencies. Although the coalition of the Clericals and Conservatives has enabled him to have the budget for 1884–1885 taken up ahead of the regular time and passed, there are already signs of a purpose on the part of the Clericals to put a higher price upon their favors than is offered by the Government Church Bill, and thus the Chancellor may soon be obliged once more to look for support in other quarters.

Nothing could be more characteristic of the way in which things are done in Russia than the so-called "amnesty proclamation" or "act of grace" promulgated by the Czar at the time of his coronation. The Minister of the Interior may, if he sees fit, report the applications for pardon of political offenders who have been in Siberia for a number of years and who are now thoroughly penitent, and then they may be permitted to return to their homes, provided their homes are not in large cities; and inquisitions into political offences committed at least fifteen years ago, provided the inquiries have disclosed nothing, may be dropped. This is all the grace political offenders can hope for. But those who have robbed the state by the embezzlement of public money, or by conspiracy with contractors, or in any other way—in one word, the public thieves—shall be pardoned outright and go scot free. Their accounts are to be closed without further demands from the Government. It seems that they will not even be obliged to promise not to steal again.

Cardinal Simeoni's assertion to the *Herald* correspondent, if correctly reported, that the circular to the Irish bishops was never intended for publication, and would have remained private but for Mr. Errington's indiscretion, deprives it of all importance as a political document. The faithful among the Irish laity will, in fact, now be justified in acting as if it did not exist. Moreover, the Cardinal showed plainly that the process "of expounding the circular in a way to adapt it to the temper in which the Irish laity would receive it," which we predicted a fortnight ago, has already begun. We then said that "if it seemed likely to produce widespread defiance, it would undoubtedly be explained in a way that would save the influence of the clergy, and that it was even possible that the Pope himself would assist in the process." Accordingly, Cardinal Simeoni now says that it was never intended for publication; that it had "no political aim or purpose"; that Mr. Parnell was not personally in the mind of the Holy Father or of the Propaganda when the circular was issued; that, being simply a lesson in morals, it was not intended for the Irish Catholics exclusively, but for all Catholics, including Americans and Australians; that no foreign Power had been instrumental in bringing about its issue; that it was not meant to prevent priests from attending political meetings, but to prevent them from exciting angry passions; and that the Holy Father felt the warmest sympathy with the Irish people, and especially with the Irish farmers. In fact, the Cardinal, if correctly reported, has left nothing whatever of the circular as a "great blow" to the Irish Nationalists, and has reduced it to the rank of one of those general exhortations to morality to which only unblushing scoundrels ever object, but which thus far have never either helped or hindered any political movement.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 6, to TUESDAY, June 12, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON Tuesday the first official information of the expedition of General Crook after the hostile Indians in the Sierra Madre mountains was published. He left American soil, crossing the Mexican border, on May 3. After fourteen days of hard marching night and day, the Indian camps of Chato and Bonito were discovered in an almost impregnable position. The Apaches did not dream of an attack, as entrance to their stronghold was next to impossible, and the warriors were principally out on a raid under Chief Juh, only thirty-seven bucks being in the camp, with the women and children. The camp was surrounded, and firing was begun by the scouts. A panic was created, and soon all surrendered. Altogether 383 prisoners were taken. The chiefs captured were Chato, Bonito, Geronimo, Nachez, Loco, and Nana. About $5,000 worth of plunder was recovered. After the fight General Crook and his command marched leisurely back to American soil, and on Monday they were encamped on Silver Creek, Arizona. Not one of the command was lost during the expedition. Seven Indians were killed in the skirmish. General Crook is waiting for instructions from the Secretary of War as to what disposition he shall make of the prisoners. If the rest of the hostiles do not surrender, he will again enter the Sierra Madre after them.

Representatives of the colored inhabitants of the Cherokee Nation of Indians have been in Washington during the week to protest against the proposed distribution of the $300,000 appropriated to the tribe by the last Congress.

Special agents report to the Treasury Department a most extensive system of smuggling along the Rio Grande border.

The Department of Agriculture reports the condition of winter wheat as lower than in May, the general average being 75 per cent. against 83 in May. The condition of spring wheat is everywhere high, averaging 98 per cent.

The Treasury Department at Washington has been informed of the arrival at San Francisco of a large cargo of tea consigned to merchants in Chicago, and has directed that samples of the tea be forwarded to New York for inspection before the tea is delivered.

The position of the Civil-Service Commissioners as to certifying women for the eligible lists, according to the explanation of Chief-Examiner Lyman, is that if the heads of the departments request that women shall be certified, they will be, but otherwise sex will be disregarded in the certifications.

The report of the Naval Board appointed to examine the *Pinta* has been submitted to Secretary Chandler. Mr. Dezendorf's charges are fully sustained. In respect to extravagance, the Board finds that the total expenditures for repairs and equipment by the Bureaus of Construction, Steam Engineering, and Equipment, amounting to $106,221 55, when compared with the prime cost of the vessel, at a time when labor and material were high, are excessive. As to the unseaworthiness of the *Pinta*, the Board finds that the repairs had "made her no more unseaworthy than she was before," when she was "as seaworthy as most vessels of similar construction."

The United States double-turreted monitor *Amphitrite* was launched at Wilmington, Del., on Thursday afternoon. Secretary Chandler was present.

Postmaster-General Gresham has selected metallic red as the color for the new two-cent postage stamps. The vignette will be of Washington.

The attention of the Postmaster-General has been directed by Senator Van Wyck to a new Star-route in Nebraska and Dakota, recently let, which the Senator characterizes as "a bigger steal than the Star-routes now on trial." A daily mail has been put on between Fort Niobrara, on the Sioux City and Pacific Railroad, to Rapid City and Deadwood, in Dakota, the contractor being John R. Miner, one of the Star-route conspirators now on trial. The contract price for the daily mail is $13,000, and Vaile, also a Star-route defendant in the conspiracy cases, is one of Miner's sureties. The Department reply to the charges that they are compelled by law to give the contracts to the lowest responsible bidder.

Mr. Richard T. Merrick continued his great speech in the Star-route trial, at Washington, on Wednesday and Thursday, devoting much of his time to a severe and effective arraignment of S. W. Dorsey and an analysis of his rascally schemes. John Dorsey's testimony was also severely condemned. Mr. Merrick closed his argument on Friday. On Monday the prayers of counsel were heard, and on Tuesday Judge Wylie delivered his charge to the jury, and at 3:45 o'clock they retired to consider the case.

President Arthur took up his summer residence at the Soldiers' Home near Washington on Friday. He occupies the cottage in which President Lincoln lived during the war.

The scientific expedition sent out by the United States Government in March last to observe the total eclipse of the sun at Caroline Island, in the South Pacific, has arrived at San Francisco. Prof Edward S. Holden, of the Washburn Observatory of Madison, Wis., who is in charge of the party, reports that the weather on the day of the eclipse was perfect, and the result is a great success. Several good photographs of the corona and spectrum were obtained. The supposed planet Vulcan could not be found.

A permanent organization of the Ohio Republican State Convention was effected on Wednesday morning by the election of Senator John Sherman as Chairman. His name excited great enthusiasm. He made a speech advocating protection and the Scott liquor law, and approving of the general course of the Republican party. When nominations for Governor were called for, Senator Sherman's name was presented amid wild excitement, and he would undoubtedly have been nominated with no opposition had he not positively declined, urging that he could not surrender his duties in the Senate in justice to the people of Ohio and the country. Judge J. B. Foraker, of Cincinnati, was then nominated by acclamation. He belongs to the younger generation of Ohio public men, is a graduate of Cornell University, and has held a Supreme Court judgeship in Ohio. The remainder of the State ticket was filled with men of local reputation. The platform adopted favors protection, approves of the submission to the people of the two Constitutional amendments on the liquor question, one providing for prohibition, and the other for giving the Legislature power to regulate and tax the liquor traffic, without expressing any preference for either, and advocates taxation for revenue and for providing against the evils of the liquor traffic. Another resolution favors "the repeal of the law limiting the time within which applications for pensions under the Arrears of Pension Act shall be made."

A convention of Iowa Democrats was held on Wednesday. It nominated L. G. Kinne, of Tama, for Governor, and other State officers. The platform approves a tariff for revenue only and a gradual reduction of protective duties, opposes constitutional prohibition, favors a well-regulated license law, and advocates the extension of civil-service reform to all departments of the Government.

The Pennsylvania Legislature adjourned *sine die* on Wednesday, but was immediately called together again by the Governor for the consideration of Congressional, Legislative, and Judicial Apportionment Bills.

The Court of Common Pleas of Philadelphia on Saturday annulled the decree of divorce obtained by Major A. H. Nickerson, of the United States Army, on the ground that it was obtained by fraud, and dismissed the libel and imposed the payment of all costs upon the libellant.

Samuel W. Hale was inaugurated Governor of New Hampshire on Thursday, at Concord, with considerable ceremony. In his inaugural address he advocated prohibition of the liquor traffic.

The Massachusetts House of Representatives on Friday passed a bill increasing the salaries of the members from $500 to $750. The Senate passed, by a vote of 16 to 12, a bill incorporating the Cape Cod Ship Canal Company, with a capital of $5,000,000.

The Harper High-License Bill was passed by the Illinois House of Representatives on Friday. It is now before the Senate.

The Niagara Falls Park Commission organized on Saturday by electing Mr. Dorsheimer President, Dr. Anderson declining the office. Commissioner Rogers offered a resolution, with the plan of Director Gardner's report as its body, providing for the taking of a strip of land, varying from 50 to 159 feet wide, from the head of the rapids above the village down to and including Prospect Park, which is to be taken entire, together with all the islands above the falls between the Canadian boundary and the American shore. The resolution was adopted.

A dinner was given at Delmonico's, in this city, on Thursday evening, to the Southern gentlemen who have come North to awaken an interest in the exhibition which will be opened in Louisville, Ky., on August 1. Speeches were made by General Grant, Senators Beck and Bayard, Carl Schurz, Henry Watterson, and others.

The graduating exercises of a class of cadets took place at Annapolis on Saturday. Examinations were in progress at West Point during the week, and the exercises of the graduating class were held on Tuesday.

President John J. Jarrett, of Pittsburgh, who has been at the head of the Association of Amalgamated Iron and Steel Workers since 1880, has sent in a letter to the Convention which will be held in Philadelphia on August 7, declining a reëlection. His determination was made known to the lodges some weeks ago, but since the recent termination of the conference which averted a strike the members of the Association have been loath even to consider a possibility of his retirement. His physician advises the step.

The American Fish Culture Association held its twelfth annual meeting in this city last week at Cooper Union. A number of interesting and instructive papers were read.

The Barber boys, two noted desperadoes of Iowa, were captured after a desperate fight in which they wounded four men, two mortally, on the evening of June 5, near Tripoli, Iowa. About 9 o'clock on Friday night a mob of 200 attacked the jail at Waverley, Iowa, where the men were confined, and after two hours' work reached their cell, whence they were taken and hanged to a tree. They were firm to the last. The county officers did all they could to protect the prisoners.

Mr. Charles C. Fulton, editor and proprietor of the Baltimore *American*, died on Thursday, at the age of sixty-seven. He purchased an interest in the *American* in 1853, becoming its sole proprietor nine years later. The prosperity of the paper grew under his management. Some of his letters addressed to it in his foreign travels have been republished in book form. He was one of the original Republicans of Maryland.

Prof. Charles E. Anthon, of the College of the City of New York, died on Thursday at Bremen, Germany, of heart disease. He was sixty years old. He was the son of John Anthon, a prominent lawyer, and was a

nephew of Professor Anthon, the distinguished classical scholar.

Chester W. Chapin, ex-President of the Boston and Albany Railroad, died at his home in Springfield, Mass., on Sunday. Mr. Chapin was born at Ludlow, Hampshire County, Mass., December 16, 1798. He was for many years prominent in railway and steamboat corporations. He was elected to Congress in 1874, and served one term.

FOREIGN.

The German Liberal papers consider that the bill with reference to the May laws recently introduced in the Prussian Diet is a fresh retreat on the part of the Government. The Clericals consider the concessions larger and better than those heretofore offered. The Centre party will probably accept the bill, and the Conservatives will support it, thus securing a majority. The Vatican, it is asserted in Rome, is satisfied with the bill. The bill was considered in the Landtag on Monday and Tuesday, and was referred by the Lower House to a committee of twenty-one. The House then adjourned until June 21.

The consideration of the German budget was begun in the German Reichstag on Friday, at the request of Prince Bismarck. The Progressists tried to have the proposed military and naval votes deferred until autumn, but a motion to that effect was defeated by a coalition of Tory and Catholic members. This is a victory for Bismarck, and is another step toward divorcing the Executive from the power of the Reichstag, by means of a biennial budget. The bill passed its third reading without amendment on Tuesday, and the session was closed.

Herr von Bennigsen on Monday resigned his seat in the Lower House of the Prussian Landtag without assigning any reason for doing so. Before announcing his intention to resign he held a conference with the members of his party (the National Liberals) in regard to the divergence of views among them on the Government's new Church bill. His action has caused a great sensation in Berlin. He has also resigned his seat in the German Reichstag. His resignation, it is reported, was due not only to his position in regard to the Church bill, but also to certain troubles with Bismarck on the Budget question.

It was officially announced on Wednesday that there is no foundation for the alarming rumors recently put in circulation in regard to the health of Queen Victoria. She took up her residence at Balmoral on May 25, and has been decidedly better since that time.

In the House of Commons, on Thursday afternoon, Sir William Harcourt, Home Secretary, read a letter from Lord Rosebery in which the latter said that he had not resigned the office of Under Secretary for the Home Department because of the Home Secretary's statement touching his duties. Sir William Harcourt explained that Lord Rosebery's acceptance of the office was only temporary.

A stormy debate arose in the House of Commons on Friday on a motion to recommit the Lord Wolseley and Baron Alcester annuity bills for the purpose of commuting the proposed pensions for lump sums of money. Sir Wilfrid Lawson (Radical) and Lord Randolph Churchill (Conservative) opposed the motion. The latter alleged that an inquiry into the Egyptian war was first necessary. He asserted that the Khedive was the real author of the massacres at Alexandria. Mr. Gladstone declared that this assertion was at variance with all evidence. Sir Stafford Northcote (Conservative) supported the Government, and declined to be led by Lord Randolph Churchill, whose opposition he characterized as shabby.

In the House of Commons recently Lord Randolph Churchill called attention to the mission of Mr. Errington to Rome, and argued that there could be no doubt that the Government had recommended him to the Vatican, the recent Papal manifesto in regard to Irish affairs being the result. Mr. Gladstone replied that Mr. Errington had gone to Rome at his own suggestion. Mr. Errington received no pay, and no instructions were given him by the Government, but, said Mr. Gladstone, as Mr. Errington's visits to Rome would tend to alter his position in future, a record would be made of his proceedings and left for transmission to the successor of Earl Granville as Foreign Secretary. On Saturday it was reported that the Pope had refused Mr. Errington an audience, and that he was in disgrace for making public the letter from the Vatican to the Irish bishops. He left Rome without a farewell audience with the Pope.

In the British House of Lords on Monday the bill legalizing marriage with a deceased wife's sister passed its second reading by a vote of 165 to 158.

The celebration to commemorate the services of John Bright as representative in Parliament for Birmingham, England, for over a quarter of a century, was begun on Monday in that city with great enthusiasm.

A memorial was presented to Lord Spencer in Dublin on Wednesday, asking him to reprieve Timothy Kelly, one of the Phœnix Park murderers, on account of his youth and the fact that he was suffering from epilepsy. On Thursday he refused to grant a respite. Mr. Varian, a member of the Prisoners' Aid Society, called upon Earl Spencer, the Lord Lieutenant, late Friday evening, and gave him his personal assurance that at 8 o'clock on the night the Phœnix Park murders were committed Kelly was present at a meeting of the Society. Nevertheless, on Saturday morning at 8 o'clock Kelly was executed in Kilmainham Jail. He was the fifth and last convicted of the Phœnix Park murderers. He made no confession. There was a great but orderly crowd outside the jail at the time.

It was rumored in Dublin during the week that the Irish Invincibles have been extensively using poison in removing obnoxious persons. The police are investigating a number of cases of suspicious death which have occurred in the past few years, especially the case of a hotel keeper named Jury, of Dublin, who died a fortnight after the Phœnix Park murders. In the House of Commons on Tuesday it was announced that Jury's body had been exhumed, and no traces of poison were found.

James Carey, the informer, protests against being kept in confinement in Dublin, but refuses to leave Ireland.

It was announced on Monday that Michael Davitt and Parnell had had a conference in London, and had come to a complete agreement as to an Irish programme.

Further important evidence has been obtained in the case of the London dynamite conspirators, showing that several of the prisoners were in England at the time of the explosion at the Local Government Board offices at Westminster. The trial of Dr. Gallagher, Bernard Gallagher, Ansburgh, Curtin, Whitehead, and Willson, who are charged with treason-felony, was begun on Monday morning in London, and Sir Henry James, the Attorney-General, opened for the prosecution. Lynch alias Norman, the informer, repeated substantially the same testimony which he gave at the preliminary hearing. The trial was continued on Tuesday without special incident.

In the races at Ascot Heath, England, during the week, Mr. J. R. Keene's American colt Blue Grass won the Biennial Stakes.

Zukertort has won the first prize, $1,500, in the London chess tournament.

Sir George Bowyer, the English legal writer, is dead.

The committee appointed at a meeting of influential ship-owners of London on the project for the construction of another canal across the Isthmus of Suez, have resolved to proceed vigorously with the work.

General Hicks has gained a great victory over 5,000 Arabs in the Sudan, killing 500 of them.

Suleiman Daud and Mahmud Sami, who were accused of setting fire to Alexandria at the time of the British bombardment, were found guilty and sentenced to death on Thursday. Eighteen officers were found guilty of complicity in the same crime, and were sentenced to various terms of penal servitude. Suleiman was executed on Saturday morning in the midst of the ruins of the great square. He had to be almost carried to the scaffold, and murmured that he had been victimized by Arabi Pasha. On the evening before the execution a heated debate took place in the House of Commons, in which the Government was urged to stay the proceedings. Mr. Gladstone asserted that the British Consul-General in Egypt saw no reason for interference.

War preparations are making in China on a great scale. Three corps of troops are in readiness and a Chinese fleet is under orders to sail for Tonquin. At a French Cabinet Council on Thursday it was announced that the situation in Hanoi continued to improve. It is asserted that China will only begin aggressive operations in the event of France attempting to establish water communication between Tonquin and Yun-Nan. On Tuesday it was reported that negotiations between France and China were progressing favorably.

The Malagasy Envoys have asserted that while they are willing to make a treaty with France similar to the treaties they have signed with other countries, they will not entertain any question involving a French protectorate over Madagascar.

A force of Albanians has captured near Scutari a Turkish convoy. Nine battalions of Turkish troops have been sent to chastise them. Several fights have occurred in the mountains, resulting in heavy losses.

The Porte recently informed General Wallace, the United States Minister to Turkey, that the commercial treaty between Turkey and America would terminate on March 13, 1884. The Turkish tariff expired on the same date of the present year. After the termination of the treaty the importation of all American meats, lard, and similar produce will be prohibited. The Porte has virtually increased the duties on spirits by compelling their storage at Smyrna. It also maintains its demand relative to the storage of petroleum. General Wallace has protested that the above measures are arbitrary, and claims that American goods under the treaty of 1830 are entitled to the most-favored-nation treatment. The relations between the Sultan and General Wallace continue friendly.

The consecration of the Church of the Saviour, one of the most brilliant features of the coronation festivities, took place at Moscow on Thursday. The Czar and Czarina arrived at St. Petersburg from Moscow on Sunday, and drove in an open carriage to the Peterhof Palace. There was an illumination in the evening.

There is no truth in the story that the Mayor of Moscow has been removed from office for a recent speech.

Count Tolstoi, Russian Minister of the Interior, has been instructed to draft a law giving greater liberty in regard to change of domicile. The collection of the poll-tax from the poorest portion of the peasantry will entirely cease from January 1 next, and the tax to be collected from the remainder of the people will be reduced by one-half.

The Governor-General of Cuba having reported favorably concerning the state of that island, more than 100 exiles will be allowed soon to return there. Two hundred thousand slaves in Cuba will become free in 1888. The labor question is then expected to become a serious one. Spanish statesmen and Cuban planters are already examining plans for the introduction into Cuba of free African negroes or Chinese or Indian coolies.

MAJOR NICKERSON'S DESIRE FOR A CHANGE.

THERE could hardly be a more striking illustration of the force of the passion which the institution of marriage is intended to regulate, and at the same time of the feebleness of the protection which the institution gets from our laws, than Major Nickerson's divorce case. But his case, let us say, is peculiar only in that it has happened to be conspicuous, owing to his position. We have no doubt that hundreds of such cases occur every year in which the parties are too obscure to attract notice, or the wife too poor or too ignorant or meek to defend her rights. The state of the marriage laws is acting as a constant temptation on the imagination of the vicious and dissolute and fickle all over the country to try a change. In fact, it invites them to change in that relation in life in which change is most mischievous, and in which it is the object of the institution of marriage to prevent or hinder change. It may be said, without great exaggeration, that there is now no Northern State in which the family bond gets much strength from the law, or in which a man is prevented from deserting his wife and children by anything but natural affection or public sentiment. If, however, his vicious propensities get the better of his natural affection, as they so often do, or if there be no public sentiment which he cares about, as is too often the case, he is really almost as much master of his domestic relations as if he was a member of a herd of cattle.

Major Nickerson is an officer of high rank in the army, and apparently of some scientific attainments. He married suitably, in 1870, and lived happily with his wife for ten years. It then appears to have occurred to him that he would like a change. When this thought—which probably comes into the head now and then of great numbers of married men, after their wives' youth has passed—came into his head, the law of the land ought to have appeared before his mind's eye as an obstacle so insurmountable as to make his desire seem as idle as a desire for one million dollars in cash. Nearly every man probably feels this last desire occasionally, and many know, or think they know, of ways of gratifying it, but they are deterred by the law, and they banish it as a foolish fancy. Major Nickerson did not banish his, because he probably knew or had heard of scores of cases in which men had got rid of their wives by the plan which he proposed to try, without paying any penalty, social or legal. So he probably said to himself, Since change is so easy, why not have a change? Since fraud is so common in getting divorces, and entails no disagreeable consequences, why not get a divorce by fraud if necessary? In fact, the whole process seemed so simple to him, and surrounded by so few difficulties, that it concealed from him the conspicuousness of his position, and also the very important fact that, as an officer of the army, he was exposed to a double danger in case he strayed from the paths of honor.

So he went to work in the old-fashioned way—shipped his wife and children to Europe, took leave of them with the usual marks of affection, and then began a suit for divorce on the ground of desertion, giving the wife notice through the newspapers only, got his decree, and married another woman. The proceedings were all regular on their face, and yet they were marked by perjury and fraud at every step. There is nothing remarkable about this. Such divorces are obtained every month in nearly every State in the Union, and the remedy which Legislatures seem, on the whole, most inclined to try, is making divorce easier rather than increasing the penalties for fraud. What is remarkable about Nickerson's course is, that the state of the law had such an effect on his imagination that he forgot that the consequences of his crime were to be permanent and conspicuous. He actually expected his wife to submit quietly, and expected to be able to retain his social position and his position in the army without question or cavil. Everything was to go as well with him after his second marriage as after the first, just as if there were no law in the matter but his own wayward inclinations. Now that his evil deeds have been exposed, and the courts have convicted him of fraud, and the military authorities are trying to catch him for trial by court-martial, and he is a fugitive from justice, he is probably perfectly bewildered, and is asking, What does it all mean? It doubtless seems strange to him still that in the United States a man cannot leave his wife when he has ceased to love her, or that proceedings in divorce should be anything but a formality, in which fraud or perjury is not taken seriously. It is not, however, for the conscientious, steady, sober-minded, and faithful that marriage laws are needed, but for the wayward, fickle, and unscrupulous like Major Nickerson; and the worst of it is, that our marriage laws are now so drawn and administered that, instead of bracing up this latter class to face the stern facts of life, they suggest to them the possibility of successfully evading their most solemn responsibilities.

ENGLAND AND THE POPE.

THE explanations offered by Mr. Gladstone in the House of Commons on Thursday, if correctly reported by the telegraph, go far to confirm the construction which has been put on Mr. Errington's mission to Rome, and on the Papal circular to the Irish bishops. Mr. Errington is an English Catholic whose fancy has long been tickled with the idea of restoring harmonious and even close relations between England and the Vatican, and he appears to have gone out to Rome with this bee in his bonnet, and before going to have not only induced the Ministry to listen to what he was going to tell the Pope, but induced them to tell him a good many things which they thought it would be well for the Pope to hear, and especially things about Ireland. Moreover, they seem to have arranged with him to make memoranda of his interviews with the Pope, and transmit them to the Foreign Office to be put on file, just as if he were a regularly accredited envoy.

It is not surprising that under these circumstances the Papal circular should be looked on both by the Irish and English as the product of British diplomacy, and that though it is treated with outward respect by the Catholic clergy, it should be producing very perceptible alienation from the Pope on the part of the Irish people. In fact, there is no way of looking at it in which it does not seem the result of a great mistake on the part of the Ministry. The Parnell testimonial, against which the circular, with unusual, if not unprecedented, want of dignity, was specially directed, is apparently in no way injured, but indeed rather strengthened, by the Pope's disapproval. The only visible effect of this disapproval thus far is the stoppage of appeals in its behalf on the part of the priests in the churches. Outside the churches the clergy are apparently giving it as much encouragement as ever.

It was very unfortunate for the effect of the circular, too, that it should have been received with so much exultation in England. The proclamation of the *Times* and other journals that it was a "heavy blow" to the Nationalist cause, was one of the many signs of the past three years of the ignorance of English journalists about the state of Irish popular feeling, and in particular about the influence of the United States on the Irish mind. Down to 1847, not only were Irish politics in the hands of the priests, but the religious influence of the priests was as strong as ever. Since 1847, not only has a new and somewhat agnostic Ireland arisen on this side of the Atlantic, but a great change has come over the popular mind in all countries touching the authority of the clergy. Tyndall, and Huxley, and Spencer, and Mill do not reach the Irish peasantry or any peasantry directly, but they permeate the atmosphere with a spirit of doubt and revolt which the peasant cannot help breathing in, though in a highly diluted form.

Moreover, the disestablishment of the Protestant Church, in 1870, deprived the priests of the last remaining shred of the martyrdom which did so much for them in the eyes of their flock in Ireland, and the secret ballot enabled the peasant to vote against his landlord whenever he pleased, without the priests' instigation or support. So that although it is undoubtedly true that Ireland is, except Spain, the most Catholic country in Europe to-day, its Catholicism is a more delicate and fragile fabric than that of any other country. The priests are still very powerful in Ireland, if they still play the rôle of the poor man's friend and protector. They are not powerful if they appear in the smallest degree as official pacificators or police agents of the English Government, and in this position the circular in some degree seeks to place them. In one way or another hatred of England has now come to be the master passion of the Irish breast, and to suppose that it can be quenched by Church censures is to mistake both its force and the position of the Church in our time.

The facility with which the Phœnix Park murderers have remained in their own eyes "good Catholics," while planning and committing the most atrocious crimes, is a striking illustration of the curiously exceptional position, both in religion and morals, which the Irish Catholics have created for their patriotism. Curley urged his wife and children to attend to their "religious duties," in his dying letter to them, but every word indicated that he thought that he had been setting them a good example in the commission of his

villanies. In fact, the Irish conspirators seem to be standing over the same frightful and unfathomable abyss, not exactly of immorality but of *un*morality, as the Russian Nihilists, but with just a thin crust of Catholicism under their feet, which it is folly to put any more weight on.

A DISMAL VIEW OF FRENCH FINANCE.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu, who has been for some time back the Cassandra of French finance, though he has hardly surpassed M. Léon Say as a prophet of evil, has a very dismal article on the present outlook in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The appropriations of 1883, which the Chambers have just voted, amount to the enormous sum of $608,000,000. This, however, is less than the actual amount will be, because, according to the French custom, "supplementary credits" for things overlooked, or for the deficit of the previous year, will have to be added to it. So that he thinks it will reach altogether $625,000,000. The receipts, all things considered, will leave in the accounts of the current year a deficit of $29,000,000. The outlook for 1884 he does not think any more hopeful. The appropriations will have to amount to $620,000,000, and the receipts, judging from the returns of 1882, the last year for which, according to another vicious French custom, the accounts have yet been made up, will leave a deficit of $40,000,000. He acknowledges, however, that this is probably too dark a view, as since 1882 there have been certain elements of improvement in the revenue; so he puts the deficit of 1884 at $30,000,000. Accepting this as correct, it appears that there will then be a total deficit in the three years ending with 1884 of $90,000,000. The only mitigating feature in the situation which he thinks can be counted on with certainty is the conversion of the fives into four-and-a-halfs, which will reduce this amount by about $8,000,000. For the elasticity has apparently gone out of the taxes since 1881. Every year since 1875 the yield has shown an increase, and generally a considerable one, over that of the previous year. In 1881 this increase amounted to $24,000,000. But the year 1882 showed an increase of only $200,000 over 1881, and 1883 only $5,000,000 over 1882.

It is unfortunate, but true, that this condition of the public treasury only began after the Republicans came into full possession of the Government in 1877. From the close of the war down to that period French financial management, under the master hand of M. Thiers, had been one of the marvels of the age. No sooner was he dead, however, and the Republicans in control, than the Government entered on a course of extravagance which curiously resembles what we witnessed here for some years after the close of our war. To use M. Leroy-Beaulieu's words:

"No matter who the Ministers were who too rapidly succeeded each other in office, the real influence, the pledging of the public credit and the laying of the taxes, was in the hands of the ardent and inexperienced majority of the Chambers. These had neither rule, nor measure, nor knowledge, nor conception of the real needs and duties of the state. They dreamed of a policy of ostentation which should pour out blessings of every description on the country. They had a truly naïve generosity and a systematic prodigality. They were animated by all sorts of ambitions and caprices. They wanted an army and fortresses better than those of Germany, a navy and colonies better than those of England, schoolhouses better than those of Switzerland, and as big railroads as those of the United States."

To crown all, the civil service was disorganized by the furious greed for office of the newcomers, which compelled the Government to put large numbers of old functionaries on the retired list before their time in order to make vacancies, thus greatly increasing the charges on the pension list, for a man cannot be dismissed from the public service in France without cause. To these weaknesses, which we can readily understand here, were added others which were curiously French. One was the refusal of the Government to convert the fives, for fear of offending the bondholders by paying them off or reducing their interest. The other was the persistence of the Treasury, which takes charge of the savings-bank funds, in paying the depositors a higher rate of interest on their deposits than it paid to its other creditors, or than it could borrow at in the market. Both these oddities are the product of the notion, which three hundred years of centralization and despotism have firmly implanted in the French mind, that the Government is a power apart from the people, with resources of its own to which the taxpayers do not contribute.

How long these crazes will last, or whether the Republicans will work out of them without some sort of financial cataclysm, it is hard to say. It is quite certain, however, that things cannot go on much longer as they are. They must either mend or grow much worse. The fever of "public improvements" has spread all through the communes, just as it did here before 1873. Splendid schoolhouses and town halls are going up in every direction. The workmen are crowding into the towns to get employment on these buildings in a way which is leaving the farmers short of laborers and introducing into France large hordes of Belgians and Italians. The wages paid in the towns, too, are very high, and it is the great consumption which these wages stimulate which does much to keep up the direct taxes on tobacco, wine, and other working-class luxuries. Consequently, when the check comes it will be necessarily severe and widely felt.

"RIDING TO HOUNDS."

An article in the last number of the *Nineteenth Century* on fox-hunting in England, besides being an admirable piece of literary work, will furnish very useful reading to the considerable and growing numbers of young people of both sexes in this country, who make a practice not exactly of fox-hunting, but of "following the hounds" across country in the fall. In Pennsylvania and Maryland and Virginia, where real fox-hunting is indigenous, the article will not be found to have much that is new, but for the amateurs of New York and Rhode Island and Massachusetts it is full of instruction, because those who have observed the "riding to hounds" in these latter States are aware that desperate jumping forms one of its leading features, and that there is a tendency among the riders to believe that cross-country riding is not the real thing unless they take everything that comes, in an audacious manner, at any risk to themselves and their beasts.

In reality, however, riding to hounds in the country of its origin is nothing so senseless as this. Englishmen have managed to find a place, and a very large place, too, in the chief national sport for judgment, and have refused to make it simply a display of reckless courage. Fox-hunting has an object, and the object is not the jumping of high rails or wide brooks on horseback, but keeping up with the hounds; and the man who does this, no matter how he does it, is the successful hunter; and the better the condition in which he brings his horse in to the death or other finale, the better rider he is. Consequently to the good rider a low fence is better than a high one, a gap or an open gate better than either, and the zest which comes from taking a high or long leap is to be found in the fact that it is necessary, or that there is nothing else for it. Needless strain on horses is odious to all good riders, because, if for no other reason, it is fussy and childish, which to the true hunting mind ought to be detestable.

That it is not easy to keep up with the hounds after they settle down to their work is a well-known experience of all hunting. No matter how large "the field" which assembles at any hunt, in five minutes half of them have been left behind and out of sight. Every stiff fence or brook keeps back a great many. Very often in fifteen minutes not six out of a hundred are to be found in sight of the hounds. At the death of the fox probably not over two or three are present. The rest are spread all over the country for miles in the rear.

It must not be supposed, however, that they are all, or nearly all, left behind because of their pusillanimity. On the contrary, as the writer of the article points out, there is no such furious riding and reckless jumping anywhere as among the laggards. The contrast between the scenes in the rear and those at the front of a fox-hunt is, in fact, very like that which General Sherman has drawn between the scenes at the rear and those at the front of an army during a general action. In the rear all is confusion and uproar, and hurrying to and fro, and fierce preparation or deep depression. As you go forward things get quieter and quieter, until when you arrive at the fighting line, where the real business is being done, you find the calm and resolution and serenity of men intent on their work and knowing how to do it. So also in the hunting-field, on going back two or three miles from the hounds, on whose flanks probably three or four master hands are riding—it may be at a terrible pace, and with unflinching courage, with the highest judgment, taking every advantage which the ground offers, bringing every faculty to bear on the work of getting over the ground with the minimum of fatigue to their horses—you come upon really frantic riding. For when the blood has got into the heads of the common herd they rush at everything that offers, and, having lost sight of the hounds and not knowing which way to turn, they often take big jumps in an exactly opposite direction to that in which the fox has gone. The arti-

cle in the *Nineteenth Century* tells an amusing story of the late Lord Alvanley having shouted after one of these fierce riders till he got him to stop, for the purpose of pointing out a place to him where the fence was higher than where he was going. In fact, the consciousness that they are hunting, or "riding to hounds," seems to set many of them crazy, especially after the hounds have left them behind, and they wander about the country in a promiscuous and aimless manner, with imminent risk to their necks.

There is not much to be said for the practice of jumping high fences or broad brooks, *per se*. It is simply steeplechasing, and steeplechasing is something in which professional jockeys will always excel amateurs. But the art of getting across country on horseback with a minimum of danger and strain to the horse, is a noble and very human art, which probably brings the man and the animal into closer communion than anything else they do in common. It is the promotion of this art which hunting even of the anise-seed bag ought to favor, but, we fear, does not. It is too often followed in the spirit of the circus, as an occasion for the display of tricks and feats. In a word, riding across country ought to be throughout an exercise of judgment and skill rather than a display of courage.

COLONIAL ANNEXATIONS: THE SOUTH AFRICAN QUESTION.

LONDON, May 24, 1883.

IT is strange, when one thinks how large the colonial possessions of England are, and how complicated their relations with one another and with the peoples or states which border on them, that their fortunes should engage so small a part of the attention and anxiety of the English public. This nettles the colonists themselves, who are usually in a querulous sort of mood toward the mother country, complaining that whereas they are always thinking of her and burning with love for her, she does not seem to care what happens to them. If the accusation be true, the reasons are not altogether discreditable. Englishmen have come to the conclusion that the colonies thrive best when left most to themselves. In the case of the great European-peopled colonies, such as those of Australia and North America, self-government has been granted; and self-government, in order to work properly, must not be meddled with by those at home. As respects the Crown colonies, such as the West India Islands and Ceylon, the English politician, though he has no great faith in the wisdom of the Colonial Office, has a wholesome sense of his own ignorance, and doesn't feel as if the interference of Parliament, except to expose some gross abuse or correct some obvious mistake, would be of great service in colonial difficulties. Thus there is singularly little discussion of colonial questions either in the English press or in Parliament, and one meets hardly anybody who has followed the course of events in any of our dependencies, or can give an opinion, based upon any facts, with regard to the disputes which agitate them. Even as regards India, to which so many Englishmen go to make their living in the service of the state, and from which so many return to take a considerable place in society at home, there is much less curiosity, less knowledge, less comprehension of current events, than one might have looked for.

There is, however, one question of colonial policy on which most people have, if not fixed opinions, at least pronounced tendencies: I mean the question of annexation. It is less important than formerly, for the simple reason that we have annexed already nearly all the most desirable places that lay near our colonies or in the way of our ships. There still remain (besides the lands that border India) only two regions in which much new territory of any value can be acquired. One of these is South Africa, and the other the East Indian Archipelago.

South Africa is the standing difficulty of our colonial empire. For the last fifty years it has always been vexing us, entangling us in native wars, which have ended in annexations that in their turn brought fresh wars upon us. We have tried every policy in turn, and no policy has prospered. Sometimes we have carried on interference actively; sometimes we have tried to let the native tribes fight out their own quarrels; sometimes we have controlled the colonists, who are of course far less indulgent to the natives than is the home Government; sometimes we have left the colonists to their own devices. But sooner or later we have become involved in the old troubles. At this moment disorder is in an acute stage. After the Zulu war of 1879, Zululand was parcelled out among several chiefs, who do not agree with one another, and last autumn we restored King Cetewayo to a part, but only a part, of his old dominions. Now we hear that furious strife has broken out between Cetewayo and several of the other chiefs, a strife which may disturb our neighboring colony of Natal. Further to the west the Basuto tribes are in a state of commotion, and the war between them and Cape Colony, which was with difficulty stopped more than a twelvemonth ago, seems recrudescent. The most serious difficulties are, however, those that gather round the Transvaal and the native Bechuana tribes which dwell on the borders of that state. When the Transvaal country was first annexed, the preservation of peace between the natives and the Boers, was one of the grounds assigned for that hasty act. When, after the revolt of the Boers, a convention was made in 1881 with them, recognizing their practical independence, subject to British suzerainty, it was hoped that this suzerainty would enable our Government to secure adequate protection to the natives from the Boers; and engagements, the exact legal effect of which is disputed, were understood to have been made with some of the native chiefs to secure their safety. Now disorders have again become serious. European marauders, whom the Transvaal republic is either unwilling or unable to restrain, are attacking the Bechuanas and seizing their cattle. The British Government is appealed to to compel the Transvaal authorities to restore order, but it seems very doubtful whether this can be done without another war. We are thus placed in a disagreeable dilemma. If we take the matter into our own hands, we may have not merely to reconquer the Transvaal, but to govern it after the reconquest, and thus push our frontier a long way further toward the equator, with the prospect of increased military expenditure and new wars to follow. If we wash our hands of the matter, leaving the Boers and the natives to fight it out, we appear to recede from the convention of 1881, to abandon the Bechuanas, to declare British suzerainty an empty name. The honor of England seems to point to a course which is beset with the gravest practical mischiefs—mischiefs no one would have encountered could they have been foreseen. Public opinion at home is therefore a good deal divided on the question; nor is it only the imperialist party which calls upon the Government to act vigorously on behalf of the natives and against the Boers: a considerable force of philanthropic sentiment presses them toward the same course. Mr. W. E. Forster is the most conspicuous mouthpiece of this sentiment, and the speech in which he recently attacked the conduct of his former colleagues in hesitating to interfere on behalf of the Bechuanas produced some sensation, not only because it widened the breach between him and the Cabinet, but also because it placed in a strong light the weak points of our present attitude.

If it be asked why South Africa should have proved so much the most troublesome of all our colonial possessions, two main reasons may be assigned. In the first place, its European population is not purely, in parts not even chiefly, English. The districts round the Cape of Good Hope were originally settled by the Dutch, and ceded as spoils of war to England. From these districts Dutchmen have continued to flow out into the surrounding regions to the north and northeast, carrying with them their language and their habits, while in the older parts of Cape Colony a great many of the farmers are still thorough Dutchmen, not fusing with the more recent immigrants of English or Scotch blood, and looking rather to Holland than to England as their true mother country. Thus the whole of our South African territories have wanted that homogeneity and attachment to English sovereignty which exist in most of the colonies, not, indeed, perfectly in Canada, owing to the presence there of a French element, but notably in Australia and New Zealand. There has never, it is true, been any active disaffection, threatening rebellion against the British crown. But when difficulties arose between the British Government and the Dutch Boers of the Transvaal the sympathy of the Dutch in Cape Colony for their blood-kinsfolk was so marked as to import a new difficulty into the situation, and make strong measures against the Boers additionally undesirable. The other source of difficulty—a graver and more permanent one—is found in the numbers and persistency of the native races. In the Australian colonies and in North America the aborigines were few in number, and soon began to disappear before the whites. In most parts of Australia they have already vanished. In New Zealand we are using all possible efforts to protect them and keep them alive, but disease and the change in their manner of life are steadily reducing them. But in South Africa not only are they more vigorous and prolific as races, but they are recruited from a vast and populous inner country, stretching far away north through a huge tropical continent. This aboriginal population, more or less negro in blood—for there is much difference between the various peoples—is not generally wanting in intelligence or in other good qualities; but a long time will of course be needed to civilize it and accustom it to a peaceful life, and meantime it so greatly outnumbers the whites, at least in the newer colonies, as to make the process of civilization go on slowly. Here, therefore, the problem of annexation presents itself in the most troublesome form. If we go on advancing and annexing, there is really no reason why we should ever stop, for the same causes which led to the annexation of one piece of territory will lead to the annexation of another. We shall not find anywhere south of the equator, nor even north of it till we reach the Sahara Desert or the frontiers of Egyptian rule, a good solid boundary, either natural or constituted by the existence of a strong state with which treaties can be made. Wherever we try to stop we shall experience the same difficulties, and we may therefore (so it is argued) just as well stop where we are now as go some hundreds of miles further to the northward.

If it were possible to allow the colonists themselves to confront the difficulties to which annexations give rise, England might, at least in the case of self-governing colonies, such as the Cape, shift the responsibility for the future on to their shoulders. But two reasons forbid this. In the first place, the colonists might not be able to defend themselves against a general rising of the black races; and the very knowledge of their comparative weakness which the natives would soon gain, would tend to encourage them to resist or attack the whites. In the next place, the colonists would doubtless carry on war more cruelly and treat the conquered more harshly than the sentiment of Englishmen at home could tolerate. Our interference has at least the effect of giving some sort of protection to the aborigines, for it need hardly be said that we have none of that hatred of them and desire to seize their lands which are powerful forces in every colony. It is like the difference between the sentiment of New England and that of Arizona towards the Apaches.

All these considerations puzzle politicians at home so much that many of them try to ignore the problem, and seek by a hand-to-mouth policy to stave off for the moment our perpetually recurring difficulties. This is perhaps all that even the Government can do; it seems to be all they are trying to do in the present instance. Meantime a fresh question has arisen for solution which raises somewhat similar issues, the annexation of Eastern New Guinea under the orders of the British colony of Queensland. Voices are already heard, some applauding, some condemning this extension of our territory. When opinion pronounces itself more widely I shall hope to give you some account of the circumstances, as well as of the views which prevail here. Y.

ITALY'S ESTRANGEMENT FROM FRANCE.

PARIS, May 25, 1883.

THE attention of France is completely engrossed at present by interior affairs, by the financial situation, the conversion of the rentes, the proposed convention between the state and the great railroad companies, the struggle between the Government and the Catholic clergy. We are hiding our heads under our wings, and we should like to think there was nothing outside our frontiers. At the same time the party in power has been seized with a sudden ardor for distant colonization. The ease with which the conquest of Tunis was effected, and the happy results, so far, of this conquest, have revived the ancient feelings which once sent France to Canada, to India, to so many places. The programme of the day is: Peace in Europe, distant and easy expeditions to various parts of the world—Senegambia, Congo, Tonquin. Our statesmen think that the establishment of distant colonies will give an outlet to many restless spirits, whom they find inconvenient at home, and satisfaction to our navy and, to some extent, to our army. It will even, in their eyes, be an assurance of peace in Europe, as it will show our neighbors that our activity is looking for new fields.

As yet only two Powers have shown any jealousy of this new policy—England and Italy. With England this jealousy is almost instinctive; she is so accustomed to help herself in all parts of the world, to take whatever comes in her way, sometimes with her own hands, sometimes by the hands of her colonists, that she has finally looked upon this power of annexation as a sort of natural privilege. She has claims on every land, on every region; still, she has grasped so much lately, she has had such an active policy, that the jealousy with which she has seen France first go to Tunis and afterward prepare to go to Tonquin, has not been followed by any serious opposition. With Cyprus and Egypt in her clutch, she felt that she could not remonstrate with a good grace. It is not so with Italy. Italy was profoundly wounded by the French expedition to Tunis. She is the mistress of Sicily and the heir of ancient Rome; she thought that she had a natural right to the country where once was Carthage. Tunis was considered by the Italians as an apple which sooner or later must fall into the lap of Italy. This ambition was not much concealed, and the attitude of the Italian consuls in Tunis, their increasing influence at the Bardo, their constant opposition to the French consuls, were among the reasons which precipitated the French expedition. In high military quarters it was thought that if, in a great European war, we were unfortunate enough to have the Italians among our enemies, nothing would be easier for them than to land an army in Tunis and invade our province of Constantine. There is no defensible barrier between Tunis and this province, and an Italian army might have seized all our African possessions. With Tunis in the hands of France these provinces can no longer be invaded, as Tripoli is too far away, and an expedition with Tripoli as its basis would be exceedingly difficult.

From a strategical point of view the occupation of Tunis was almost a necessity for France. Politically it has borne results which are developing rapidly. It has estranged Italy from the Government of the French Republic, and this estrangement has had two consequences: first, an alliance of Italy with the two great German empires; secondly, a reconstitution of Italian parties on a more distinctly monarchical and conservative basis. Depretis has formed a new majority, which includes all the Right, and he is just now excluding the most advanced Liberals from his cabinet. These political moves were an obvious necessity at a moment when Italy was begging for admission to the great German alliance; it was clearly obligatory to say good-by to all the Irredentists—to the bitter enemies of the house of Hapsburg. For a long time we shall hear nothing of the Trentino, nor of Trieste, nor of the Dalmatian coast. Italy will not feel *irredenta* in these lands; she will perhaps feel suddenly *irredenta* elsewhere—in Nice, perhaps in Savoy, perhaps in Corsica.

The journey which Marshal von Moltke has just made to the tunnel of Mount St. Gothard, to the passes of the Alps between Piedmont and the French coast, has not been much commented on by the press; we speak not lightly of the great warrior who conducted the German army before Sedan and Paris. Marshal von Moltke knows history as well as geography. At the time when the House of Austria possessed not only the Austrian provinces, but Spain and the Netherlands, and the north of Italy, communications between the Duchy of Milan and Germany took place through the Grisons and the Valtellina. During the Thirty Years' War France kept her eye constantly on these passes of the Alps; Richelieu sent the famous Duc de Rohan, the great Protestant chieftain, to the Grisons, in order to hold the passes against the imperial armies. The Dukes of Savoy, who had the keys of the Alps on another side, played a most important part in all the wars; their policy was constantly oscillating between France and the House of Austria—so much so that it was proverbially said that if at the end of a war the Duke of Savoy was found on the same side as at the beginning, it was because he had had time to change sides twice. So long as Austria was mistress of Venetia and of Lombardy, France had always to fear an invasion of her southern provinces, though she was reassured by the natural antagonism between the Austrians and the Italians. When the French armies crossed the Alps with Napoleon III., and made Italy free from the Alps to the Adriatic, it seemed as if France had secured the friendship of Italy forever, and as if the Alps stood higher than ever between Germany and Italy. But there is no gratitude between nations, and the Italians thought, perhaps, that Victor Emmanuel paid his debt largely when he abandoned Savoy and Nice to his allies.

When we think of the state of Italy after Novara; when we remember Italy divided between many principalities more or less subject to Austria, and when we see what she is now, we must confess that such an extraordinary fortune, helped by reverses as much as by victories, may well inspire the Italian people with an inordinate ambition. The unification of Italy has been accomplished without any difficulty; the soldiers of all the provinces are mixed in every regiment—the shepherds of the Abruzzi and of Sicily are drilled with the fishermen of Como. The House of Savoy has no more opponents. Rome has become the capital, and her splendor speaks more to the soul than the splendor of any other capital in the world.

Italy has been the spoiled child of destiny in this second half of the nineteenth century, even more than Prussia; and however different these two countries may be in their tastes, in their views of life, in their instincts, it seems almost as if a hidden force united them and brought them together. Italy dreams of becoming the most important naval Power in the Mediterranean Sea. Her ironclads, few in number, are the largest in the world. The development of trade in the Suez Canal will give to the inland basin of the Mediterranean as much importance as it had in the times of antiquity. The ambition of Italy is probably natural, but her impatience is too great. It seems as if she could not wait. She is restless and uneasy, and she is always offering her alliance for a definite and immediate object. She was ill at ease when the alliance between Northern Germany and Austria-Hungary was concluded, at the time of Prince Bismarck's journey to Vienna; she felt the importance of this great event. It seemed as if every Power in Europe sunk into insignificance when the vanquished and the conquerors of Sadowa reconciled themselves.

The circumstances of Bismarck's journey were very peculiar, and great irritation was felt at the time in Russia against Germany, and especially against Austria. War was almost imminent between the Russians and the Austrians. Prince Bismarck extended his protection over Austria; he forced a reconciliation between the sovereigns; he defeated the party of the Austrian Archdukes; he showed Austria the way open on her eastern frontier; he consoled her for her losses with the hope of new acquisitions in the Balkan peninsula. Germany and Austria together have now resumed the old mission of the House of Austria; they are forming an immense barrier against Russia; and Austria is preparing to extend her influence in the provinces of the Turkish Empire, which, sooner or later, will be detached from this empire.

The advances made by Italy to the allied empires were not heeded at first. Italy was made to wait some time at the door—there was some irritation felt against her at Vienna; but last summer the negotiations were brought to a close. The indiscretions of the German official press helped soon to spread the news of the alliance, discussions took place in the parliaments of Rome, of Vienna, of Pesth, and finally of Paris, and now the truth is known. The last interpellation was made in the French Senate by the Duc de Broglie, and the Minister of Foreign Affairs of France admitted that there

was a *rapprochement* between Italy and the two German empires. He confessed modestly that his Ambassadors knew no more about it than the public; that they had no special information about matters which had been kept secret. The sum of his speech was this: "We only know what everybody knows." We are therefore ignorant of the exact tenor of the arrangements which have taken place, of the conditions of the new alliance, of the eventualities which it foresees. The fact remains, and it is important enough, that Italy has issued from her state of isolation; that she has joined the two most powerful empires on the Continent; that her relations with France have become cold, and that in Tunis she alone opposes all our projects, as far as she can.

Correspondence.

THE SCARCITY OF MINISTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some of us who are accustomed to look, and seldom in vain, to the columns of the *Nation* for careful accuracy of statement, were taken somewhat aback by the account, in the number for the 31st of May, of some matters connected with the Presbyterian General Assembly at Saratoga. It is there stated that it is the function of the Board of Ministerial Relief "to supplement the salaries of the ministers of poor congregations." In fact, the fund for ministerial relief goes to the aid of ministers who have broken down or who have been worn out in the service, and to their needy families, and not at all to the supplementing of salaries. Further on it is said that, notwithstanding the pressing need for an increase of salaries, the Board of Relief raised last year only $18,000. The Board of Relief raised upward of $87,000. There is no "board" in our Church charged with the duty of supplementing salaries, though there is a side-fund for this purpose administered by the Board of Home Missions.

The statement to the effect that "the Protestant minister . . . has to be a man of some scholarship," comes, in so far as the Presbyterian ministry is concerned, quite within bounds. In fact, with rare exceptions, the student for the ministry in the Presbyterian Church must pass years in preparation for college, and then four years in college, and then three years (and not unfrequently he passes four years) in the Theological Seminary; and there is little risked in saying that among the professions of this country the Presbyterian ministry is by far the best educated. And the pittance our students receive from the Board of Education takes them quite out of the range of President Eliot's animadversions.

The impression made by the last paragraph of the article in the *Nation* can hardly be accepted as fair and just, even were the statement strictly accurate in form. That statement seems to intimate an inordinate, if not an extravagant, interest in foreign missions, to the neglect of needed work at home. Now, our Church expends annually not far from nine and a half million dollars upon its pulpit, its mission work, and its other work, somewhat over a half-million of which is devoted to the carrying of the elevating, purifying truths of the Gospel to the blinded, degraded tribes of heathendom. And, however it may appear to others, a considerable proportion of our Presbyterian people, as they look at this disparity, will rather blush at the meagreness than complain of the magnitude of the minor sum.—Yours respectfully,

W. P. Breed.

Philadelphia, June 6, 1883.

A "SECESSION LAY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Thanking you for the kindly color of your notice, in the *Nation* of May 31, ult., of a little volume of verses lately published by me ('Lenore, and Other Poems'), I ask leave to correct a natural but no less hurtful misconception therein fallen into by the reviewer respecting the composition on page 184 entitled "Desdichado."

This poem, however "spirited," as alleged—for which I thank you—and though even more "markedly political" than was suggested, yet has no more reference to the late civil war or to the issues of secession than to the Edict of Nantes or the Cracovian Catechism. It was meant to express the lamentation of certain of the people of Virginia over the defeat of their candidate pledged to maintain, in the office of Governor, the financial honor of the commonwealth—the Hon. John W. Daniel. If you will take the trouble of reading the verses anew, especially in connection with the scrap of Horace prefixed to them, you will perceive that they will not bear the construction you put upon them, and that they refer to a candidate, and not primarily to any cause.

The misconstruction has meaning and moment for the public, and especially for the Northern public, only so far forth as the correction of it serves to illustrate how strangely liable are the people of this section of the country to have their utterances read to mean something never intended nor even dreamed of by themselves. I am a priest and no politician, and certainly no *temporum actorum laudator;* and I grieve that what is best on both sides of the ancient, now dismantled, lines cannot come together more quickly by grace of some saving solvent.—I am, very heartily, Edward S. Gregory.

PUBLISHERS' PROFITS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, Mr. Franklin, in the *Nation* of May 31, clearly points out the folly of attempting to determine the profits of author and publisher from a comparison of the gross receipts in each case. His statement, however, that "it is quite possible that, from the point of view of theoretical justice, not only five to one, but fifty to one, is an understatement of the difference between profits" in favor of the publisher, merely echoes the popular opinion that authors as a class have a genuine grievance against publishers on the score of an unfair division of the net avails arising from the publication of books. I believe this opinion is erroneous, and therefore does publishers an injustice. No doubt it owes its existence in large measure to the ignorance of those who hold it as to the cost attending the publication of books. Many individual cases of gross injustice upon the part of publisher toward author have occurred, and many others are likely to occur in the future, but with these I am not at present concerned. Are publishers as a class unjust to authors? It is so alleged.

It is clear that the author whose reputation is established can have no ground for complaint, as he holds "the balance of power," and is in a position to dictate fair and honorable terms. Publishing houses are eager for books by the writer the merit and popularity of whose published works are a sufficient guarantee to insure the success of any new production from his pen. Neither can the author grieve over an unjust division who sells his manuscripts outright for an agreed sum; nor he who chooses to become his own publisher, and thus obtains whatever profit his venture realizes. The grounds for a real grievance can therefore exist, if at all, only with those writers who publish on the royalty plan, agreeing with their publishers to receive as their share of the profits a percentage of the retail price of their books. It is safe to say that the average sale of all books brought before the public on this plan will not exceed five thousand copies for any one publication; or, in other words, of books so published, those whose sale is less than five thousand exceed the number whose sale is greater. Now, any reliable publisher, I think, will verify the statement that unless the sale exceed five thousand copies, the author, nine times in ten, receives a larger profit than his publisher. For example, from a book whose retail price is fixed at $1 50, and which reaches an ultimate sale of five thousand copies, the author, at a royalty of fifteen cents for each copy sold, will invariably derive a profit of $750, while the publisher's profit will oftener be less than more than that sum. Were seventy-five cents, as erroneously stated in the *Nation* of May 17, his true profit, he would realize a gain of $3,750. But before he can ascertain his profit he must subtract from this amount the cost of the electrotype plates, the cost of the manufacture of the five thousand copies, the expense of advertising, shipping, collecting, his losses from bad accounts, the cost of unsold copies and of those given for review, and any other outlay not here specified.

However much "theoretical justice" might be made to yield the author, practical justice cannot well do more for him than publishers as a class are now doing. W. W. Williams.

Cleveland, O., June 4, 1883.

AN INTERNATIONAL SUPERSTITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: After reading, in your issue of April 26, of Prof. A. De Gubernatis's mention of a Russian superstition, that sick children might be cured by passing them through the trunk of an oak split open; and again, in your issue of May 31, the letter of your correspondent, F. A. Hassler, showing that a like superstition existed in England, I am prompted to say, that the same superstition has existed, if it does not now exist, in this country. About ten years ago I heard a trustworthy gentleman say that a father and mother, who are known to me, once passed an infant son through a split oak sapling, in order to cure him of a rupture. The father and mother stood on opposite sides of the tree and passed the child through from one to the other three times; after which the sapling was bound together again. My knowledge of the family concerned leads to the inference that this occurred less than forty years ago, and either in Alleghany County, N. Y., or in Cumberland County, N. J.—Respectfully,

Lucius Heritage.

University of Wisconsin, Madison,
June 4, 1883.

THE ORIGINAL "MASHER."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: From the remarks of your English correspondent on the "Masher," I infer that he is totally unaware that the term is of American origin, and has been in current use here a good many years—that is, among certain classes of people. The masher, however, in crossing the Atlantic, has changed his character completely—has become a wonderfully more respectable person than he is here at home. The original (I may say Simon pure) masher is an individual who successfully employs his blandishments upon persons of the opposite sex. In short, the term has no significance here except a sexual one. The American masher is a dandy and a "swell"

only so far as his fine clothes may aid him in getting into the good graces of the other sex, and no further. He does not affect any particular style of dress with us; therefore he is a very different sort of person from the dude. Another fact: the masher here may belong to either sex, though the male masher, of course, predominates. For instance, some months ago at a variety performance, I heard "Brudder Bones" propound to his opposite "end man" of the tamborine the conundrum, "Why are the gentlemen in this audience like boiled potatoes?" and the answer finally given was, "Because they're so easily mashed"—*i. e.*, persons especially susceptible to female blandishments. Hence the masher in this country is most generally a libertine, and the word is considered low, and has never had any currency in respectable society. S.

DORCHESTER, MASS., June 2, 1883.

["S." is, we believe, perfectly right in thinking the word "masher" of American origin. It is the modern analogue of "lady-killer," and reflects the progress that we are all the time making in force if not delicacy of expression. The verb "to mash," applied to operations conducted against the heart of the opposite sex, was in common use at Harvard some years back, and the noun "masher" and the type have been evolved from it. We are perfectly willing to believe our correspondent that there are now to be found lady mashers in Massachusetts — these corresponding to the old-fashioned flirt. It would obviously be silly for a dude to try to mash any one; but he clearly might be mashed.—ED. NATION.]

MORTON'S NEW ENGLISH CANAAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your notice of the reprint of Morton's 'New English Canaan,' edited by Charles Francis Adams, jr., the date of original publication is conjectured to be 1632. It may interest your readers to see the original title-page (lacking in the specimen preserved in the Library of Congress). It is taken from a copy in the possession of a gentleman of this city, and is as follows:

NEW ENGLISH CANAAN
OR
NEW CANAAN

Containing an Abstract of New England;
Composed in three Bookes.

The first Booke setting forth the originall of ye natives, their Manners & Customes, together with their tractable Nature and love toward the English.

The second Booke setting forth naturall Indowments of the Country and what Staple Commodities it Yealdeth.

The third Booke setting forth, what people are planted there, their prosperity, what remarkable accidents have happened since the first planting of it—together with their Tenents and practice of their Church.

Written by Thomas Morton of Cliffords Inne gent. upon tenne yeares knowledge and experiment of the Country.

Printed at Amsterdam
By JACOB FREDERICKSTAM
in the Yeare 1637.

W. M. C.

NEW YORK, June 10.

THE TARIFF AND LOW WAGES IN ITALY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "W.," from San Remo, in No. 930 of the *Nation*, is not very well advised when he says, "The tariff in Italy is the highest in Europe, *if not in the world.*" If he had said the *taxes* were the highest and most oppressive to the poorer classes, he would have been nearer correct. But the tariff is in general not near as high as our own, and not much, if any, higher than those of other leading nations of Europe. It only needs a little comparison with the tariffs of other countries to show this.

The ordinary income of the Italian Government for 1882 was, in round numbers, 1,360,000,000 francs. The income from the tariff was 143,000,000 francs, being only about 10½ per cent. of the entire income. I have not before me the value of imports for 1882, but for 1881 it was 1,332,000,000 francs, and the change for 1882 will not have been great. So we see that the tariff in Italy averages about 10 per cent. ad valorem on imports. With us, under the tariff still in force, I believe the general average is 43–45 per cent. ad valorem, or more than four times what it is in Italy; and more than two-thirds the entire expenses of our Government are derived from our tariff, instead of less than one-tenth, as in Italy. You see, then, how erroneous your correspondent is when he conveys the idea that the Italian tariff is higher than ours.

But when compared with the tariffs of other leading countries of Europe, he is nearer correct, for our tariff is several times higher than that of any other civilized country. In France, for instance, the average duty on imports is only about 7 per cent., and the Government derives about 14 per cent. of its ordinary revenue from that source, or, for 1882, 404,000,000 francs out of 3,044,000,000. In England the average import duty is only about 5 per cent., and levied on but a few leading articles, while the Government derives over 22 per cent. of its revenue therefrom, £19,000,000 sterling out of £86,000,000. For the German Empire the average import duty is about 7 per cent. ad valorem on all imports, while the proportion of the revenue of the Empire derived from this source amounts to nearly 33 per cent.—197,000,000 marks out of 610,000,000 for the year 1881–82. My figures do not pretend to be exact, but approximate only. I should also remark that Italy has commercial treaties with nearly all the countries of Europe, by which her general tariff is considerably modified.

If we go into particulars, we find the import duty on some articles in Italy very high, while on others that would bear a high duty it is very low—very badly adjusted, like our own tariff in this respect. Petroleum, for instance, has to pay considerably over 100 per cent. on the value; but a gold watch, whatever may be its value, pays only 3 francs (60 cents) duty, and a silver one 1 franc (20 cents), while by our tariff they would pay 25 per cent. ad valorem. The duty on wheat or flour imported, which your correspondent complains of as so high that the laboring classes cannot use it, is only about two-fifths what it is according to our tariff. The duty on cotton cloth which your correspondent says would cost 5 cents a yard in Massachusetts would be 30–40 per cent., according to grade, thus adding 1½ to 2 cents a yard to the cost, whereas according to our tariff the duty would be 5 *cents* a yard and upward, or 100 per cent. and upward.

It is very true, as your correspondent says, that labor is very poorly remunerated in Italy—perhaps worse than in any other civilized country. The price of 90 cents a day paid a mason at San Remo would be high wages in South Italy, where 50–60 cents would be the common price. An able-bodied peasant-man gets at most 20–30 cents for field work, and a woman not over 15–20 cents, and nothing found them.

But what has the Italian tariff to do with these wages? If it be the high tariff that produces the high wages with us, as our protectionists would have us believe, why are the wages in Italy not higher than in England and France, where the tariffs are lower? The fact is, the cause of the low wages and unproductiveness of labor in Italy is to be sought elsewhere than in the Italian tariff, just as the high wages and productiveness of labor with us are owing, in a great measure at least, to other causes than our high protective duties. Italy is spending for her army and navy and for her heavy debt more than the country can bear, and her taxes are not only enormously high, but levied in a way to be extremely oppressive to labor and to nearly all kinds of enterprise. This is the real cause of low wages and the extreme poverty of the laboring classes in Italy—at least, such is the opinion of an OBSERVER.

NAPLES, May 26, 1883.

THE DUBLIN MURDERS AND THE NATIONAL LEAGUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You have upon several occasions very properly animadverted upon the attitude assumed by many of my countrymen regarding the Park murder trials. These animadversions come with double force from you, who have been so consistently appreciative of all that is good and true in the Irish cause. I owe it to myself, and to such of my countrymen in the United States as these lines will reach, to say that the events of the last few months in Dublin, and the way in which they have been received in some quarters, have had a very terrible and discouraging effect upon many Irish Nationalists and members of the Irish National League like myself. They have compelled many of us very searchingly to consider our position and duties. We have deep convictions; we are willing to spend and be spent in the cause of Ireland; we have endeavored to see good, and appreciate motives and necessities, in the terrible position in which our country has been placed whenever since the Union it has been necessary for her to obtain reforms; but circumstances connected with the exploitation of the Carey ring have been of too ominous a character for us not to take deeply to heart. For myself, I desire to say that, although the juries in the late trials undoubtedly were packed, I consider the verdicts to have been eminently just, and such as juries having regard to their oaths could only have found. From my heart I pity the unfortunate men whom misgovernment impelled to conceive and carry out the Park murders and other outrages; but none the less they were guilty, and, unless morality and duty are to be theorized into soup, they richly deserve the fate that has overtaken them. As to the means by which their crimes were brought home to them—as to the instruments employed—they were such as, under the circumstances, no civilized community could have hesitated to employ.

This Irish problem, is, in truth, a terrible and a grim problem, in the settlement of which the whole English-speaking world is directly interested; for, until it is settled in some way, evils are being generated fatal to the peace and happiness and prosperity of this country, and which, carried to other lands, cannot but bring with them the elements of difficulties and disorders. What more terrible comment can there be upon the plight to which the political conscience can be reduced than the attitude of mind which we deplore? What more terrible comment upon the necessities to which a government may be forced that has once entered on a wrong road, than, what I believe to be the truth, that in the previous series of trials here it is more than probable that two innocent men at least were sent to the scaffold? The unsatiated longings

of our hearts for a country to love and serve and be proud of must in some way be met. The responsibilities and educating influences of self-government must in some way be thrown on us. (Separation, which I should deplore, would be better than the present relations between the islands.) To these ends I am willing to strive in a National League; but if we cannot have a league of conscientious and honest men and gentlemen, it were better to leave the future to Providence, to bear the present as best we might, and to strive to keep our hearts pure.

Respectfully yours,

ALFRED WEBB.

DUBLIN, IRELAND, May 24, 1883.

Notes.

W. S. GOTTSBERGER publishes this week an historical romance, entitled, 'A Tragedy in the Imperial Harem at Constantinople,' by Leïla-Hanoum, translated from the French by Gen. R. E. Colston.

J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press a 'Dictionary of Miracles,' by E. Cobham Brewer, author of the 'Reader's Hand-book'; and 'Young Folks' Whys and Wherefores,' a story, illustrated.

A. H. Smythe, Columbus, O., will publish immediately 'Church Law: Suggestions as to the Sources and Scope of the Law of the P. E. Church in the United States,' by J. W. Andrews.

R. Worthington has nearly ready 'A Century of Roundels,' by A. C. Swinburne.

It appears from a special introduction that we owe a cheap edition of Herbert Spencer's 'Data of Ethics' (D. Appleton & Co.) to Prof. Goldwin Smith's onslaught upon it in the *Contemporary Review* of February, 1882. Three replies to Prof. Smith are appended to this introduction.

The same firm have added two more Tennyson volumes to their "Parchment Library." The first two were 'In Memoriam' and 'The Princess.' These last are designated 'Poems' simply, but they contain the old favorites which antedate the time of the Crimean War; for example, the youthful productions ("Juvenilia"), the "Lady of Shalott," the "Dream of Fair Women," the "Day-Dream," etc., etc., but not "Maud," nor the "Charge of the Light Brigade," nor what has come after. No choicer form for these lyrics could be wished.

The General Society of Mechanics and Tradesmen of the City of New York, which was founded in 1785 and incorporated in 1792, has commemorated the first ninety-five years of its useful existence in a handsome volume of 'Annals.' These records have been edited by Messrs. Thomas Earle and Charles T. Congdon. They are for the most part a simple account of official changes, of annual reports, and of the most important steps taken by the Society in the management of its property or the execution of its benevolent objects. They reflect but little the current of public affairs. The Society early drew off from politics, and did not maintain its active interest in protection manifested in 1787. It made one venture in a State lottery and lost nine pounds by the operation. An unguarded real-estate purchase brought it into litigation with Aaron Burr. For thirty-seven years (1821–58) it supported a free school for children of deceased members, upon the close of which it established a still flourishing free school for mechanical drawing. Its most successful foundation was the well-known Mechanics' Library, which now contains 60,000 volumes. Pensions, lecture-courses, and scholarships have been other forms of its beneficence, and its funds have been so well invested that its net assets exceed $600,000. The colors it gave to the First N. Y. Vol. Engineers were the first to wave over the recaptured Forts Pulaski and Wagner. One custom has been observed since 1786, when it was resolved that smoking be not allowed at the annual meeting. The volume contains many interesting illustrations, a list of members from the beginning, and a good index.

The American Antiquarian Society, Worcester, Mass., has published a 'Partial Index to the Proceedings' from 1812 to 1880, compiled by Mr. Stephen Salisbury, jr., and supplemented by a table of contents of all the Society's publications and reprints to April, 1883, by Mr. Nathaniel Paine. Among the publications are Thomas's 'History of Printing' and other works procurable at the prices affixed. The whole makes a thin volume of 86 pp., 8vo. Since 1880 the Proceedings have been regularly indexed.

Our German correspondent called attention last year to the valuable Hessian archives at Marburg. The current issue, No. 25, of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and American Biography*, contains one of the papers drawn from this source, communicated by Dr. Friedrich Kapp. This is a translation of the report of the court-martial for the trial of the Hessian officers captured at Trenton, December 26, 1776, which was held six years after the event, and conveniently laid the blame on two officers who were killed in Washington's attack.

The latest souvenir of John Howard Payne is published by E. Bierstadt, 58 Reade Street, New York. It consists of a folding card-board on which are artotype portraits, facing each other, of the poet and of Mr. W. W. Corcoran, at whose expense Payne's remains have been brought from Tunis and interred in Washington. Both these portraits are from life—Payne's from a daguerreotype taken in 1850, possibly the same which served as the basis of the engraving by G. R. Hall which we noticed last week. If so, it is only fair to say that the latter is greatly idealized.

We have been glad to speak well of the Boston *Wheelman*, which has most of the marks of a tasteful and well-edited magazine. Its 'Art Supplement,' however, does it great injustice, for this reproduces some "decorative" monstrosities—verses in a bedlamitish chirography interspersed with symbols—which standing alone are seen in their true ugliness and vulgarity. Nor do we much fancy the fashion followed in the scenic illustrations, of framing and dissecting the design. Better things have appeared and may appear again in the *Wheelman*.

It seems fitting that the works of Charles Dickens should, in token of his beginning life as a reporter, be translated into shorthand. There lies before us Part 4 of the 'Pickwick Papers' in Pitman's Shorthand Library (20 Paternoster Row, London).

The origin of engraving is commonly assigned to proof-taking by workers in *niello*. This idea has been used by B. A. Wikström in his 'True Story about Gutenberg's Invention of Printing' (J. H. Hamburger). Seven stanzas on seven illustrated plates tell the love of Frederic for Bertha, his carving her initials and his own on a bench, his filling the channels with cherry juice, his sitting down on them to conceal them from his master Gutenberg, his subsequently sitting on his master's paper roll, and the discovery. There is a rude humor in these designs, though the scale is rather large for the amount of it.

The publishers of 'The Realm of Tones,' Messrs. Schuberth & Co., call our attention to an index to the musical celebrities pictured and commemorated in that work, which we had overlooked when writing our notice of it last week.

Mr. Leslie Stephen, whose retirement from journalism to undertake a great British Biography we have already noticed, has been called to the newly-founded Professorship of English at Cambridge—an appointment notoriously of the fittest, and having this attraction for the incumbent (who, by the way, is a Cambridge man) that, as the *Daily News* points out, he will be untrammelled by the example of a predecessor in forming his scheme of instruction. Mr. Stephen was for many years the London correspondent of the *Nation*.

Mr. Henry Harrisse has recently read a memoir and exhibited before the Institute of France an original Portuguese chart and documents *of the year* 1502, showing that the entire coast line of the United States from the Gulf of Mexico to the Hudson was discovered, explored, and named in twenty-two places by Spanish or Portuguese navigators as yet unknown, between the years 1500 and 1502—eleven years previous to any known expedition to the mainland—and that the regions visited by Gaspar Corte-Real are the east coast of Newfoundland and Greenland.

The fourth issue of 'Dramatic Notes, an illustrated Year-Book of the Stage' has recently been published (London: David Bogue; New York: Scribner & Welford). It covers the year 1882, and is edited by Mr. Austin Brereton, who prepared the preceding number, the first having been done by Mr. C. E. Pascoe, the projector of the work, and the second by Mr. Wm. H. Rideing. A title and a table of contents for the four years are given with the present issue, and the four numbers are worth preserving as the best available record of the English stage. The editing is neither as careful nor as ample as in either of the French dramatic annuals, and the illustrations are hardly models of portraiture; but the little book is acceptable in default of a better.

The visit of Mr. Henry Irving, the foremost of English actors, to this country next fall gives interest to a recent English announcement. Mr. Brereton is about to publish 'Henry Irving, a Biographical Sketch,' illustrated with sixteen portraits of the actor in character by Messrs. Edwin Long, R. A. Whistler, Bromley, and Fred. Barnard, and Mrs. Allingham and others. Mr. Irving, who has before now contributed 'An Actor's Notes on Shakspere' to the *Nineteenth Century*, has recently written a brief preface to an English translation of Talma's essay on histrionic art, and he also introduces Mr. W. H. Pollock's forthcoming translation of Diderot's 'Paradoxe sur le Comédien.'

Any educational institution or museum desiring a small collection of antique pottery has an excellent opportunity to acquire one in a series of thirty vases and kylices of Etruscan and early Italian ware, beginning with the archaic work found under the lava on Monte Albano, and coming down to the best period of Etruscan art, belonging to a gentleman living near Chiusi. The price is 1,500 francs, plus the cost of transportation. Mr. Stillman, 8 Via Leopardi, Florence, will undertake the packing and shipping, if desired, without charge.

One of the proofs of natural theology has always been the universal belief in a God, on the principle "quod semper, quod ubique, quod ab omnibus." It has been strenuously or doubtfully affirmed by theists, and denied by atheists, sceptics, and by those who would make all religious truth depend on revelation. M. Lesserteur, a professor in the French Seminary of Foreign Missions, is perhaps of the latter class. At any rate he denies the universality of the belief. It is very easy, he says, to excite the belief in a deity in men who have it not; it is only necessary to call their attention to the structure and mechanism of the world, and they will easily avow that this palace must have had an archi-

tect, that this movement must have had a mover. But not all men have this belief before it is brought to them. From one who was a missionary, and is now a teacher of missionaries, this testimony is not without weight.

The Société d'Histoire de France has just completed the publication, in three volumes, 8vo, of the Memoirs of Nicolas Goulas, who was for thirty years attached to the person of Gaston d'Orléans. The first thirteen chapters were purposely omitted, being exceedingly frank confessions of the writer's early life. Some idea of them was given by M. A. Cellery in a lecture before the Cercle St.-Simon in February, when it was announced that he intended to publish these 'Confessions de Goulas,' with original researches for the last twenty-three years of the autobiographer's career.

Part 6 of Vogt and Specht's illustrated work on the 'Mammalia,' the appearance of the first number of which, treating of the Old World monkeys, we had recently occasion to notice in our columns, carries the subject completely through the Quadrumana and Cheiroptera (bats) to the Insectivores. Although, strictly speaking, the work may be said to be of a popular character, it does not partake of that ordinary stamp of popularity which distinguishes the vast majority of entertaining treatises on natural history. Adequate space is allotted to the description and habits of the individual species, and, in addition, no inconsiderable attention is paid to anatomical details, geographical and geological distribution, and the broader questions connected with the origin and evolution of forms. It is hardly necessary to state that the name of Professor Vogt is a sufficient guarantee of the general accuracy and proper selection of the materials of the text—conditions unfortunately too frequently overlooked in works of a similar nature. Too high praise cannot be bestowed upon the illustrations by Specht, which in artistic finish, in truthfulness of detail, and in faithful representation of that inexpressible something inseparably associated with the *tout ensemble* of animal belongings, probably equal, if, indeed, they do not surpass everything of a similar kind hitherto attempted, not even excepting the masterpieces of Wolf. The plate in Part 5 representing the jaguar and capybara is in the very best style of the wood engraver.

—Some two years ago, a young man from Wisconsin, walking in High Holborn, was driven into a second-hand book-booth by a sudden shower. He noticed a bundle of books marked "American," and took one out. Happening to open it at the fly-leaf, he read there, in a very plain hand, the name "John Howard Payne." Thereupon he readily paid the shilling which was all that was asked for the book, and made many inquiries to discover how it came into the hands of the dealer, but without success. The book, a small one (5⅛ x 3 inches), was entitled 'The New Pocket Biographical Dictionary,' by John Kingston, 2d ed., pp. 308. It was published at Baltimore in 1811, when Payne was nineteen, and an actor on the stage in that city. It is a not improbable conjecture that he bought the book then and there and carried it to England, to which he voyaged within a year or two. When his fortunes declined and he was even thrown into prison, he naturally lost his books. The little Baltimore manual, redolent of "Sweet Home," associated with early successes, and so convenient for the pocket, may well have been one of the last possessions he gave up. Either Payne, or some subsequent English owner, had the book very tastefully bound in calf. One page of the fly-leaf bears the following words to guide the binder, which are scrupulously copied on the back of the book: "American Literature, Biography, Biographical Dictionary, Kingston." Whether these directing words are in Payne's handwriting is a question as to which chirographic experts disagree, and which outsiders must feel incompetent to decide. The words, "John Howard Payne," betoken a youthful writer. The hand is handsome, and every letter is distinctly and gracefully formed. The six words on the opposite page, while having many points of resemblance to the signature, are more carelessly and hastily written, and argue an older writer. It is worth inquiry whether autographs of Payne are common, and especially whether any of them are earlier than that in the Kingston volume.

—The April number of the *Antiquary* contains a paper by Mr. Gomme—one of the best-known and most successful investigators in the early history of institutions—upon "Nottingham Borough Records." The key to the article is found in the following passage: "English municipal history has never completely claimed for itself a Roman origin, because there are such extensive breaks in the chain of evidence as to forbid such a proposition ever reaching beyond the domain of theory—theory, too, of special schools of thought. But, on the other hand, English municipal history has not fully claimed for itself its origin in the village system of agricultural communities, which belongs to the Teutonic and to the Celtic origins." For the matter of that, any continuity in municipal life from Roman to mediæval times is now given up, we believe, even for Italy and southern France. The line of inquiry here indicated is the same as that of Mr. Round in his articles upon the "Domesday of Colchester" (see the *Nation* for March 8); it has also been followed out upon the Continent, especially in Germany (very elaborately) by Von Maurer, and in Belgium by Van der Kindere. Mr. Gomme gives, from the Nottingham records, several cases of the right of preëmption, which is so integral a part of the village-community theory. In the same number is an article on "The Church Ceremony of Marriage," showing how "the Church prayer-book has preserved for us a genuine piece of folk-lore," the very words even of the old formula being incorporated in the ritual. Another article is by Mr. C. F. Keary, upon "The Coinage of Christian Europe"—a continuation of articles upon classical numismatics. This paper traces very clearly and completely the history of coinage from the later Roman Empire to the Middle Ages. For the Middle Ages proper one would desire a little more fulness, particularly in regard to the successive debasements of the coins and the history of the *mark*.

—While of no startling vigor in its political department, the new organ of English Conservatism, the *National Review*, promises rather better than fairly well in literature, poetry excepted. For instance, Mr. Edward Ford discourses instructively, in its third number, on the "Names and Characters in the 'Vicar of Wakefield,'" and contends, more than plausibly, that the places and persons of the tale were far from being pure inventions. Wakefield being no other than Wakefield, it is maintained that the "small cure, . . . worth only £15 a year," "a journey of seventy miles" from that town, which the Vicar left for it, is to be identified with Kirkby Moorside, rated in "the King's books," at the time when Villiers died there, at £14 0*s.* 10*d.* The surroundings of the Vicar's new home correspond in all respects with ascertained facts. The "prattling river" in front of the Vicar's house was the Dove. Welbridge, where Moses sold the horse, we have in the petty market-town of Welburn, about a mile distant from Kirkby Moorside. With less certainty, Mr. Ford traces "Thornhill Castle" to Helmsley, finds "the Wells" at Harrogate, and locates "the races" at Doncaster. "Eleven miles" from the parsonage of Dr. Primrose was the prison to which he was taken, and this, most probably, was at Pickering. With equal likelihood, as it is shown, it was at Boroughbridge, near the confluence of the Ure, the Swale, and the Ouse, that Olivia narrowly escaped being drowned "in the midst of a rapid stream." George Romney, it is suggested, after adduction of strong circumstantial evidence, was the artist who executed the memorable picture, of undisposable frame. The benevolent Sir Wm. Thornhill, it is pretty conclusively made out, was intended for Sir George Savile, the friend of both Burke and Pitt, or "Savile of Thornhill," as he was commonly designated, with reference to a parish included in his ancestral domains. But these details must suffice. As Washington Irving says of Goldsmith, in a strain of mainly divinatory criticism the truthfulness of which Mr. Ford has interestingly ratified by his researches, "scarcely any adventure or character is given in his works that may not be traced to his own many-colored story."

—The preface to the second edition of Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps's 'Outlines of the Life of Shakespeare' (Longmans, Green & Co.) bears date of April, 1882. Our tardy notice of this monumental work was published in the following December, when the indefatigable author was closing his preface to a third edition, which reached us about a month ago. The 703 pages have become 736, though, by an unusual and inconvenient compensation, the index has shrunk even within its former too scanty dimensions; and one who wishes to compare the differences in the two editions has, from lack of any table of contents, a genuine taste of the difficulties of Shakespearian research. It will be found that the Outlines proper have been enlarged just one-half, with no corresponding increase in the Illustrative Notes, which are, however, so greatly modified by omissions that the owner of the third edition can by no means rest contented that he has not the second, as in the case of most books. This remark equally applies to other portions, such as the body of essays following the Notes, from which we now miss those on the spurious plays, on North's Plutarch, on an early notice of Hamlet, on Lord Pembroke's actors, on the Coventry Mysteries, on the First Folio. In general, we remark an improvement in the arrangement and classification, the transpositions being so numerous that one may easily err in estimating the extent of the changes.

—No great discovery leading directly up to the poet has been made in the past year, but it is getting nearer to his person to be shown a facsimile of Richard Quiney's letter, the only one addressed to Shakespeare known to exist. This whole episode has, with good judgment, been much dwelt upon in the new edition, and we realize the perpetual gleaning in the author's chosen field when reading the fresh particulars about the husbands of Shakespeare's married daughters—namely, Dr. John Hall and Thomas Quiney—and the daughter of the former pair, Mrs. Thomas Nash. For one slight particular, we remark that this lady, Elizabeth Hall, is now said to have been born in February, 1608, whereas the second edition gave her baptismal date precisely as February 21. More is made of the subject of Shakespeare's birthplace, and two views are given of the cellar, the only unchanged portion; of his butcher's apprenticeship; of his marriage, and the inferences to be drawn from the circumstances attending it; of Ben Jonson's first contact with him; of Davenant's attach-

ment for his godfather, etc. There is also some valuable discourse about the horrible and the brutal in the plays of Elizabeth's time, and a timely reminder that London in Shakespeare's day offered plenty of opportunities for the lover of horticulture and of wild flowers to gratify his eye and enlarge his knowledge. Besides the pictorial illustrations already mentioned, is one of Stratford-on-Avon in 1749, from an old print, and a facsimile of a list of holders of corn in the ward in which New Place was situated, from the original MS. return dated February, 1598, containing Shakespeare's name for ten quarters, the third (quantitatively) on the list. It would be superfluous to speak of the wealth of information concerning the manners and customs of the period covered by this work, for which we are under lasting obligations to Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps.

—"A non-graduate officer" writes:

"E. I. R.'s" explanation of truthfulness in schools is confirmed by the experience of West Point, where every pupil represents a distinct Congressional district, and the standard is as high as at the University of Virginia. As is well known, personal discipline at the Military Academy, down to very small details, is exceedingly strict. But for every breach reported the inculpated cadet is required to offer an explanation. If he denies the offence, the matter is dropped, on the supposition that the reporting officer was in error. The rare deviation from exact and honorable truthfulness, by an occasional moral idiot, proves the rule by the social pressure and ostracism that at once follow. This is not born of geography, but depends upon the happy traditions of the past carefully preserved by *esprit de corps*."

GALTON'S DEVELOPMENT OF THE HUMAN FACULTY.

Inquiries into Human Faculty, and its Development. By Francis Galton, F.R.S. Macmillan & Co. 1883. Pp. 380.

PRETTY much all that Mr. Galton has written since the publication of his work on 'Hereditary Genius,' in 1869, is here brought together in something like logical sequence, to some extent rewritten, and with much that is new interpolated. Traces of the fragmentary origin of the work still remain, and make it, as the author intended, more suggestive than encyclopædic.

If photographs of several members of the same family, between whom a strong family likeness exists, be reduced to the same size, degree of lightness or darkness, and the same point of view, superposed with much exactness so that the eyes coincide, and then exposed successively to the sensitized plate of a photographic camera—each an equal fraction of the whole time required to take a perfect picture—it is evident that those points and features in which the several component faces coincide will stand out clearly, while those in which they differ will be blurred. This process Galton described five years ago and named composite portraiture; but his methods and results are here greatly improved, and a number of typical portraits are given. In one case, six members of the same family, male and female, parents and children, are combined into a portrait which friends of the family recognized as typical of it, while differing as to which member was represented. A remarkably clear portrait of Alexander the Great is produced from six different medals. Portraits of criminals, consumptives, royal engineers, etc., are obtained in some cases from fifty or even one hundred components. These pictorial averages, Galton thinks, may be serviceable in retouching negatives, in obtaining the physiognomy of crime and diseases, and in defining the most vigorous type toward which a race is developing along the line of its best tendencies. They also suggest how "general impressions are founded upon blended memories," and perhaps how sense-perceptions are combined into ideas. So, too, statistical tables and moral averages reveal general traits by emphasizing the common and eliminating the individual elements. If brain-cells respond to the action of summated impressions in a way at all analogous to the response of the photographic plate to the successive portraits, then the old strife between nominalism and realism has received something not altogether unlike an experimental solution. At any rate, psychology receives a most suggestive illustration; and this, for a science which deals so largely with things invisible, impalpable, and imponderable, is of the greatest value.

Men of the best stock, or "eugenic" men, differ from those of a lower order in two fundamental ways. First, they have more energy or capacity for work, a high degree of which, our author thinks, distinguishes all his scientific countrymen. Idiots are feeble and listless, domestic pets grow dull if stimuli to activity are removed. Even fleas keep dogs active and well-conditioned, which if kept too clean cease to thrive. True, if all men were energetic, there would be little scope for pity or charitable institutions; but it would be wrong to preserve a sickly breed for the sole purpose of tending it. In the second place, eugenic men distinguish more grades of sensitiveness between a just observable impression and an intensity of it which passes over into pain. The feeble-minded often burn themselves intentionally because the impression is not so strong as to be more than a pleasant tonic. Words, Galton tells us, distinguish but five degrees of weight; blind men's touch is not finer than others, and savages and sailors do not have finer senses for forest or sea than cultivated men, but they merely know better what to look for and where to seek it. His tests revealed the fact that old people cannot hear high notes, but that some animals—*e. g.*, the cat—have an exquisite ear for tones higher than man can ordinarily recognize. In another section, anthropometric laboratories are suggested where methodic photographing of school-children shall be undertaken, and where members of each family shall go at stated intervals to be not only photographed, but weighed, measured, etc. This kind of lore must, of course, be of slow growth, but we owe this to our children, who are but the prolongation of our own lives, and need all the experience and self-knowledge of mind, body, and character we can give them. Gregarious habits all the way down their long pedigree have made it very hard for individual men to stand, think, and act freely and independently for themselves. Quakerism is recruited from among the color-blind, and favors color-blindness. The comparative effects of nature and nurture are best studied in the life-history of twins, thirty-five pairs of which are collected, to show how predominant heredity is over education and environment. Almost every kind of animal has, at some time and place, been trained and more or less domesticated. Those now most subject to man are chosen by slow selection as the most docile, strong, useful, etc. The objective efficacy of prayer is made extremely improbable, we are told in another section, by statistics. The longevity of royal personages, which is prayed for so universally, is not increased. Insurance offices do not discriminate risks on life or property prayed for; commercial enterprises are not more secure if devout men are shareholders, or when religious bodies deposit their funds or charities in them. Missionary vessels are no better risks than trading ships, and slavers have an exceptional immunity from accident. The writer pleads for a greater sense of freedom, opportunity, and responsibility; for public funds for portioning poor marriageable girls. Even charities might be directed in this and other ways toward the other great duty of furthering evolution by stocking the world with more "healthy, intelligent, moral, and fair-natured citizens."

The most fascinating, as well as the most original, part of the book is the sections on visualizing, of which the author's previous studies have been greatly extended, and the different forms of which are illustrated by scores of diagrams. Mental imagery is often so vivid that artists can draw from it, as Blake did. Seeing faces in the fire or forms in the clouds, blindfold chess-playing, playing or speaking from notes or manuscript seen only with the mind's eye, are forms of it. It is hereditary, dulled by language and book-making, strongest in children, not connected with sharpness of vision, and far more comprehensive than any field of vision. Bushmen show it in their drawing, and Eskimos in their remarkable geographical instincts. It is cultivated unconsciously by dressmakers, tacticians, engineers, architects, by most systems of mnemonics, and the means of developing it should be taken into most serious consideration by educators. The study of "number-forms" is only one aspect of it. About one person in twenty sees numerals in some form of visual imagery. Figures are seen or thought along lines: with sharp curves and angles at ten or twelve, and at twenty, thirty, forty, etc. These lines or forms bend now up, now down, are now lost, run behind the back or into the pocket, follow the outline of hills on the horizon near the home of childhood, and are constant for years in the same individual. Often colors are associated with numbers, vowels, or even consonants. These were named by Beuhler and Lehmann, who first observed them, photisms; and Galton gives colored diagrams of several interesting cases of this color-association, and connects the whole topic with the experience of visionaries and dreamers, and suggests that partial irrigation of the brain by the blood, causing suppression of action in some parts of it, may have something to do with it. The forms which animals seem to carry in their psychic organization of the habitations they build with such regularity; the order in which storks and other birds migrate in flocks; fashion in artistic forms and curves, as in the patterns of prints, wall-paper, missals, etc.; and even the form of handwriting, so expressive of character as Galton thinks it to be, are illustrations of the all-pervasive nature of the visualizing faculty, which seems to be checked only by the rise of abstract ideas and the habit of thinking in words instead of in pictures.

One result of these studies is to emphasize the distinction now so often referred to by psychologists, but never as yet well wrought out, between the relative preponderance of aural and of visual impressions in determining the type of mental development. This would no doubt have been more apparent to the author if he had extended his observations to younger children, in whom there seem to be two leading genera or types of intelligence—the one in which mental operations are mainly in terms of sight, especially form, supplemented by motor impulses, and even by tactile impressions, and to which all memorized or other forms of words are difficult, unnatural, and misleading, because all their natural thinking is visualization; and another, very different, type, in which verbal forms appealing to the ear and following audible signs are dominant. The latter order of minds have little imagination, little constructive or inventive power, are not natural geometers or seers in any Swedenborgian sense, but are often endowed with high poetic and rhythmic faculties. The author has almost no light to shed on the origin of the

visualizing faculty ; in fact, its cause and development do not seem especially to have interested him. In a word, Mr. Galton has given us his view of a great number of topics of contemporary psychologic and anthropologic interest with freshness and originality, but with little evidence of a knowledge of the rich and varied literature already existing on some of his topics, which are touched upon only in the most superficial, conjectural way. His remarks about, *e. g.*, visionaries, enthusiasm, and test-weights, have little value, and are naïve and unsuggestive. This, however, for all who labor in a field so vast as psycho-anthropology has now become, is at some points probably almost a form of fate.

BAZAINE'S APOLOGY.

Épisodes de la Guerre de 1870 *et le Blocus de Metz.* Par l'ex-Maréchal Bazaine. Veritas vincit. Madrid : Gaspar; New York: Westermann & Co. 1883.

This book is in the main the same as that published in Paris, in 1872, before Bazaine was court-martialled, under the title 'L'Armée du Rhin depuis le 12 août jusqu'au 29 octobre, 1870.' To this have been added some extracts from the evidence before the court, and a long preface on the true lines for the defence of France, and on the proper organization of the army. The additions are, however, by no means very valuable, and the book is a decidedly unsatisfactory one.

The difficulty with it is two-fold. First, Marshal Bazaine, though a soldier of great experience, is not an educated man. He does not know how to write a clear and connected narrative; still less is he equal to the task of arraying in their proper order the reasons which induced him to take the course which ended in the surrender of his army. In the second place, his case is a bad one: it would be difficult for the most ingenious counsel to make out a good show for him. Singularly enough, however, Bazaine does not seem to realize the fact that all the presumptions are against him. He does not seem to see that a Marshal of France, commanding four corps and the Imperial Guard, who unlimbers his guns, dismounts his cavalry, eats up his horses, and finishes his campaign by the surrender of his army and one of the strongest fortresses in France, must give an account of himself that shall be clear and unambiguous, or be lost in the opinion of the world. Never in modern times did such a gigantic surrender take place as this of Bazaine's—150,000 regular troops in good order and condition, besides nearly 25,000 more sick and wounded, with all the artillery and supplies of all kinds that belong to such a force, and all the arsenal of Metz into the bargain. An officer who would defend such a termination as this to his campaign must address himself seriously to his task, or he will not be listened to, and ought not to be listened to.

Yet Marshal Bazaine writes in a tone of calm superiority to his critics, as if the animadversions on his conduct were the result of personal dislike or jealousy, and as if his fate in being cashiered was an inscrutable dispensation of Providence. The reader will find little in his narratives to supply the need of such a treatment of the case as is evidently required. Instead of attempting a systematic defence of his course, Bazaine gives us plenty of criticism on his brother officers—much of it, no doubt, deserved—plenty of criticism on the Government, no doubt, also, in great part deserved; and in our opinion the valuable part of his book consists of these passages, and in the light they throw on the state of the French army in this most unfortunate campaign. That an army organized, as was the French army, on the old-fashioned system should be in a state of greater or less need of various important articles of food and equipment when it had effected its concentration, is not to be wondered at. The territorial system, of which the Prussians were the inventors, avoids most of the causes which bring about these evils. In that system an entire army corps, with all its administration, is concentrated, in time of peace, in a certain district. When war is declared, therefore, no time is lost; there is no need of hurry; there is no fetching of one regiment from this distant garrison in the interior to this village, or of another regiment from a seaboard fortification to that village. Nothing of the sort takes place; all is easy, because there is concentration in time of peace. Every one knows what struggles an army like that of France at the time of which we speak, or that of England to-day, has to make in order to concentrate a respectable force in a short time, and it was remarkable, at least to any one who knew anything of the former efforts of European armies with like organization to effect a rapid concentration on the frontier, that in 1870 the French succeeded as well as they did. They had on or near the Rhine in the first week in August—that is, between two and three weeks after the declaration of war—the First, Second, Third, Fourth, Fifth, Sixth, and Seventh Corps d'Armée, and the Imperial Guard; and though all the ranks were not full, there could not possibly have been fewer than 260,000 to 280,000 men in line. Bazaine, according to the Prussian Official Narrative, surrendered 173,000 men; he could not have lost from casualties in action and sickness fewer than 20,000 or 25,000 men. His command must, therefore, originally have numbered nearly 200,000 men. MacMahon had upward of 50,000 men at Wörth, and two divisions of the Fifth Corps were not engaged there. There were, therefore, troops enough to have made a vigorous and more or less successful campaign.

But the faults of the Emperor and his corps commanders began with the beginning of the campaign. Of course, we cannot enumerate them here; it is sufficient to say that when Bazaine assumed command of the forces near Metz on the 13th of August, the army under MacMahon had been driven into the interior, and there was nothing for the Army of the Rhine to do but to retreat. Whether Bazaine purposely delayed this retreat or not, is not made any clearer to us by this book of his. That he was under orders to retreat is admitted; that he gave corresponding orders to his lieutenants is admitted; he alleges that they lost time, and very likely they did. But it is pretty clear from more than one passage, that Bazaine himself did not believe in the advisability of allowing his army to continue its retreat; that he dreaded its effect on the morale of the troops, which the early disasters had sensibly affected; and that he thought he could recover this morale by winning a victory in which he should stand on the defensive. In other words, he thought the army fit only for a defensive battle, and that Metz was the proper place to fight such a battle, or series of battles. Yet he does not squarely tell us that this was his idea, and maintain that it was a sound one. Here as elsewhere there is a great lack of frankness.

Then, when he is surrounded at Metz by the army under Prince Frederick Charles, he leaves us equally in the dark as to his real intentions of staying or breaking through. Did he on August 31 and September 1, in what is called the battle of Noisseville, really attempt to cut through the enemy's lines? We have no question that he did not so intend, the dilatoriness of the preparation, the ostentatiousness of his proceedings—"considerable uproar and the incessant clanging of military bands" attracting "the attention of the Prussian watch-posts," according to their Official Narrative—the lame, inefficient way in which the successes of the 31st were obtained (for they were not followed up), are sufficient reasons in our mind for this conclusion. It was not that there was any difficulty about breaking through the lines; the accounts leave us in no doubt whatever as to this. But Bazaine was afraid of what would happen to his army after he had got it into the open field. Yet, while he gives us in more than one place materials for this conclusion, he does not formulate it himself, and then defend it like a man.

Lastly, the same double pleading is to be seen in his treatment of the charge that his conduct in staying in Metz and surrendering there was influenced by political motives. Of course he does not admit this; yet he certainly did try to obtain his instructions from the Empress after the revolution of the 4th of September; he sent General Boyer to Chiselhurst for this purpose. The note which he gave this officer begins by saying that "the Marshal commanding the Army of the Rhine, inspired with the desire which he has of serving his country and of preserving it from its own excesses, interrogates his conscience and asks himself, if the army placed under his orders is not destined to become the *palladium* of society: that *the military question is settled:* the German armies are *victorious,*" etc. This note is dated October 10, 1870. One may hold what opinion one may choose about the relative merits for France of the two forms of government, the Empire and the Republic; one may even condemn (as does the writer) the action which, at the dictation of a city mob, changes the form of government of a great country in the midst of a foreign war; but no opinions of this kind or of any kind can shield Bazaine. An officer in the command of troops, who, when his country is in the midst of a foreign war, admits the success of the enemy, and prates about his army having for its function the "salvation of society" instead of the duty of persistent resistance to the common enemy, is a traitor, and deserves to be shot.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

A Treatise on the Law of Executors and Administrators. By James Schouler. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1883.

A Treatise on the Constitutional Limitations which Rest upon the Legislative Power of the States of the American Union. By Thomas M. Cooley, LL.D. Fifth edition, with considerable Additions, giving the Results of the Recent Cases. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1883.

Remedies and Remedial Rights by the Civil Action, according to the Reformed American Procedure. A Treatise adapted to use in all the States and Territories where that system prevails. By John Norton Pomeroy, LL.D. Second edition. Boston : Little, Brown & Co. 1883.

The American Decisions. Containing the Cases of General Value and Authority decided in the Courts of the Several States, from the earliest issue of the State Reports to the year 1869. Compiled and annotated by A. C. Freeman. Vols. xlii., xliii. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. 1883.

Essentials of the Law. Vol. ii. Comprising the Essential Parts of Stephen on Pleading; Smith on Contracts; Adams's Equity (including Pleading and Procedure). For the use of Students at Law. By Marshall D. Ewell, LL.D. Boston : Soule & Bugbee. 1883.

A Digest of the Statutes, Equity Rules, and Decisions upon the Jurisdiction, Pleadings, and Practice of the Circuit Courts of the United States; including Decisions relating to Pleadings and Practice at Common Law, in Equity, Appeals in Admiralty, and in Criminal Cases. By Erastus Thatcher. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1883.

An Epitome of Leading Common Law Cases, with some Short Notes Thereon. Chiefly intended as a Guide to 'Smith's Leading Cases.' Fifth edition. By John Indermaur, Solicitor. American edition, by Charles A. Bucknam and Bordman Hall, of the Boston Bar. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1883.

A Selection of Leading Cases in the Common Law. With Notes. Second edition. By W. Shirley Shirley, B.C.L., M.A. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1883.

Commentaries on the Law of Statutory Crimes; including the Written Laws and their Interpretation in General; what is Special to the Criminal Law, and the Specific Statutory Offences as to both Law and Procedure. By Joel Prentiss Bishop. Second edition, rewritten and enlarged. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1883.

Law and Lawyers in Literature. By Irving Browne. Boston: Soule & Bugbee. 1883.

Mr. Schouler's 'Treatise on Executors and Administrators,' according to his preface, "completes an investigation of the law of personal property, whose results the writer commenced publishing ten years ago." The "results" have been published in four volumes, which cover, besides the matters treated in the present work, such important titles of the law as gifts, sales, bailments, including carriers and innkeepers, etc. The author declares rather cautiously that he has been "not without direct encouragement from his professional brethren." This statement will not be questioned by any one who knows how eager lawyers are for new collections of cases; but Mr. Schouler's books have never shown any tendency to become works of authority, and it is difficult to imagine that they will ever supplant such treatises as, let us say, 'Benjamin on Sales' or 'Williams on Executors.'

Notwithstanding the length of the period which has elapsed since Mr. Schouler began his researches, his work itself produces the impression of a rather reckless rate of speed. When he undertakes, for instance, to discuss the important subject of fixtures (§ 227), which he disposes of in three pages, his statements of the law are so vague, if not inaccurate, that it is wholly impossible to say what he believes the rules on the subject to be. The "cardinal rule," he says, is, that when the controversy arises with an heir or devisee, the right to fixtures "is most strongly taken in favor of the heir or devisee," whereas, if it arises between a life-tenant and a remainder-man, the law "appears to favor the soil rather less"—which reads very much as if the whole thing went by favor, and the common law was guided by an affectionate interest in heirs and devisees, on the one hand, and an aversion for remainder-men, on the other. It is not impossible to discover and state what the rules regarding fixtures between the various classes of claimants are, for it has been done by other writers; and it would be utterly out of the question to decide a given case by means of what Mr. Schouler says on the subject. In short, what he has to say is so ill-considered as to be nearly useless. To turn to another topic, which the author rather funnily calls the "suitable testamentary condition" of the testator, the time and attention of courts have, every lawyer knows, been greatly occupied with the burden of proof in insanity cases. Some courts have held that the burden was upon the proponent throughout; others that it shifted, under certain circumstances, to the other side. Here is what Mr. Schouler says: "And the burden being accordingly upon the proponent of a will to establish full testamentary condition and capacity in the testator, no mere presumption of sanity and free will can avail, as an independent fact, to outweigh proof to the contrary." This is about the most summary and obscurely expressed disposition of the matter that we have ever met with. These are fair examples taken quite at random from Mr. Schouler's pages. His style is very peculiar, and he frequently seems to be guided by a determination under no circumstances to be led into definite or precise statements of the law, as if he really felt that this was the pitfall the conscientious text-writer in these times ought most carefully to avoid.

The second edition of Judge Cooley's 'Treatise on Constitutional Limitations' appeared in 1871, and since that time three more editions have been called for. The demand for the book is in part occasioned by the fact that it is the only treatise in existence which is exclusively devoted to the subject of which it treats; constitutional limitations being taken up only incidentally by Story and other text-writers. It should be added, however, that Judge Cooley's reputation as a judge is very great, and on this account whatever he has to say on any branch of law carries with it an authority sufficient to place the book in a different category from ordinary text-books. His style has the merit of clearness, and his collection of authorities is full.

The new matter in the second edition of Mr. Pomeroy's work on 'Remedies' is chiefly confined to the notes. A new and fuller index has been added. The codes of procedure which have within the last thirty years supplanted the old common-law system throughout the United States are substantially alike, and the courts have applied to them a pretty uniform system of construction, and reached everywhere the same general conclusions. Mr. Pomeroy's treatise is not as well known as it should be to practising lawyers, correct pleading being something the importance of which is apt to be overlooked in the hurry and looseness of modern practice. It is an excellent work, and we can cordially recommend it to the profession.

The forty-second volume of 'The American Decisions' contains cases originally reported in various authorized series in the years 1843–1846. The leading case of Masterton *v.* The Mayor, etc., of Brooklyn gives Mr. Freeman an opportunity for a note on damages for breach of an executory contract; Wilson *v.* Mackensie, for a discussion of the liability of naval and military officers for acts done under color of military authority; and there are a quantity of short notes on a variety of subjects which add to the value of the volume. The forty-third volume comprises cases taken from the regular reports of the years 1845–46. There are long and important notes by Mr. Freeman on the separation of the jury in civil and criminal cases, sheriffs' sales, the protest of commercial paper, riparian rights, the negligence of common carriers, warranty of title to land, and the liability of stockholders.

As a handbook for students, Mr. Ewell's 'Essentials of the Law' is in many respects convenient. It can hardly take the place of the works on which it is founded, and in the case of 'Stephen on Pleading,' which is in itself a model of condensation, it is not desirable that it should. Stephen is in his own way a classic, notwithstanding the fact that the system which he explains so beautifully is obsolete, or nearly so, all over the civilized world.

The practice of the United States courts is a tangled maze of antique and modern systems, full of puzzling and unexpected problems, which are often solved differently in different circuits. We have known a circuit judge to be so bothered by the question of jurisdiction over a corporation alleged to be "found" within the district—a matter as to which the law ought to be perfectly plain—that he was obliged to refer it, in order that evidence might be taken, and the case dragged on for months before it could be ascertained whether the defendant was or not before the court. Only lawyers constantly practising before United States courts know how full of stumbling-blocks is the path of the most wary practitioner through them. A digest of the whole subject, like that of Mr. Thatcher, covers a wide field, and, if well arranged, must prove of great utility to the profession. We cannot say that we think the system adopted by Mr. Thatcher a judicious one. Decisions upon jurisdiction and other subjects he puts under the sections and subdivisions of the Revised Statutes which confer jurisdiction. This, we think, is a mistake—first, because, since the Revised Statutes are changed from year to year, no one is in the habit of going to a digest to see what they are; second, the only convenient arrangement of decisions is by subjects, the titles being of course as full as possible. Mr. Thatcher uses this method more or less throughout his book, but in such a way that he is obliged to have recourse to an index to enable any one to look up the subjects in the digest. Cross-references carried as far as possible on the plan adopted in recent volumes of the United States digest seem to us the true way.

Mr. Indermaur's 'Epitome' was intended for the use of English students, and specially for "articled clerks not having sufficient time to fully peruse" Smith's Leading Cases. It is also of value to students who have plenty of time, as it condenses the cases, and the law bearing upon the points decided in them, in a very convenient and compendious form. The American notes consist mainly, if not altogether, of cases. To make the American work as good as the English, the editors ought to have gone more deeply into the subject. The rules laid down in Hadley *v.* Baxendale, for instance, would bear much further examination than they have thought it worth while to give.

The first edition of Mr. Shirley's 'Leading Cases' appeared in 1880, and the appearance of a second in three years seems to prove that his somewhat original method of treating the authorities has its uses. The cases he gives are not transferred from the reports as they stand, but are reported by the annotator in the free, humorous manner of a newspaper. This method Mr. Shirley thinks likely to fix the cases in the mind of the student—for it is students rather than practising lawyers for whom the book is intended. The notes do not go deeply into the subject, but, taken with the case, present the more important points of the law developed from it by the judges in a brief compass. As an assistance in preparing for legal examinations, we should think the book would be of considerable service.

Mr. Bishop's work on 'Statutory Crimes' completes a series of useful text-books covering the whole field of American criminal law, criminal evidence, criminal pleading, and criminal practice. It treats of the principles of statutory interpretation, with special reference to the criminal law; of the statute of limitations in criminal causes; pleadings in cases arising out of private statutes and municipal by-laws; and discussions of the offences "purely or in substance statutory," as distinguished from "mere statutory extensions of common-law crimes."

The book has been long out of print, and the present edition is almost a new work, so greatly has it been increased in size and value. Mr. Bishop's accuracy and fulness of citation make all his books of use; their permanent value is impaired by a peculiar carelessness of language, which in a book on interpretation is sometimes grotesquely unfortunate. For instance, he quotes from Lieber the rule that but one meaning can be attached to the same sentence, and then gives as an illustration the following: "If the Legislature should direct the officers of a court in a particular emergency to *sit or stand*, the meaning could not be that a part might sit while the rest stood." But why not? Such a legislative direction might be compared to that in ordinary life, to "play or pay." This injunction, if addressed to a number of persons, would certainly give each one of them liberty of choice in the matter.

Mr. Browne, in 'Law and Lawyers in Literature,' has made an entertaining collection of extracts, with a running comment of his own, which exhibit the lawyer as he appears to the novelist, the dramatist, and moralist, and the man of letters in general, from the earliest times down to the present day. Speaking broadly, his book shows that in popular literature the lawyer has always cut a rather sorry figure. He is usually represented as tricky, disingenuous, and crafty, if not positively dishonest. His main object is to extract a living from his clients' misfortunes, by hook or by crook; and in the accomplishment of this object he spares neither age, sex, nor condition. He is a social harpy, dreaded by all, and most by those who are unlucky enough to have to come into relations of confidence and trust with him. There are, of course, good lawyers in literature—men who are the soul of honor, who protect purity and innocence, run down the wicked and bring them to justice; who are good angels to their clients. It is through such as they that the vile plots of Quirk, Gammon & Snap are unravelled and exposed. They have, however, made comparatively little impression upon literature; the fame of Oily Gammon and his wicked partners survives ('Ten Thousand a Year,' by the way, having been written by a lawyer, is a rather strong illustration, for Mr. Warren certainly did not intend to blacken the profession), while the name of their worthy rival perishes and is forgotten. Dodson & Fogg are names handed down to posterity, but who treasures up the memory of the virtuous antitypes of Dodson & Fogg?

But we see the same thing in other professions and walks of life. If lawyers are usually represented as sharp, mean, or dishonest, doctors are popularly very doubtful characters. We have no doubt that the physician in literature might be made the subject of a book not very unlike Mr. Brown's. Again, what a picture of the publisher and his treatment of the author might not be drawn from the literature of the modern world. Poets and novelists have not been prolific in the type of the good publisher. Neither can it be said that the literary man has spared himself. Poets have, to be sure, usually held up poetry as the most ennobling occupation in the world; and the "bard," whatever he may be at home, is in verse a semi-sacred character still, as he was actually in classical times. But prose-writers have made a vast amount of fun of the literary career; have held the literary man up to ridicule and contempt; have laughed at his Bohemianism, his everlasting insolvency, and his often disgraceful relations with his creditors. A book about literary men as they appear in literature might be made, we fear, an amusing exposure of the craft; the type of the good, wise literary man—the literary man as he ought to be—is rather unfamiliar.

Various explanations of these curious facts may be suggested, but, taken altogether, they show that the use of the lawyer in literature is not exceptional, and does not necessarily prove that the popular notions about him are fair. He has so many doubtful companions that we are forced to believe that the true explanation is that literature finds it easier to make profitable use of bad types than of good ones; in other words, that people like to read about bad people of all kinds, and derive more excitement from such reading than from descriptions of good ones. A literature in which the lawyer should always appear as he is described by theoretical writers, as unselfishly taking his part in the work of administering justice, telling the truth at all hazards, never seeking to gain an unfair advantage, overreach his client, or even his antagonist; in which a doctor should always be the minister of health and physical salvation, and never humbug his patient with unintelligible words or mysterious suggestions of unsuspected ailments; in which a publisher should never take advantage of an author's poverty, and so on, might be a literature more improving than that which we have, but it could hardly be so entertaining.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

Nights at the Play. By Dutton Cook. London: Chatto & Windus; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1883. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 324 and 350.

Four Original Plays. By A. W. Dubourg. London: Bentley; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1883. 8vo, pp. 239.

A Mingled Yarn: Sketches on Various Subjects. By Henry Edwards, Comedian. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1883. 8vo, pp. 157.

Gaulois et Parisiens. Par Léopold Lacour. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern. 1883. 8vo, pp. 325.

THERE may well be two opinions as to the advisability in general of gathering together into a book scattered and often incongruous articles, written at random and on the spur of the moment for immediate publication in a newspaper or magazine. A volume so compounded must always of necessity be lacking in finish and in unity of design. Yet the plan has its advantages no less than its disadvantages, and in no department of literature is the advantage greater in proportion than in dramatic criticism. Almost the only knowledge we can have of the theatre of the past is that afforded us by the contemporary dramatic critic. The play may remain, but reading is not seeing, and, to judge it exactly, we need to know how it affected the audience when it was acted. The actor's life may be written by himself or another, but the best part of many recent histrionic biographies is the judicious selection and comparison of the opinions of competent critics at first hand. For these reasons, we are very glad indeed that a dramatic critic as learned, as honest, and as able as Mr. Dutton Cook has been moved to gather together the chief of the criticisms which he has contributed, first to the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and afterward to the London *World*, during the past fifteen years. He has thus given us an outline-history of the course of the drama in England—a history not elsewhere accessible in a form at once convenient and compact. Mr. Cook's first criticism is dated September, 1867; and, as the final entry in Prof. Henry Morley's 'Journal of a London Playgoer' is dated February, 1866, the gap between the two books is not wide, and we may fairly accept Mr. Cook's book as a continuation of Professor Morley's. The 'Journal of a London Playgoer' reaches from 1851 to 1866, and Mr. Cook's volumes now cover the years 1867–1882. As Genest broke off in 1830, and Doran closed his 'Annals of the English Stage' with the death of Edmund Kean, there is a gap of only some twenty years in this full record of acting and play-writing in England. Mr. Cook's criticism, as we see it in the hundred and fifty newspaper essays here reproduced, is straightforward and even-tempered. It is the result of a large experience of the theatre, of wide reading about it in all its forms, both in England and France, and of a deep love of the stage. It has no superabundant charity for American actors or American dramatists. It has occasion to consider the acting of the late Charles Fechter, of Mr. Henry Irving, of Mr. Joseph Jefferson, and of Mr. Edwin Booth, as well as (with the aid of a minute acquaintance with theatrical *ana*) many important revivals of old plays; and it sets forth simply the impression produced on a competent observer by many of the best and the worst new plays acted in England of late. The book is disfigured by a few misprints; but, as some amends, it has an index, not perfect, but better than those usual in English books.

It happens that Mr. Cook has not reprinted his criticism of "New Men and Old Acres," a modern comedy written by the late Tom Taylor and Mr. A. W. Dubourg, which achieved a fair success several years ago. Mr. Dubourg has been trying to get another play acted ever since this collaboration with Tom Taylor, but with scanty success; so now he makes bold to publish four of them in a volume, to which he prefixes a few pages of personal explanation. He declares that the plays are published partly because he is "tired of hearing that original English plays are never written nowadays, and partly because the popular taste for farcical comedy and burlesque tends to crowd out work of serious purpose, be it intensity of drama or the satire of comedy." The four plays are "Greencloth: a Story of Monte Carlo," "Vittoria Contarini: a Story of Venice," "Land and Love: a Story of English Life," and "Art and Love: a Sketch of Artist Life." Of these, the last is perhaps the best: it is in one act only, and it deals with that fascinating creature, the actress in private life. The rest are longer and more ambitious. Their chief defect is that they are all hard, strained, unsympathetic. At times they are clever, but at all times they are too forced: a French critic would say that all Mr. Dubourg's work was *trop voulu*. Even the language is hurried and hasty. Yet there is very undeniable cleverness in these plays; and if Tom Taylor were alive to iron them into smoothness, to lend them the aid of his neat literary touch and of his exceptional experience of the stage, they might be acted with applause and admiration.

'A Mingled Yarn' is a book about the stage only by courtesy, and inasmuch as it is the work of Mr. Henry Edwards, comedian. It is an altogether unpretending and pleasant collection of sketches and addresses, many of them prepared for the Bohemian Club of San Francisco, of which Mr. Edwards was president, if we are not misinformed, and before which they were delivered. The most important paper is the first—a record of a three weeks' stay in Mazatlan—which gains value from Mr. Edwards's scientific experience. Perhaps more interesting to the student of the stage are the addresses on Shakspere and on the late Edwin Adams, the actor.

It is now nearly two years since we reviewed M. Léopold Lacour's 'Trois Théâtres,' a volume of careful and acute criticism of the plays of MM. Émile Augier, Alexander Dumas, *fils*, and Victorien Sardou. His present work is a continuation of the former. As that was devoted to the more eminent and serious of living French

dramatists, this deals with the lighter and more amusing. After an essay on "Le Théâtre et la Vérité," M. Lacour applies himself to the analysis of the comic drama of France, and more particularly to the farces and comedies of M. Eugène Labiche, of MM. Meilhac and Halévy, and of M. Edmond Gondinet. No two critics would agree on all points, and there is more than one criticism on which we could join issue with M. Lacour; but taking his book as a whole, it is admirable, and worthy of very high praise, the first essay especially, in which he considers the conventions of the drama, and, following M. Sarcey, divides them into two classes—those which inhere in any dramatic representation, and are therefore eternal and unchangeable, and those which are temporary, and depend only on current notions. His essays deserve to be read and pondered by all who are interested in the drama.

The Golden Chersonese, and the Way Thither. By Isabella L. Bird (Mrs. Bishop). G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Miss Bird sees so much more, and knows so much better how to tell her story, than the ordinary tourist, that we gladly forget her few faults. She is apt to wave the British flag in your face when you least expect it, and her Jingoism (p. 325) is pronounced and undiluted. While dull and over-conscientious travellers resemble the coachman who got the engagement by professing a habit of keeping his wheels as far away from the precipice as possible, our writer marks the dizzy verge with her tire half over. We do not say that because she leaves the beaten tracks for unrutted spaces, she utterly leaves the road of truth, nor would we ever charge upon one of her statements a catastrophe over the precipice of falsehood. In all her four books of travel, however, old residents, whether of Hawaii, the Rockies, or Japan, find an exhilarating view of things which is certainly original. Whether of eye or of pen, the outcome as seen in her letters makes charming reading. Let the people in Japanese ports dub her previous work "bird-tracks" if they will, we hail with delight her new footprints in the Malay Peninsula.

The present work, which owes its ambitious title to her sister, now deceased, to whom her letters were addressed, describes the latter part of her journeyings in the Far East in 1879. Looking at an old map of Ptolemy's (which the president of our Geographical Society once had reprinted in *Harper's Weekly*, to show that the discovery of the Nile sources and tributaries was but a rediscovery), we find the name *Aurea Chersonesus* applied to the extreme southerly part of Asia, which we know as the Malay Peninsula, and the natives as Tanah Malayu (Malay Land). To this region Miss Bird came after leaving Japan and China. After an introductory chapter packed with fresh information about the Malays, she quotes the closing paragraph of her 'Unbeaten Tracks in Japan' which mortices into her narrative proper. Seven chapters are devoted to China, or rather to Canton and Hong Kong. In spite of the fact that our author here traverses familiar ground, paved with many layers of guide and travel books, we esteem this the most attractive portion of her work. We have read scores of descriptions of Canton, yet we know of nothing in the language which so vividly reproduces to the fireside traveller the lights and shadows of this most typical Chinese city. Even the execution-grounds and prisons become new places. To the Chinese she is not attracted. "After the courteous, kindly Japanese, the Chinese seem indifferent, rough, and disagreeable, except the well-to-do merchants in the shops, who are bland, complacent, and courteous." She thus sums up her impressions of Canton:

"Canton is intoxicating from its picturesqueness, color, novelty, and movement. . . . As we sat at midday at the five-storied pagoda, which from a corner wall overlooks the Tartar city, and ever since, through this crowded week, I have wished that the sun might stand still in the cloudless sky and let me dream of gorgeous sunlight, light without heat; of narrow lines rich in color; of the glints of sunlight on embroideries and cloth of gold, resplendent even in the darkness; of hurrying and colored crowds in the shadow, with the blue sky in narrow strips high above; of gorgeous marriage processions, and 'the voice of the bridegroom and the voice of the bride'; of glittering trains of Mandarins; of funeral processions, with the wail of hired mourners clad in sackcloth and ashes; of the Tartar city, with its pagodas; of the hills of graves, great cities of the dead outside the walls, fiery red under the tropic blue; of the 'potter's field,' with its pools of blood and crosses of crucifixion—now, as on Calvary, symbolical of shame alone; of the wonderful river-life, and all the busy, crowded, costumed hurry of the streets, where blue banners hanging here and there show that in those houses death has stilled some busy brains forevermore."

Of Hong Kong, which reminds her of Genoa, she says: "Moored to England by the electric cable, and replete with all the magnificent enterprises and luxuries of English civilization, . . . the colony is only forty years old." Its perfect winter climate, its costume and color, its hospitalities and many charming residents, and even its indispensable and enjoyable feuds in state, church, and society, which constitute "civilization," do not long detain her, for she is, by her own confession, "a savage at heart, and weary for the wilds first, and then for the beloved little home on the wooded edge of the moorland above the Northern Sea." So, setting out on a French steamer for Saigon, she glances at the military cafés, and spends twenty-four hours in peering into the native huts with gridiron floors, well smoked with an ever-burning Gehenna beneath, from which all good mosquitoes perforce keep away. After a glance at Singapore, its fluctuating society and its tigers, she arrives at Malacca, and is installed in one of the rooms of the old Stadthuis, the architectural witness of former Dutch occupation, when "Malacca" meant to us the whole peninsula. As the Dutch ousted the Portuguese, so the British turned out the Hollanders. The first European, in the triple capacity of explorer, merchant, and robber—or, in one word, buccaneer—was Albuquerque, the same whose name is given to two of our towns in New Mexico and Texas. The Portuguese rediscovered "the Golden Chersonese" (as Milton calls it) in 1513. After attacking the "Moors" of Malacca and putting them to the sword, he built a fortress fifteen feet thick out of the ruins of their mosques, and received the friendly overtures of the alarmed King of Siam. The Pope was duly informed of this "victory of the cross," and by the year 1600 the commerce of the Straits was in the hands of the Portuguese. Their crusade, however, made them many enemies, and among them the Sultan of Atcheen. In 1641 the Dutch, having made advantageous treaties with several of the Malay sovereigns, drove away the Portuguese, and held Malacca and the chief commercial ports. The history of the part played by the Dutch in the civilization of the Far East has never been written, and an English book is not much better than a French or Spanish one to search for truth and knowledge concerning it. Miss Bird, of course, wastes no praise on the Hollanders, whether the topic be religion, architecture, or government. In 1775 the British acquired Penang, in 1798 Wellesley, in 1823 Singapore, and the following year Malacca. This "Regio Latronum," as the Romans even in their time dubbed it, now felt the vigor of British rule. Piracies and monopolies were alike suppressed; free trade, a wise administration, and treaties "have gradually laid a solid foundation for the future prosperity of this distracted land." These small but important "Straits Settlements," with their few hundreds of British residents, are really among the most valuable of the British possessions in the Far East; though but small islands or narrow strips of coastland, their exports and imports in 1880 amounted to $161,765,000, or more than three times those of Japan.

Into the crowded details of description, of adventure, of word-pictures, of facts on which brilliant generalizations and vivid epigrams are built by our author, we have not space to enter. The same wealth of style, of fascinating narrative and dramatic grouping of effects, and, above all, the imperial quality of knowing what to leave out, make her last book peer to any of its predecessors, and, for popular use, the best work in English on the Malay Peninsula. Two maps and a dozen illustrations add to the value of the work, which, despite the formidable accounts of centipedes, tiger-mosquitoes, leeches, betel-juice, krisses, rogue-elephants, and Malays "running amuck," will divert many a globe-trotter into the Straits of Malacca, and carry envy into the breasts of ten thousand would-be travellers.

Three Lectures on Subjects Connected with the Practice of Education, delivered in the University of Cambridge in the Easter Term, 1882. By H. W. Eve, Arthur Sidgwick, and E. A. Abbott. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

The English, who, by constitution and tradition, are determined followers of "the rule of thumb," have of late years taken the whole subject of education very much to heart; and no wonder, for the most apathetic teacher could hardly fail to be stirred by the incessant activity of Germany in this direction, and Mr. Matthew Arnold has interpreted Germany to England. About four years ago the University of Cambridge "determined to institute lectures on and hold examinations in the history, theory, and practice of education. For the first two years complete courses of lectures on the practice of education were delivered. . . . After this it seemed to the syndicate better to revert to a plan originally proposed, and to ask distinguished teachers to deliver single lectures on subjects with which they were specially familiar."

The three lectures presented to the public in this little volume will interest in different degrees the teachers and the friends of education in America, as they did the English hearers. They are all full of practical sense, and even if thoughtful teachers have anticipated many of the lessons, it is always a comfort to find one's experience confirmed. Two of these lectures, the first and the last, treat of "Marking" and "Latin Verse Composition"; and, as marking is falling into discredit among us, owing to German influence, and Latin verse composition is a peculiarly English institution, it may be thought that lectures on these subjects could not command more than a languid interest here. But while "marking" may be abolished and is abolished for daily recitation in some of our higher colleges, and is evidently abused in English schools, it is none the less important that teachers should have clearer ideas of their duty as markers than many of them seem to have. The grossest injustice is often done from sheer ignorance of the principles of marking, and few who read Mr. Eve's lecture will leave it without a more exact notion as to the right method of gauging examination papers—a task from which no ad-

vance of education will set us free. On the contrary, if civil-service reform is ever to amount to anything, the examiner's work is destined to become something as formidable as it is in England, and the experience of English examiners will be of the greatest value.

But if "marking" of some kind is inevitable under almost any conceivable system, Latin verse composition seems to be doomed, and Dr. Abbott himself thinks that it will hardly survive the century even in England. In Germany, Greek and Latin verses are relegated to those who think that they have a genius for them, and the fabrication of them is not considered a regular part of classical training. In France, to judge by what M. Bréal has told us, Latin verse composition holds its own better than it does in Germany; but England is still the home of the manufacture as well as of the art. True, it no longer occupies in all the great schools the time once assigned to it. The university rewards of success in this line are no longer so brilliant, and, as a natural consequence, the schools will give less and less time and force to the exercise. In reply to personal inquiry at two of the great public schools of England, the writer of this notice was assured that foreigners had exaggerated notions of the amount of time required, and Doctor Abbott's figures show that the masters were right; but it is a pity to throw away two or three hours a week from the age of ten or eleven to the age of sixteen or seventeen; and in the large majority of cases the time is thrown away. With a rational system of Latin pronunciation, and the use of text-books with the long vowels marked, the knowledge of Latin quantity is to be attained by a much shorter method than by the tacking together of nonsense verses; and while it is not very Christian-like in Doctor Abbott, who is head master of the City of London School, to triumph over his competitors, he is only acknowledging a pardonable weakness when he says:

"Whenever I hear, at the performance of a Latin play at a celebrated public school, 'ego' pronounced 'eego,' I often feel disposed to feel thankful that in the present keen competition for university distinctions our formidable rivals are handicapped by the burden of an ancient tradition, which only an ancient school can afford to bear."

After setting forth the absurdities of the present plan, its frightful waste of time, and its utter uselessness, and worse than uselessness, for a large proportion of the boys, Doctor Abbott gives his own plan, which begins later, drops those pupils that show no aptitude for the work, and secures for all during the year of trial a certain amount of useful discipline in the study of both English and Latin. His method is to teach Latin verse by means of English verse, and is, in fact, a comparative study of Latin and English poetry—stimulating and fruitful in the hands of a competent teacher. The details of the plan are presented in a most attractive way, and in the few schools where Latin verse-making is taught in this country Doctor Abbott's lessons should be heeded; and where it is not taught, his hints as to the comparative study of Latin and English poetry will be a great help.

Mr. Sidgwick's lecture, the second of the three, is on Stimulus, a series of practical directions to teachers, based on what is known to have been a rich and successful experience. Of course, the subject of the lecturer must have been embarrassing, as one should say, "the secret of Stimulus by a Stimulant," but Mr. Sidgwick has met the natural objection very well:

"To dwell on the need of stimulus to one who would be a teacher is like Ruskin's first rule given to the art student: 'Be born with genius.' . . . But this genius [of the teacher] may be observed in the working; and something may be got by so observing the details of its work. . . . Even those teachers who can lay no claim to the possession of genius may make an enormous difference in their power of stimulating by seeing what to aim at. And, further, there are not a few points of detail and method quite capable of being acquired by care and effort, which again may increase immensely the teacher's power of stimulus. I believe, in spite of the difficulty, the subject has its practical side."

If space permitted, it might be interesting to compare the results of Mr. Sidgwick's experience with the maxims laid down in that old hand-book of education, Quintilian's 'Institutions,' and to show that, so far as precept goes, the advance has not been immeasurable. But young teachers are not going to read Quintilian, and Mr. Sidgwick's sensible and straightforward counsels are put in a clear, cogent way, with the needful homeliness and familiarity of illustration. As might have been expected, the editor of 'Scenes from Euripides' and 'Scenes from Aristophanes' is in favor of "cooking" the classics—an art that he learned from Doctor Temple; and the author of Sidgwick's 'Greek Prose Composition' believes in making stories the basis of writing Greek and Latin. But every teacher's deliverances are in a sense an *apologia pro vita sua*, and few teachers have had so useful a career to defend as Mr. Sidgwick.

English Painters. By H. J. Wilmot-Buxton, M. A. With a chapter on American Painters by S. R. Koehler. Scribner & Welford. 1883.

A FULL and accurate history of English painters is a desideratum in the literature of art. We are not aware that any book of the kind we need, except Cunningham's 'Lives,' yet exists on the subject, and that treats only of the earlier English painters. The interest attaching to the English schools is very great indeed. For, notwithstanding the fact that the English, as compared with the people of the Continent, are not an artistic race, it is yet true that very great artistic ability has existed, and still exists, among them; and that, owing to certain peculiar conditions and circumstances, they have achieved some of the highest successes of modern art. More important names than those of Hogarth, Gainsborough, Reynolds, Constable, Turner, and Rossetti can hardly be found in Europe in modern times. The annals of schools which include such names are, therefore, highly important to the student. Such a work as we require should include an examination of the conditions which have made art of such importance possible to such a people. Two fundamental traits of character seem to have conspired largely to produce the result: the healthy and hearty love of nature, fostered by the habit of living in the country, and that moral integrity which distinguishes the Anglo-Saxon race. Add to these an aptness to apprehend and assimilate the qualities of other, and very diverse, schools of art, and important forms of artistic production could hardly fail to result. It is true that opposite traits have operated. The native want of good taste and the tenacious adherence to conventional and ungraceful fashions have set their mark upon English art. But, on the whole, the better tendencies have ruled, and have rendered this art healthy and exemplary in a peculiar way, and in a very marked degree. Not the least interesting characteristic of English art is its great diversity. It may, we think, safely be said that it embraces a wider range than that of any other country. It has often been observed that there has as yet existed no one dominating school in England; but it is by no means safe to conclude that this indicates any defect in the artistic constitution of English artists. It would seem rather the contrary, for by this diversity the field has been greatly widened, and while the higher forms of historical and imaginative figure painting, portrait painting, and genre and still-life painting have been successfully cultivated, the art of landscape painting, in the modern sense, may almost be said to have been created in England.

The book before us cannot be considered of much value, because of its too great brevity. When a man like William Henry Hunt is disposed of in twelve lines, and men like John Lewis and Dante Rossetti in seventeen and eighteen respectively — as they are in this volume — one had better turn to any respectable encyclopædia for information. Mr. Koehler's chapter on American art is well written, and is, perhaps, as good as it can be within such limited compass. The book is partially illustrated by indifferent woodcuts.

Les Nouvelles Routes du Globe. Par Maxime Hélène. Avec une Lettre de M. Ferdinand de Lesseps. With 92 illustrations. Paris: G. Masson; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

THIS book belongs to the class of popular scientific productions, and describes in a manner which would be better appreciated by the intelligent layman than by the professional engineer the great public works whose accomplishment revolutionizes the commerce of the globe. It takes up two general subjects, "Isthmic Canals" and "Subterranean Routes." The book is dedicated, "To Ferdinand de Lesseps, Creator of the New Routes of the Globe by Suez and Panama, Follower in their Immortal Work of the Navigators of the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries —Columbus, Gama, Magellan—who Discovered the Natural Routes of the World by the Capes and Straits." The letter of M. de Lesseps is little more than an acceptance of this dedication, and the dedication indicates in no small degree the spirit in which the book is written. The writer is an admirer of the distinguished diplomat to whom he has dedicated his work.

Under the head of "Isthmic Canals," successive accounts are given of the Maritime Canal of Suez, the Interoceanic Canal of Panama, the canal through the Isthmus of Corinth, the canal through the Isthmus of Malacca, the Amsterdam Ship Canal, and the canal which is to ameliorate the climate of Algeria and Tunis by allowing the waters of the Mediterranean to overflow about three thousand square miles of salt desert, which is now below the level of the sea. Of these six works, only two are completed, and some of them have hardly advanced beyond the merest preliminary stages of projection; but the author seems to regard a project in much the same light as an accomplished act, and places side by side the Suez and the Panama Canals as if they already stood on the same footing. The closing words of the chapter on the Panama Canal are a good illustration of the spirit of the book:

"L'œuvre est aujourd'hui décidée; il ne s'agit heureusement plus de convaincre, mais de vaincre, et c'est chose facile à M. de Lesseps. Le créateur de Suez nous a annoncé que dans six années il irait lui-même inaugurer le canal de Panama. Cela suffit pour que nous soyons certain de l'y rencontrer à date précise."

M. de Lesseps is certainly entitled to great credit for the manner in which the Suez Canal was carried through, and for the energy which he has already shown in the work at Panama. Whatever merits the lines at Nicaraugua and Tehuantepec may have, neither of these localities could be adapted to the construction of a tide-water canal, whose capacity should not be limited by the dimensions of its locks; and the Frenchman, from the start, determined that the canal must be of this kind. Let us give him his due for selecting the location, for enlisting

capital, and for beginning the great work; but the difficulties of construction are enormous, and to place a work of this kind, which is just emerging from the period of surveys, on equal terms beside the Suez Canal does not do justice to the energy, the ingenuity, the industry, and the sacrifice which contributed to the completion of the Suez Canal, and which will be called forth in a more marked degree yet at Panama.

Under the head of "Subterranean Routes" are described the great tunnels of St. Gothard, the Arlberg, and Mont Cenis, while reference is made to projected tunnels in other Alpine passes. A chapter is also devoted to the tunnel under the straits from Calais to Dover. The subject of tunnels is apparently one with which the author is more familiar than that of canals, and a greater portion of the space here is devoted to works which have actually been completed.

A chapter entitled "Les Routes de la Pensée" gives a very brief account of the principal submarine telegraph lines, and an appendix of but a few pages is devoted to the use of dynamite and air-drills in public works. The book is handsomely printed and illustrated, and, while not rising to the rank of a valuable scientific or technical work, will be found interesting reading by any one who desires to get a general idea of the subjects which it describes.

Adelaide Phillipps. A Record. By Mrs. R. C. Waterston. Boston: A. Williams & Co.

ADELAIDE PHILLIPPS was a fine singer, who justly enjoyed great popularity, but she was not one of those rare vocalists who are named in histories as representatives of an epoch. The writer of the present memoir does not claim her as such, but she missed the only opportunity of justifying the existence of her book (so far as she was not writing for Bostonians about a favorite local "talent") by making it illustrative of the condition of operatic affairs in this country during the period of Miss Phillipps's activity. As it is, it has little value, except for those who were personally acquainted with the singer, and who, therefore, take an interest in a number of petty details about her Boston and other friends, which are eminently uninteresting to the general public. Young ladies who intend to study for the stage in Italy may learn a lesson by reading the first chapters, where they will find the old story, so often told, of impressionable audiences, liberal in applause, but fickle; of the difficulty of securing a reliable engagement, and the still greater difficulty of securing payment from an impresario. They will do well, also, to be on their guard against serenades. After a successful début in Brescia, in 1853, Miss Phillipps was awakened next morning by a band of music, coming, as they professed, to congratulate her on her success, and continuing to disturb her rest until they were *paid*, whereupon they went away.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Metternich, Prince Richard de. Mémoires, etc., laissés par le Prince de Metternich. Vols. vi., vii. Paris: E. Plon; New York: F. W. Christern.

Orton, J. Comparative Zoölogy, Structural and Systematic. For Schools and Colleges. Revised edition. Harper & Bros.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK THURSDAY, JUNE 21, 1883.

The Week.

THE shooting of Dukes by his victim's son probably gratifies a great many people, and will be fully forgiven by his neighbors, as making amends for the disgraceful verdict of the jury last spring. But those who are disposed to condone this sort of offence, and to see young Nutt get off without punishment, as we fear he will, ought to remember that the practice of carrying concealed weapons, and taking the law into one's own hands, seems to be growing among the people of this country to an alarming extent, that it already constitutes a serious blot on our civilization, and that every homicide which, for whatever reason, goes unpunished promotes and encourages it. People who are ready to forgive, or even glorify, murders committed by way of avenging a private wrong, whether it be a wife's or sister's "dishonor," or a father's death, are apparently possessed by the gross delusion that respect for human life and for law can be kept up while allowing private manslayers to share with the Government the work of preserving order. But nothing of the kind is possible here or anywhere. In civilized countries the Government cannot divide the power of inflicting capital punishment with anybody. Anything of the kind is a reversion to mediæval barbarism. Nor can we with impunity teach boys and young men that there are some kinds of murder which they may lawfully and honorably commit, and that they are at liberty to decide for themselves when the occasion for such a murder has arisen, and whom it is desirable to kill. Out of this shocking relic of savagery arises the practice of carrying deadly weapons, and that state of mental readiness to slay on slight provocation which seems to be almost always produced by having a pistol in one's pocket.

The awful crack of the murderer's pistol is still heard in every direction, and especially southward, while the brutal practice of lynching prisoners before trial, by mobs, who are themselves criminals of the worst type, seems to be spreading at the West. In fact, the illustrations of a growing popular contempt for or disregard of the regular administration of justice over a large area of the country, are multiplying and seem to call for some great awakening of the public conscience. A few days ago, in Louisiana, a young clergyman, on the ground, as appears, that a girl of seventeen made a charge against the principal of the female college she had just left, also a clergyman, and a man of mature age and presumably high character, got a pistol and murdered the older clergyman without the slightest warning. At a school exhibition in Metcalfe County, Kentucky, two young men were asked not to make a noise, so they forthwith "opened fire" on the man who addressed them. He had his pistol ready, too, and returned the fire. Before it was over, one of the combatants was mortally wounded, another badly wounded, a bystander was shot dead, a Miss Philpot was struck in the cheek, and a negro is supposed to be "dead in the bushes," to which he fled in a panic when wounded in the fray. Yet these things are all supposed to occur, according to popular geographies, in a civilized and even Christian country. Moreover, in Pennsylvania, Nutt, who has committed a deliberate murder in broad daylight, is in receipt of showers of congratulatory telegrams, presumably from Christian people, eminent counsel are offering him their services, and subscriptions for his defence are coming in, and everything being done to prepare for another farcical trial, in which a perjured jury will disregard both the law and the evidence.

Rerdell is left by the Star-route verdict in a position which he must find rather puzzling. He originally pleaded not guilty to a charge of conspiracy, like the other defendants. Then, having made up his mind to confess, he was permitted by the Court to withdraw his plea, and plead guilty. Then he went on to the stand and testified to facts tending to show his own and his accomplices' guilt. But the jury have acquitted all the defendants, and as it requires at least two to make a conspiracy, Rerdell's idea that he conspired is completely exploded. But if he did not conspire, he must have been committing perjury of a deliberate, heinous, and also unnecessary kind. His acquittal shows not only the uncertainty of the law, but the peculiar blackness of Rerdell's nature. Fortunately, Brady and Dorsey are determined to let no guilty man escape, and as they have the sympathy of the District and its press, they will no doubt take the proper steps to bring Rerdell to justice. They have announced their intention of punishing the *Times* at once; but is not Rerdell wickeder, and therefore more deserving of immediate attention, than even the *Times?*

It must be said for Dorsey that although an impudent he is a most amusing rascal. There is nothing in comic literature much better than his address to the colored club which has just serenaded him in Washington. He compared his trial to one of those great struggles of innocence with power to which people will refer in the future, "as Macaulay pointed to the trial of Warren Hastings," and he says that "the trial told a story before which humanity will bow down." "The trembling wires of intelligence," said the wretched wag, "that bore the news of the acquittal to Berlin, to Moscow, to Dublin, told the poor, the lowly, and the hopeless that there were yet twelve men to be found who would deal justly with them." The joke of this lies in the fact that had he been tried in any of these three capitals, which he appears to have selected with care, he would in about two weeks after the case was opened have been carted off to jail to undergo a good term of penal servitude. In some other European capitals he might have escaped, but in these his fate would have been a sure thing. The whole case is a most shameful one, in which the bouffe element has been very prominent from the beginning, and Dorsey is winding it up suitably. That the two principal thieves should have been, one a high officer of the Government, and one the Secretary of the Republican National Committee, and that they should have kept a newspaper during the trial to attack the prosecution, and have entertained handsomely now and then while in legal jeopardy, make, altogether, a spectacle not often equalled off the comic stage.

The business atmosphere has been considerably clarified during the past week by several important failures in the provision and grain trades, which it has been known for several weeks must come sooner or later. In the lard and provision trade it was notorious that prices were being held up by a clique at the West to figures far above what the consuming markets would pay, or could afford to pay; and though the corner in lard was run by the strongest parties, financially, ever engaged in any such operation in the United States, it has notably failed, and the prices of provisions are steadily declining to figures at which foreign consumers will buy more freely. The beneficial effect upon our foreign trade in that particular will undoubtedly be made apparent within a few weeks. In wheat also there has been a similar mistaken policy on the part of speculators in this country. As soon as it was certain past a doubt that the next crops of all western Europe would be short of an average yield from 15 to 25 per cent., the speculators here invested to an enormous extent in wheat. But they overlooked the fact that in consequence of the heavy exports from this country in the four or five months preceding April 1, Great Britain and, to some extent, other countries had been accumulating an unusual stock of foreign wheat; consequently, when they undertook to advance the price of wheat here they found they could not make the foreign markets advance. Their next move, then, was to talk "short crop here" in order to advance prices, and probably never in the history of the grain trade has there been such an amount of deliberate falsification in regard to the condition of the crops in this country. It is even believed that some of the various kinds of official reports have been strongly influenced in their favor. But the whole policy has failed, and with it a good many of the speculators.

These incidents in the most important trade interests of this country have not affected the financial situation in any way unfavorably, but the contrary. In expectation of an increased export movement of products as a result of the lower prices, foreign exchange has this week shown a downward tendency, and the apprehensions of the export of specie which were entertained a few weeks ago have disappeared. Money has been extremely easy in American markets, and rates of interest have been down to the

lowest prices usually touched at this season of the year. In London the Bank of England has gained £1,538,000 in bullion in the last four weeks, and the prospect is for lower rates for money there. Capital, however, since the speculations in grain and provisions have failed, shows no special desire to invest in anything for speculative purposes. The railway share market has been dull, and the general range of prices as compared with a week ago has scarcely changed at all. Within two weeks the character of the crops in this country will be practically settled, as the spring wheat crop will be out of danger after the 4th of July, and if it then becomes apparent that the crops are good, there will be a firmer market for stocks and more confidence in business generally.

The end of the produce speculation in Chicago is a striking illustration of the folly, or rather the uselessness, of such legislation as some of our moralists were trying to get from the State Legislature last winter, and as formed the subject of the sage report on "futures" on which we commented in these columns at the time. The speculative bubble has burst at last, and in bursting has punished the speculators in a way in which the law could never have punished them. McGeoch, for instance, the "Lard King," has been committing all forms of speculative wickedness about lard. He has forced the price up beyond precedent, and beyond human endurance, causing a fever of speculative activity in produce through the West, and drawing off money from the more legitimate business of bulling railroad stocks in Wall Street. In fact, a better example of the absolutely wicked speculator we probably shall not see for a long time. And yet it would have been almost if not absolutely impossible for the law to get at him. Supposing he had been indicted for making a corner against the statute, it would have taken several months to procure the necessary evidence. The other makers of corners would not have testified against him, if they could have helped it, because those who dealt with him expected, if let alone, to make money out of him, and it would probably have been next to impossible to prove his transactions out of his books. The trial, if it ever came on, would have lasted from three to six months, and would probably have taken place before a jury composed in part of persons unable to write, or unacquainted with any arithmetic beyond addition, in part of drunkards, and in part of keepers of "bucket shops," and, after six weeks' speaking from the lawyers on both sides, would have ended in a disagreement and the triumph of the Lard King, which would have been celebrated in oceans of sweet champagne by the speculators.

Now, see what has happened to the bad men by the simple process of letting them run their rig. See how corner-men and all other wicked speculators are caught in their own snare or hoist with their own petard. Peter McGeoch, the chief speculator, has been fined $1,050,000, and the fine has been paid, and it has ruined him for the moment, for this is what is meant by the news that this amount of his money has been "sunk in the deal." Daniel Wells, jr., the Lard Viceroy or Vizier, has been in like manner fined $750,000. Besides this, these two leading offenders have "failed for" $1,600,000 between them, or, in other words, have been the means, without any expense to the State, of inflicting fines to that amount on their confederates. J. M. Ball has also been fined $100,000; Ellis & Lightner, $60,000; Holley & Allen, $50,000; Tabor & Wilson, $40,000; M. B. Crafts & Co., $30,000, and smaller men about $50,000 more. All the lawyers and courts in the United States could not in ten years have recovered half this amount from the offenders, or, if they had recovered it, would have absorbed it in fees and costs. Now the penalty has been inflicted without lawyers, without a trial, without discredit to public justice, by the offenders themselves. Peter McGeoch, too, probably feels differently about the Lard Crown from what he ever did before, and is perhaps a little sick of "futures" and "puts and calls." Moreover, the dangers of the speculator's career have been brought before the youth of the country with a clearness and completeness which no trial could have accomplished. The lesson may be put into one column of a newspaper, without any opening address, or testimony, or summing up, or charge, or "prayers" to the judge.

The revolt among the Republican members of the New Hampshire Legislature against Senator Rollins, who has been nominated for reëlection by a majority of the Republican caucus, is a new local symptom of a general complaint. Senator Rollins is not a man of high statesmanlike qualities, but he has devoted himself with great zeal and energy to the task of managing the patronage and "organizing forces." A great many of the Republican county and town committees are manned with Federal office-holders who were appointed on his recommendation, and during the last State canvass Mr. Rollins used his whole influence to secure the nomination of candidates for the Legislature favorable to his reëlection. It appears that his machine worked very effectively in a considerable number of districts, and that the number of his friends sent to the Legislature was large enough to give him a majority in the Republican caucus. But his skill and energy as a political engineer had also the effect, which in our days it usually has, of exasperating his opponents in the party, and the result is an open declaration on the part of a considerable number of Republican members that they do not consider themselves bound by the action of the caucus, and will oppose the reëlection of Mr. Rollins to the bitter end. Whether they will prove strong enough to defeat him does not yet appear quite certain. But in any event they have furnished another proof of the fact that in these days of loose party cohesion the caucus has lost its power, and that too skilful and energetic Machine management is at present apt to be rather dangerous to the man whose interests it was to serve.

Women seem to be making a decided advance toward the acquisition of their "rights" in Massachusetts—at least, the right to recognition as practitioners of medicine. Of the 1,343 members of the State Medical Society, 709—more than half—say, in reply to formal questions, that they are in favor of the admission of women to the Society on equal terms; 23 say they do not care whether women are admitted or not; while the interest of 211 in the subject is so languid that they have not taken the trouble to answer at all. The remaining 400, even if they are very earnest in their avowed opposition, are less than one-third of the whole number. It appears further that 336 shamelessly confess that they have "consulted" with women doctors, while 931 boldly say that they would have no objection to "consult" if they were asked to do so.

The political situation in Pennsylvania is peculiar. The Republican Machine men are in possession of the regular party organization, and it is generally admitted that they will control a strong majority in the next State Convention. The Republican Independents, whose practical protest against Machine rule last year defeated the Republican State ticket, declare that they will stand by the party this year provided the Machine majority in the State Convention nominate men in every way acceptable. It is generally expected that this will be done, and that in this respect the Independents will have no cause of complaint. To strengthen their confidence Senator Cameron has gone to Europe, and permits it to be given out that he intends to be gone about two years—that he is tired of politics and will not return to public life. While all this looks fair and promising, and while the Machinists may be willing to nominate "good men," the Independents are reminded of the fact that the future character and management of the party will depend not only upon the candidates for State offices, but upon the State Committee to be appointed at the next State Convention. If the Machinists appear determined to keep the control of that Committee in their hands, it will be fair to assume that they want to keep possession of the party for their own purposes, and when that possession is firmly secured again, even Senator Cameron may be prevailed upon to overcome once more his disgust with public life.

There could hardly be a better illustration of the largeness of the class in England which is rather puzzled to find occupation, than the organization of a society, with all the machinery of agitation, such as rooms, lectures, and exhibitions, to bring about a change in the fashion of women's dress. The movement is headed by Lady Harberton, who is the apostle of a garment called "the divided skirt," which, if we understand it rightly, is simply a small set of petticoats for each leg, instead of one more expansive set for the two legs. She lectures on and exhibits this frequently, and seems to have made many converts, including Mr. Proctor the astronomer, who has written to the papers giving a somewhat diverting account of the conversion of the ladies of his own family, whom he represents as having enormously increased thereby both their happiness and their usefulness. The latest phase in the agitation

is the opening of an exhibition in London of healthy clothes of every description, underclothes which are hygienically cut and of the right material, corsets that fit like a sentry-box, and gowns which are neither too heavy nor too light, but just right, and shoes which keep the feet in the ancient Greek condition, as to shape, corns and bunions. All these contrivances appear, in fact, to be so admirable from the hygienic point of view that the giddy votaries of fashion have really no defence against them, except the prediction that as they are ugly the young women won't wear them. They maintain, with some levity, that it makes no difference what the ladies who wear them do wear, inasmuch as nature or time has made them all superior to dress. What foundation there may be for this flippancy we do not know, but it is quite certain that the movement is supplying a topic of discussion, which has the enormous merit of being one on which everybody, male and female, is fairly entitled to a say. There is no civilized man or woman who is not an authority on clothes, considered simply as covering.

The story that the Postmaster-General is considering the plan of compelling the Chicago letter-carriers to wear knee-breeches was, no doubt, started as a joke; but, as is so often the case with hoaxes, it seems to have been received by the carriers in dead earnest. They have held a meeting and made a formal protest against knee-breeches, resolved to resist the innovation to the bitter end, sent deputations to the four Chicago Congressmen, urging them to lobby the Department against it. The Congressmen, it is needless to say, expressed deep sympathy with their resistance. The interesting part of the case is, that though they have, or think they have, several practical objections to the change—such as the increased expense—they rest their case almost altogether on what they term the "ridiculous" character of the dress. "We don't want to be dudes," one of their leaders says—using the word dude, of course, in a broad Western way, as meaning any foolishly-dressed person—and adding that the suggestion came from Philadelphia, where the postmaster is "something of a dude." In the East, he admitted, "where half the people are dudes," such a thing might work, but not in Chicago. This Chicago remonstrance throws a new light on the anti-trouser movement in fashionable society. There is nothing really ridiculous in knee-breeches; it is the appearance of the average leg in them which is ridiculous. Trousers have superseded them in all modern countries because they establish equality in legs. Now, the letter-carrier, when we reflect upon the amount of pedestrian exercise he takes, ought to have the best developed leg in the world—it should be and probably is, if we could see it, a beautiful object—so that if any class could afford to adopt knee-breeches without any fear of ridicule, it would be far more likely letter-carriers than the effeminate classes like dudes, who usually have weak, thin, mean-looking legs. The letter-carriers, in resisting the movement, are therefore, without intending it, furnishing the strongest possible *a fortiori* argument against the knee-breeches movement in the fashionable world.

Dr. McCosh, in his farewell of Princeton College, for which he has done so much good work, has returned once more to the subject of athletic exercises; this time to declare that something must be done to prevent excess in them. He says that some eight or ten students out of every class of a hundred waste their college course by becoming not idle men, but professional athletes. It will at once occur to anybody who reads what he says that the whole matter is in the control of the Faculty; that they have only to prescribe a certain minimum standard of performance in studies, as shown at the examinations, and thus prevent any undue devotion to games. But the difficulty with any such rule is that it would impair the popularity of the College, partly, as Doctor McCosh points out, because it would act as a sort of handicap on Princeton in its athletic contests with colleges which allow entire liberty in these respects, as it is to be presumed that the colleges where students are not restricted in athletic sports at all will turn out better crews and better nines than institutions which are more rigid. The plan first tried at Princeton, of requiring the written permission of the parents or guardians, failed utterly, as might have been expected, for the athletic sport craze is not a craze of the young men alone; it fires the hearts of all classes, including fathers and mothers, sisters, cousins, and even aunts. The remedy that President McCosh suggests, of refusing to allow the students to play match games with colleges which make no restrictions in the time devoted to athletic sports, seems to be based on the idea that all these colleges will, by the fear of being cut off from playing with Princeton, introduce restrictions; but this, if what we have said is true, is hardly likely.

It will be very interesting now to watch the effect on English family life of the legalization of marriage with a deceased wife's sister. This measure has been opposed for fifty years with almost ferocious pertinacity, with predictions as to the effect it would have on the peace and purity of homes, although the bishops were very strong against it also with Scripture. Testimony, too, of the most ridiculous character was procured from this country as to the effect of the system here. We quoted some of it some months ago, obtained from an old clergyman who said that the possibility of their father marrying their aunt made American children look on her with horror. The *Saturday Review*, which also stood out against the change with uncompromising vigor, always maintained that there was something morally wrong with people who advocated it. The measure has been slowly gaining ground for some years, but would probably not have been carried now but for the assistance of the royal dukes, under the leadership of the Prince of Wales. It is not often they can find anything to vote on without seeming to take sides in politics, so that the deceased wife's sister bill has been a godsend to them, as giving them something they can vote about with impunity. The opposition to it will probably all be forgotten in six months, or only be recalled now and then on the platform as an amusing illustration of Conservative timidity.

From Berlin we have the significant news that the Committee of the Prussian Landtag which is to consider and report upon the Church Bill, has resolved to report against that clause of the bill which empowers the Government to reject nominees for Church benefices on civil, religious, or educational grounds, and that the Government will probably allow that clause to drop. This means that the Government is willing to go even further in its concessions to the Vatican than it went when the Church Bill was introduced. Giving up the power to reject nominees on civil, religious, or educational grounds seems to be equivalent to giving up that power altogether. It is difficult to see where the concessions will now stop. The Clericals have been made aware by Prince Bismarck that he needs their votes very much, and it is now but natural that they should put the highest price upon them. When Herr Windthorst, their leader, declared that he could not tell what the attitude of his party with regard to the Church Bill would be until the discussion on the other side was closed, he was evidently preparing to take the utmost advantage of the needs of the Government as to parliamentary support. It is reported from Rome that the Vatican is inclined to accept the concessions offered by the Prussian Government. This does not, of course, preclude asking for more, and trying to gain prestige by humiliating the adversary after having beaten him.

Mr. John Bright, addressing an immense gathering of his admirers at Birmingham on the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of his service as a representative of that borough in Parliament, took occasion to disavow being an enemy of the United States, which would be ludicrous enough if it were not that so many people here hold that anybody who thinks the American tariff ought to be lowered, and especially any Englishman, is animated by simple hatred to the country, and especially to American workingmen. He said this as a preface to the prediction on which he ventured, that "the question between a protective and revenue tariff is nearing its solution" in the United States. We think he is right, but the solution is probably not as near as he supposes. He forgets the enormous amount of capital which has been invested in the United States during the last twenty-five years in reliance on the tariff, and the great difference which this creates between the situation here and that which existed in England before 1847. Moreover, no statesman controls legislation, or can carry his own party over to a new policy here, as Peel did in England. The change will probably come more slowly here than it did there, and it is desirable that it should do so, because no change would be permanent which did not rest on the actual conversion of the public, including the working classes. We shall probably have several revisions of the tariff in a free-trade sense before the question of a tariff for revenue only comes up fairly and squarely.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 13, to TUESDAY, June 19, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

AFTER being out all night, the jury in the Star-route trial at Washington were brought into court on Wednesday morning at 10 o'clock. The court-room was crowded, and the air was sultry. There was a profound silence as the jurors entered, which was broken by a cry from Juror Vernon, who fell to the floor in a fit. Immediately there was great confusion in the court, which was soon quelled, and the sick juror was taken to an ante-room under a physician's care. The rest of the jurors retired to their room. During the intermission which followed, Judge Wylie was heard to say: "The man has been drinking a good deal. In the course of the trial I have given him a sharp admonition. I suppose the effect of measurably cutting off his supplies is serious." About 11 o'clock the physician entered the court-room and announced that the juror had recovered. In a few minutes the whole jury reëntered and Judge Wylie explained a certain question of fact. The foreman wanted to know whether they could report a partial verdict, but Judge Wylie announced that their verdict must be complete. He also told them that he did not propose to discharge the jury soon. Court was then adjourned for the day. The Deputy Marshal was instructed to allow Juror Vernon two drinks per day.

Promptly on Thursday, at 10 o'clock, the jury were again brought into court, and in response to the usual formula of inquiry the foreman announced the verdict of "Not guilty." Immediately the decorum of a court of justice was forgotten, and cheers resounded from all quarters. Mrs. S. W. Dorsey sprang to her feet, clapping her hands, while the tears streamed down her cheeks. S. W. Dorsey and Brady were heartily congratulated. Judge Wylie, in dismissing the jury, said: "You have been more than six months engaged in this trial. Many of you have occupations of your own which you have been obliged to neglect during that period. Though your verdict, of course, will create dissatisfaction to many, yet having been selected according to the forms of law, and having sworn to perform your duties faithfully, the Court is bound to presume that you have faithfully performed your duty. If you have done so, each one according to the dictates of his conscience, that will be a satisfaction to you as long as you live." The foreman of the jury, Mr. Crane, said to a journalist that five ballots were taken. The first was upon the question of the existence of the conspiracy, and the ballot resulted in a vote of three for and nine against the conspiracy. On the second ballot the nine was increased to ten, although the vote was then upon the innocence or guilt of the defendants. This vote remained unchanged until about 8 o'clock on Thursday morning, when an acquittal was agreed upon. None of the Government counsel expressed any surprise at the verdict except Mr. Merrick, who said that he was unable to imagine how twelve honest men could have arrived at such a conclusion. The acquittal was celebrated by a gathering of the defendants and their friends at Colonel Ingersoll's house in the evening. Much complaint is made because of the low grade of intelligence of the jury. The law in the District of Columbia makes no provision for special or "struck" juries. No charges of dishonesty, however, have been brought against the jury; the only charge is incapacity.

On Monday Montford C. Rerdell appeared in the Criminal Court and withdrew his plea of guilty in the Star-route conspiracy, and the Government entered a nolle prosequi.

The Grand Jury at Washington, on Saturday morning, brought in another indictment against Thomas J. Brady. It is in regard to a contract with J. B. Price to carry the mail on a New Mexican route, for which General Brady received $1,250 as compensation for awarding the contract. The new indictment was called up in the Criminal Court on Monday, and General Brady was given notice to plead on Tuesday. The Judge announced that he should require more bail, which, on Tuesday, was fixed at $20,000.

Ex-Senator Kellogg also appeared in court on Monday to plead to the indictment against him. The plea was in abatement, and based on the ground that there were irregularities in the formation of the Grand Jury, that Mr. Ker, of the special counsel for the Government, appeared in the Grand Jury room, and that there were other irregularities.

S. W. Dorsey has written a long letter to John A. Martin, his successor as Secretary of the Republican National Committee, to say that no records giving the history of the Republican party came into his hands, and that he has none to transmit to Mr. Martin. He adds: "I do not owe the Republican National Committee a cent of money or a grain of thankfulness."

Secretary Teller, of the Interior Department, on Thursday paid to Chief Bushy-Head, of the Cherokee Indians, the $300,000 appropriated by Congress for lands ceded to the United States by that tribe.

Secretary Teller has written to the Secretary of War that he does not think the renegade Apaches should be allowed to return to the San Carlos Agency. He thinks the criminals captured by General Crook should be held as prisoners and punished, and the children should be sent to school.

Mr. Evans, Commissioner of Internal Revenue, has, it was announced on Tuesday, removed four of the most efficient officers in the service, and has appointed four personal friends to their places. This action has excited a great deal of adverse criticism.

The report made by the Board of Visitors to the Secretary of the Navy with regard to the condition of the Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md., says that the Board found everything had been done during the year which was possible to render the buildings healthy and comfortable. They approve of the reforms instituted by Superintendent Ramsey, and believe that they will work well after the friction of change has passed away. They make two recommendations as to a change of discipline.

In the United States District Court at Austin, Texas, on Thursday, an important opinion was delivered in a criminal suit brought under the Civil Rights Act, passed by Congress in March, 1875, to enforce the penalty of $500 for excluding Laura Evans, a colored woman, from a ladies' car on the Houston and Texas Central Railroad. The Court held that the act is unconstitutional, being an infringement on the rights of the several States, and that the State tribunals alone have jurisdiction in the premises. Nineteen suits of a similar nature were dependent on the decision in this case.

The Republican Legislative Caucus in New Hampshire on Thursday night nominated E. H. Rollins for United States Senator. J. W. Patterson got 18 votes. The entire Republican vote in the Legislature is 206—168 being necessary to elect a Senator—and Mr. Rollins must obtain 70 more votes than he received in the caucus, and 38 above the total number participating, to insure his return. Seventy-six members absented themselves from the caucus entirely. The caucus adopted a resolution that the Legislature should choose a Senator of the United States for the long term also. Senator Blair was renominated. On Tuesday the Legislature decided to elect but one Senator this session. The first ballot in the Senate resulted in 10 votes for Rollins out of 23. In the House he received 117 out of 305 votes.

The Ohio Greenback State Convention met in Columbus on Wednesday, and nominated Charles Jenkins for Governor, with a full ticket. The platform demands the abolition of the national banking system and the substitution of legal-tender paper money for the present currency. Forty delegates were present.

The Harper High-License Bill passed the Illinois Senate on Friday, and was signed by the Governor.

The Massachusetts Senate on Wednesday, by a vote of 35 to 1, killed the House bill to increase the salaries of legislators fifty per cent.

The Board of Aldermen of this city on Wednesday confirmed the nomination of Alexander Shaler as President of the Board of Health, to succeed Professor Chandler, for a term of six years. The vote was 15 to 9. General Shaler is a Republican, and he was confirmed by the Republican and Tammany Aldermen.

A panic was caused on the Chicago Produce Exchange on Saturday by the announcement that the firm of McGeoch, Everingham & Co. had failed for about $1,000,000. The firm was attempting to make a corner in lard. Armour and others refused to aid them, and the failure followed. Lard immediately dropped from $10 87 to $9 05 for July. The whole provision market was affected, and the grain market was to some extent agitated by the disaster. A number of smaller failures resulted. Peter McGeoch, the head of the firm, is a Milwaukee speculator, who has been very successful in wheat deals. It is understood that the firm held about 600,000 tierces of lard. The total losses by the failures amount to about $2,500,000. W. S. Nichols & Co., one of the largest grain and provision firms of Chicago, suspended on Tuesday. The firm say they will be all right in a few days.

All the small streams in the Missouri Valley have overflowed their banks within the past week, and portions of Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, and Iowa have been flooded, causing great destruction of railroad property, and making necessary an almost total suspension of travel and traffic over the entire railway system of that region.

James Nutt, the eldest son of the late Capt. A. C. Nutt, on Wednesday evening, at Uniontown, Pa., shot and killed N. L. Dukes, who, on December 24 last, killed Captain Nutt, and was not many months ago acquitted of the crime, to the great indignation of the neighborhood. Five shots were fired, four wounding him. Dukes fell on the top step of the Post-office and almost immediately expired. Nutt was immediately arrested. He was very cool, and simply said that it had to be done. Public opinion in Uniontown is with young Nutt. Only a few days ago he went home, and when he met his mother he said to her: "Mother, I met Dukes on the street to-day, and he looked at me and laughed." His mother then tried hard to get him to promise that he would not do anything to Dukes, but he told her he would not talk to her on that subject. He is about twenty years of age. The Coroner's jury on Thursday found a verdict in accordance with the facts, and Nutt was held for trial.

Much excitement was caused in St. Louis on Friday, by the announcement in court that Judge Chester H. Krum, who recently disappeared, is a defaulter. He had been U. S. District Attorney and Judge of the Circuit Court. He returned on Saturday night, unexpectedly, and had a consultation with his father. It was announced on Monday that there was a report current that Judge Krum had not defaulted. On Tuesday he issued a statement asserting his innocence.

Commencement exercises were held at Columbia College in this city on Wednesday. Degrees were conferred upon graduates of the Schools of Arts, Political Science, Mines, and Law. At Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, on the same day a class of thirty-nine young ladies was graduated. The Commencement

exercises at Stevens Institute were held at Hoboken on Thursday evening. Class-day exercises were held at Cornell and Princeton on Tuesday.

The Rev. Charles Timothy Brooks died on Thursday morning at his residence at Newport, R. I., aged seventy years. He was graduated at Harvard, and went to Newport in 1836 as pastor of the Unitarian Church, which position he occupied for thirty-six years, and for nine years was pastor emeritus. He was an accomplished German scholar, and has been identified with various public institutions.

Eugene Casserly, a member of the United States Senate from California from March 4, 1869, to the fall of 1872, when he resigned his seat, died at San Francisco on Thursday at the age of sixty-one years. He was born in Ireland, and was brought to this country when two years of age. At one time he was editorially connected with the *Evening Post* of this city, and was also a journalist in San Francisco.

Edwin Booth, the tragedian, arrived in this city on Monday, after a long and successful professional tour in Europe.

A verdict of guilty was rendered in the Court of General Sessions in this city on Monday, in the libel suit of August Belmont, the banker, against John Devoy, editor of the *Irish Nation*. The jury recommended the extreme clemency of the Court, and the counsel for the prosecution joined in a similar plea. On Tuesday he was sentenced to sixty days in the Penitentiary.

FOREIGN.

Mr. John Bright delivered an address at Bingley Hall, Birmingham, England, on Wednesday, before an audience of over 20,000 persons, in connection with the great celebration in honor of his public services. Referring with great kindness to America, he said: "I believe the question in the United States between a protective and simply a revenue tariff is nearing its solution. The opinion is growing that irresistible economic facts are offering themselves for the consideration of statesmen and every intelligent man in the great republic. An extraordinary condition of things exists there. No country of any age ever experienced or dreamed of an actual surplus of revenue of £30,000,000." On Thursday evening Mr. Bright was given a complimentary dinner in the Birmingham Town Hall. In a speech he reprobated the course of the Tory obstructionists in the House of Commons, who, he said, allied with the Irish rebel party, were doing their utmost to make it impossible for the House to do any work. Sir Stafford Northcote informed Mr. Bright that he would call attention in the House of Commons to this part of his speech as a breach of privilege. On Monday he took that action, and Mr. Bright made an earnest reply, in which he reaffirmed that there was combined action between the Conservatives and the Irish members in both debate and division to worry and destroy the Ministry. If, he said, the Irish Members of Parliament would disavow connection with disloyal societies in America and declare their loyalty to the Crown, he would withdraw the word rebel and apologize for having used it. Mr. Gladstone took part in the debate, and said that he considered Mr. Bright's explanation satisfactory. Sir Stafford Northcote's motion, that Mr. Bright's remarks be considered a breach of privilege, was rejected, 151 to 117—a party vote.

The House of Commons on Thursday night passed the bill providing for grants of money to Lord Alcester (Admiral Seymour) and Lord Wolseley for the services they rendered during the late war in Egypt.

Lord Carlingford, British Minister of Agriculture, recently received a large and influential deputation representing towns in England containing 10,000,000 people, the object of which was "to protest against restrictions of the food supply." Lord Carlingford said that the decrease in the importation of American cattle was due to the fact that better prices could be obtained in America than in Great Britain, and not to the system of compulsory slaughter of the animals at British ports. He said the Government would not strain the present laws toward further prohibition.

The case for the prosecution in the London dynamite conspiracy trial was closed on Wednesday. The arguments for the defence were then begun, Dr. Gallagher's attorney urging that there was no occasion to defend the prisoner against the charge of levying war against the Government, as no evidence had been adduced to show that he was guilty of that offence. Lord Chief Justice Coleridge declared that if the prisoners had agreed to destroy property of the Crown, to endanger life, or to intimidate the councillors of the Queen or Parliament, they had virtually levied war against the country. Counsel for the defence submitted that there was no case against Bernard Gallagher, who, he said, had acted while under the influence of drink. Whitehead and Ansburgh spoke in their own behalf on Thursday, declaring their innocence. The counsel for Bernard Gallagher admitted that the latter had a general knowledge of the plans of the dynamite party, and added that it was a matter of common knowledge that plots existed in America for the manufacture of dynamite for use against England, almost with the connivance of the American Government. For this latter remark he was warmly rebuked by Lord Chief Justice Coleridge, who advised him to withdraw the statement, which he did. Lord Chief Justice Coleridge, in his charge, said the case against Dr. Thomas Gallagher, Whitehead, and Willson was much stronger than against the others. He declared that the assertion that the nitro-glycerine was intended for legitimate purposes was incredible. The case was given to the jury at 5:35 P. M., and they soon returned with a verdict of guilty against Doctor Gallagher, Willson, Whitehead, and Curtin, and a verdict of not guilty in the case of Ansburgh and Bernard Gallagher. The four men found guilty were then sentenced to lifelong penal servitude. The verdict met with warm approval in England, and also from the Dublin *Freeman's Journal*.

In the town of Sunderland, England, on Saturday evening, a terrible calamity occurred which resulted in the death of 202 children. A conjuror had given an entertainment which was attended by several thousand children. At the close of the performance the body of the hall had been entirely cleared of its occupants, when about 1,200 of the little ones came rushing down stairs from the gallery. At the top of the first flight of stairs there was a door which opened only twenty inches, and thus only one child was permitted to pass through at a time. At this point, while the mass of children were pushing forward, some of them fell and were unable to rise, owing to the others crowding on. The result was that a great number were pushed down, trampled on, and suffocated. The panic was caused by an announcement that prizes would be distributed to the children at the door. A man fastened the door half open so that the prizes might be given to the children, one at a time, as they were leaving. The dead were laid out in the hall, and the scenes when parents were admitted to identify them were heartrending. Queen Victoria telegraphed her deep sympathy. Many of the survivors are seriously injured.

London *Truth* asserted on Wednesday that Queen Victoria had quite recovered from the injury to her knee, but that the depression of her Majesty's spirits causes some anxiety, owing to its influence on her general health.

The rumor that Earl Spencer intends to retire from the Lord Lieutenancy of Ireland was on Thursday revived.

Two envoys from the Anamite King have arrived at Saigon, and have protested against the action of the French at Ha-Noi. They said that the King desired a peaceful solution of the present difficulty. M. Brun, French Minister of Marine, on Thursday informed the Cabinet that the reports of extensive war preparations in China were without foundation. Li Hung Chang, the Chinese Commander, has informed the French Minister of Shanghai that China has no intention of declaring war against France. The French Minister has replied that Chinese soldiers captured in Tonquin will be considered pillagers and summarily shot. Marquis Tseng, Chinese Minister to Paris, London, and St. Petersburg, in a recent interview, said that diplomatic relations between Pekin and Paris were practically broken off, though the French Government had recently sent a new Minister to Pekin, and to that extent they may be said to continue.

The Committee of the Lower House of the Prussian Landtag, who are sitting during the recess of that body, adopted on Thursday the first three clauses of the Church Bill. The third clause was amended so as to transfer the right of raising objections to Church appointments from the Central Government to the Governors of provinces. Clause four, giving power to the Government to reject nominees on civil, religious, or educational grounds, was rejected. The Committee were informed that Herr von Schloezer, Prussian representative at the Vatican, had established a position, which shows that the negotiations will be continued. On Friday the Committee approved clause five of the bill, with an amendment allowing bishops recognized by the state to exercise their functions outside of their dioceses. All the amendments to the sixth clause, which repeals the provisions of the May laws inconsistent with the bill, were rejected. The first reading of the bill was then concluded. On Saturday the Committee passed the second reading of the bill by a vote of 13 to 8. The majority was composed of members of the Centre and Conservative parties, and one member of the Fortschritts party.

The Portuguese Government bill abolishing the hereditary Chamber of Peers and creating a Senate has been submitted to the Bureaus of the Cortes. The Prime Minister has been instructed to reorganize the Cabinet.

Mr. John W. Foster, the new American Minister to Spain, presented his credentials on Saturday to the King, and was cordially received.

There is a report that the Queen of Spain has left her husband on account of a court scandal affecting his loyalty to her.

The Czar has during the week commuted the death sentences of a number of Nihilists to penal servitude for an indefinite period. Other sentences have been mitigated.

News from Panama under date of June 5 says: Iglesias signed the terms of peace which Noboa, the Chilian, had agreed to in Lima. A most powerful party is gathering about Iglesias, which proclaims the following to be a part of its programme: To bring about a reform in the constitution, the organic laws, and the codes, so that all guarantees shall be respected, and crimes and abuses punished; to procure for foreigners the right to participate as citizens in the political administration of the country after one year's residence; to render responsible all who are guilty of fraud or malversation of public funds; to obtain judicial reforms.

Advices from Sierra Leone, Africa, assert that Chief Gbpowe again made a raid upon the British settlement in Sherbro, and that a British expedition was sent out against him in consequence. The men succeeded in capturing and burning four more of his stockaded towns, including one which was garrisoned by 1,500 warriors. Gbpowe fled, and a reward has been offered for his capture.

THE STAR-ROUTE VERDICT.

THE Star-route case was tried under conditions not usual in this country. At the close of the first trial the Postmaster at the capital was removed, because, during its progress, he wrote a letter to a country newspaper predicting its result. The Marshal was also removed, because he had criticised the course of one of the Government's counsel and reflected on his methods. Several men were prosecuted for tampering with the jury, and, with the ground and atmosphere thus cleared, the recent trial took place. There was a verdict of acquittal. The world at large is surprised and disappointed ; the legal and judicial world is probably less so. Though perhaps not found in any book, the experience of the profession generally recognizes as a rule that in all cases dependent upon indirect evidence, there should be some one thing, conclusive in its nature of the guilt of the accused. It follows that care should be taken to strengthen this one dominant thing—certainly not to weaken it, or diminish its importance, by withdrawing attention from it to trivial or insignificant matter. Had the Government one or more of these conclusive things? What it did was to flood a whole continent with comparatively unimportant matter, over each item of which there was a controversy. It was too much to expect that one man in twelve could safely traverse the expanse spread before this jury, and justly estimate the value of each item of evidence and sum up the result. No American jury is equal to a case tried under such conditions : overloaded, overwhelmed, distracted and lost in the mere mass of so-called evidence, if they acquit, the Government has chiefly itself to blame.

The verdict, however, was a surprise to most people who had followed the case, because it was generally assumed that the trial must result either in a verdict of guilty or in a disagreement. For a variety of reasons it will carry no moral weight. The twelve men who composed the jury were unfit in almost every way to pass upon the questions submitted to them (one of them was a victim of *mania a potu*), and, as if to give a signal proof of their incapacity, they came into court after the charge and asked Judge Wylie to tell them whether they could "report to the Court" in case they agreed as to the guilt of any of the defendants, without having come to any agreement as to the existence of a conspiracy—the guilt of the defendants being of course wholly dependent upon the existence of a conspiracy. All that can be said for it is that it is really an improvement on the verdict rendered by the first jury, for that brought in two of the subordinates as guilty, while letting their principals go as innocent.

The escape of Brady and Dorsey is most unfortunate, but what is more unfortunate still is that the effect of the two Star-route trials has been, not to make an example of anybody, but rather to draw people to the conclusion that the attempt to secure a conviction for any of the offences with which they are charged is hopeless, and that Brady and Dorsey, in their brazen defiance of the Government, and in their prediction that no Washington jury would ever convict them, were perfectly right. The conclusion, too, has been gradually forcing itself upon the public mind that, although the Administration was honest in its determination to punish the Ring if possible, the trial itself has been made to subserve a great variety of other objects in which the public has no sort of concern. The case has lasted over six months, and is one of the longest jury trials on record. Yet in such a trial, with an ordinary jury, the only hope of securing a conviction lies in making it as short as possible. By extending the time of trial, by occupying not days but weeks with addresses to the jury, and arguments upon evidence, and discussions of points of law, the minds of the jurymen are distracted from the main point at issue ; and besides this they gradually come to regard the case not as that of their own Government trying to bring criminals to justice, but as a mere struggle of wits between a lot of sharp "counsel"—a sort of game in which they sit as final referees, and decide which side makes the best score. It is all the more important that such trials should be short because it is so often for the apparent interest of those concerned to lengthen them. Mr. George Bliss has received something like $50,000 since he has been in charge of the cases, and the other lawyers sums in proportion. Apparently the longer it lasts the more they are to receive. We do not mean to say that the trial has been protracted purposely, but we cannot shut our eyes to the fact that the case has gradually come to be looked upon as professional capital for those engaged in it, rather than a simple effort to bring offenders to justice ; and, this being so, it is certainly better to be done with it.

There is one difficulty in getting a common jury to convict a number of defendants of "conspiracy" to rob the Government, which probably affected the verdict in the Star-route case in a way that has not been noticed. The vulgar idea of a conspiracy is of a carefully-concealed plot, such as we have to go to the theatre or opera to see a specimen of, in which the conspirators assemble in a private room, disguised from head to foot, with their fingers on their lips, converse in whispers, and then disperse to carry out their nefarious design. A conspiracy such as that in which Brady and Dorsey are accused of having taken part is, of course, a very different affair. Everything is done openly and above-board except the division of the plunder; and, what is more, the conspirators are apparently helped on in their work by public opinion. Brady's account of his operations is that he was simply anxious to give the country ample mail facilities ; and that the country wanted these he proved with the usual evidence—piles of "petitions." On the petitions he increased the contractors' pay; the contractors, according to the theory of the Government, paid him what he demanded out of the increase. On the face of the matter, consequently, there was very little beyond excessive payments to the contractors. To the ordinary imagination a conspiracy is something far blacker and wickeder than this; yet there were no passwords, no dark rooms, no concealment—in fact, none of the paraphernalia of conspiracies such as the members of the Star-route jury were probably most familiar with from their reading and hearsay. The bluff, open, public-spirited way in which Brady expedited every route he was asked to, which is one of the damning circumstances in his case, no doubt made him seem to the jury more like a plain, straightforward business man than a conspirator.

The published interviews with the counsel for the Government make the prospect of getting a conviction in the cases against Brady, Price, Kellogg, and others, which remain to be tried, seem rather slender. They say that the practice of the District of Columbia does not admit of "struck" juries, and that this defect cannot be remedied except by an act of Congress. No attempt has been made to get such an act passed, and probably none will be, so that the next case will have to be tried before a common, or, in other words, a very ignorant, jury. It is said that the indictment against Brady and Price is to be tried in the fall, and we can but hope that the case will prove sufficiently simple to be tried in some short space of time.

The only explanation of the result of the trial that we did not expect to see in print was the suggestion that it was forced upon the jury by the evidence. Yet the *Herald* seems to think that this is the true view of the case ; and it draws the conclusion that the Administration is "equitably bound" to pay back to Brady, Dorsey, and the other defendants the money expended by them in their defence, we presume with interest at the current rate. The difficulty with this explanation is that the Star-route case has been tried once before, and on the former trial the Judge was so convinced of the guilt of the defendants that his charge amounted to a direction to bring in a verdict for the Government. The charge was no doubt objectionable in form and temper, but that does not affect the fact that the Judge regarded the evidence as overwhelming. Now, on this trial there is much more evidence for the Government than there was on the first, including a full and detailed confession by Rerdell, one of the defendants, so that the ordinary presumption that the verdict is right cannot be said to exist.

TWO ENGLISH WRITERS ON THE IRISH QUESTION.

Two articles on the Irish question from English writers of the first rank, Prof. Goldwin Smith, and Mr. James Bryce, M. P., have appeared within the last month, Mr. Goldwin Smith's in the *Nineteenth Century*, and that of Mr. Bryce in the *Century* of this city. They are well worth reading together by any one who has any interest in the subject. Mr. Goldwin Smith, whose political judgment used to be admirable, and whose essay on 'Irish History and Irish Character,' published some fifteen years ago, was an almost unequalled bit of political analysis, seems really to have allowed the Irish troubles to throw him completely off his balance, and to break his hold on the great principles of Liberalism, of which he was once so distinguished an apostle. He can hardly look at or think of the Irish without falling into a rage. The Celts are his special

abomination. For the Anglo-Irish he shows a certain tenderness, but only when he reflects that they might at one time have cut the throats of all the Celts, or have driven them into the sea, had they been so minded, and that they would probably do so still if properly provoked. But when he thinks of them as having once carried on an Irish Parliament, he has no patience with them. He gave the people of Brighton (England), a year ago, an awful account of the drunkenness, corruption, and poor oratory of the Irish Parliament (which was entirely composed of men of English origin), forgetting to tell them that the English politicians of the same period were no less drunken and corrupt and were worse speakers. Being reminded of this, he answered that the English politicians did not, as the Irish did, sell their country. But they did sell everything there was a market for. They sold everything the King and the Minister wished to buy, and quartered as many of their families on the treasury as it would bear. If a purchaser for the entire Government had offered, under the same conditions as presented themselves to the Irish, there is every reason for believing that they would have closed the bargain in much the same spirit as the Irish member displayed who, being reproached with having sold his country, "thanked God he had a country to sell."

What troubles Mr. Goldwin Smith now is the Irish emigration. He cannot bear to have the Irish in Ireland, and says emigration is the proper remedy for their troubles; but when he hears of them emigrating in such large numbers to this country he is alarmed by thinking of the influence they are likely to have on the politics of Canada and the United States. So he has written to the *Nineteenth Century* to point out that, bad as they are at home, they are likely to become worse if sent here. The American influence on them he thinks will be very injurious. Even the naturalization laws, which now keep them from voting for five years after their arrival here, will not be properly administered as to them. The more he looks at the Irishman in America, the more uneasy he becomes, and he finally announces that "his fatal influence threatens with ruin every Anglo-Saxon polity and Anglo-Saxon civilization throughout the world." This awful prognostication suggests naturally the reflection that Anglo-Saxon civilization is hardly worth troubling one's self about if the Irishman can put it in such peril with his priest and his shillelah. If Mr. Smith's account of it be true, it is clear its hour is at hand, and that, like the Roman civilization, it must go, and the Celtic barbarian be allowed to make the ground ready for something better. But he evidently thinks it may yet be saved, by the very simple expedient of sending the Irish emigrants to the South to live with the negroes, and fight and get drunk in the large unoccupied spaces still to be found in most of the Southern States. But how the British Government is to convert the Southern States into a sort of penal settlement for wicked Irishmen; how, after having got the emigrants down into a hot climate, among the blacks, they are to be got to stay, he does not explain. He says that, "even if shipped straight through to the Northwest, like goods in bond," they would not stay, "the Irish Celt not being a farmer," but would burn their shanties and run off to join their kinsmen in the United States. Why he expects them to live quietly in the South, under still worse conditions, does not appear.

Even if he had got them settled in the South among the blacks, however, his troubles would not be over. There are still some millions of Irishmen left in Ireland, and he anticipates from these what he calls "the rebellion of the vote," or, in other words, the use of the ballot to return a large increase of the Parnell forces in Parliament, and an Irish balance of power in thirty English constituencies. Apparently he would disfranchise all these voters by an heroic exercise of power. But as this would probably not quiet the wretches, it must be that he has a general massacre or something of that sort still in reserve.

There is nothing to us more melancholy than discussing the vagaries of a Liberal who, having lost his faith in his own creed, has adopted, and is offering as a brand-new gospel, the ancient Tory doctrine of the total depravity of the discontented, and the unreasonableness of people who dislike being ruled by those who hate or despise them. It is not surprising that the *Pall Mall Gazette* should remark of this article that "Mr. Goldwin Smith's hand has not lost its cunning, but his mind seems to have lost touch somewhat of the forces which govern modern politics." That is sadly true.

DINNER OR TEA.

THE *Christian Union* has a somewhat amusing article on tea as compared with dinner. It says:

"It seems to be the prevalent opinion of society that tea is a characterless, insipid, and altogether wearisome meal. As a matter of fact, tea is precisely what you make it; its appeal is to the intellectual rather than the animal side of one's nature. It supplies a pleasant pabulum for the physical appetite, but it does not overwhelm the whole man with a variety and volume of food which makes conversation a mere incident in a prolonged course of eating. Our two-hour dinners are survivals of barbarism; and if the tastes of society were not, as Mr. Arnold has so often said, still essentially barbaric, they would be intolerable. A cultivated Athenian would look upon an English dinner with positive disgust; to his finer instincts and harmonious development it would appear to be what it really is—gross feeding concealed by excellent cooking and perfect service. No conversation less aggressive and arrogant than that of a Macaulay can survive a full-course modern dinner; the *esprit*, the delicate interplay of intellectual sympathy, the fine flash of wit, the pervading charm of humor, the subtle and exquisite putting of nice shades of thought, are annihilated by the heavy, gross, and materialized surroundings of dinner; they are the tender flowers of a fine mental fellowship, and they blossom only in an atmosphere which has a large intellectual element and a small physical one. The tea-table, on the other hand, meets all the conditions of the best talk; it gives quiet occupation for eye and hand, it satisfies judiciously the cravings of the body while it whets the appetite of the mind, it closes a day of work and opens an evening of repose and mental release."

Now, the opinion of "society" that tea, or any other meal, is "a characterless, insipid, and altogether wearisome meal," is conclusive for the society which holds it, but for nobody else. If a man finds a meal wearisome, there is no disputing with him, because the agreeableness of a meal is a matter of taste. Trying to persuade him that he ought to like it, and that it is not wearisome, is a peculiarly Puritan undertaking, or at all events one which nobody who had not a strong strain of Puritan blood in his veins would enter on, and which few who do not possess the Puritan tradition can witness without a smile

Moreover, while it is strictly true that tea is what you make it, so is dinner or any other meal. Our friend of the *Christian Union*, who finds dinner such a terrible repast, should not forget that it is the meal at which most of the great talkers of the modern world have done their best, and is the only occasion on which you can get a great many of them to do their best, not in England only, but in France, Italy, Germany—in fact, in the civilized world. That nobody but a Macaulay or a Harcourt can talk at a modern English dinner is one of the most diverting statements in the article. In fact, his remarks on this subject show simply that late dinners do not suit him; that he probably overeats himself at them, which no good diner-out ever does, and that it is this which "annihilates" that "esprit," and "fine flash of wit, and pervading charm of humor," that "subtle and exquisite putting of nice shades of thought," which he leaves us to infer that he displays at tea-tables. Happy, of course, is the tea-table which listens to such a man. But we feel sure that he could do at least as well at a dinner-table, if he would restrain himself. No good talker ever eats right through the courses of a two-hour dinner, or drinks through all the wines. He chooses, and it is intended that he should choose, and if he means to show much "esprit" or "delicate interplay of intellectual sympathy," he must not gorge himself. Persons who find it difficult to let any dish pass them, or to avoid consuming everything that is put on their plate, and who drink four or five kinds of wine pell-mell, should either avoid dinners or resign themselves to the rôle of simple feeders. Tea unquestionably is better suited to such appetites, if for no other reason, for the very simple one that at tea there is less to eat.

As a matter of fact, however, the dinner which the *Christian Union* describes as a scene of sensual indulgence, from which all signs of intellectual interest and of mental vivacity are absent, is rarely seen in our day among educated men, unless they are very young. Dinners, in the first place, are rarely two hours long. The fashion on this point has greatly changed. In France during the Empire they lasted but little over an hour. In London one hour and ten minutes is now the orthodox limit. In New York, where the material side of the dinner unquestionably is still too prominent, they seldom reach an hour and a half among people who make any pretence of giving a dinner for the sake of the talk. Moreover, no modern man who has reached the talking age is as hungry at dinner as the *Christian Union* thinks he is. In France he has eaten a solid *déjeuner à la fourchette* at eleven o'clock; in England he has lunched heartily at two; and in Germany he has been taking little snacks of something nearly every two hours, so that he does not come to an evening dinner with a ravenous and shameless appetite. But it must always be borne in mind that dinner does

not make a dull man bright, or a bore entertaining, or an ignorant man well read; nor does it give a nervous or washed-out dyspeptic the flow of animal spirits without which no man was ever a good dinner-table talker. A goose or a dunce, when he comes to dinner, remains a goose or a dunce still. No arrangement of the meal will change him. But this is all strictly true of tea also. We suspect strongly that the reason why "society" has this low opinion of tea as a meal, described by the *Christian Union*, is that society has met a great many dreary people at tea. We do not doubt that the "esprit" and the intellectual sympathy and the rest of it are often seen there, but we may depend upon it that dull tea-tables, at which the slightness of the repast does nothing to increase the mental vivacity of the guests, are by no means uncommon.

The suggestion that tea is kept up anywhere as the evening meal because it is more promotive of play of mind at table, is of course very misleading. People for the most part have tea instead of dinner as a matter of household convenience, without the smallest reference to intellectual or æsthetic, or even hygienic, considerations. In small households of moderate means, where there are children and the husband's place of business is not too far off, it is easier for the mistress and maid to have the principal meal in the middle of the day, and the lighter one, which entails less trouble, in the evening. The arrangement is, we are satisfied, in a vast number of cases injurious to the men, who, as so often in country towns, return to their offices and their work afterward, to spend the afternoon in a dull and somnolent condition, struggling with a feeble and overtaxed digestion, and preparing the way for an early old age. To them a cup of tea in the evening, when the work is over, must be a great refreshment, and, of course, the idea of another heavy meal highly repulsive. But the practice of eating heavily in the middle of the day among men who work with their heads is not general in intellectual society. A large part of the world follows the, as we believe, salutary custom of eating the principal meal at or near sunset, when the toil of the day is over and the cares that infest it have folded their tents like the Arabs. Finally, let us say that tea is good, and so is dinner, and so are all meals, but let us have no cant about any meal.

THE LIBRARIES OF WASHINGTON.

WASHINGTON, June 12, 1883.

THE articles on Washington libraries, recently published in the *Nation* and elsewhere, have attracted considerable attention in this city. So far as the *Nation* is concerned, the only fault found with the views it has presented is that they omit to mention certain phases which would necessarily escape the notice of all except persons living in Washington.

It is asserted that the Library of Congress is a monstrosity, since it attempts to serve two masters whose interests are widely opposed. Its first master, of course, is Congress. Every parliamentary body needs a large library, and the Library of Congress should be simply what its name indicates, and what, until the new copyright law went into effect in 1870, it actually was. It fulfilled, and would have continued to fulfil, the same useful and dignified purpose as is served by the admirable libraries of the British, French, German, and other Parliaments. But, with the year 1870, it began the attempt to combine the functions of a parliamentary and a national library, and in these few years, in spite of the smallness of the annual appropriation—small both as regards books and management—it has become not only one of the largest libraries in the world, but one which, making allowance for the difficulties of management, is as well conducted as any other. These difficulties, however, are insuperable. It is commonly supposed that the motives of Congress in failing to grant the necessary funds for a library building have been, first, indifference to books and libraries, and, second, reluctance to spend money where it would serve no political end. Doubtless, these considerations have been influential, but a more powerful reason has remained unnoticed. This is the unwillingness of the average Congressman to part with the library; for, in spite of oft-repeated explanations, he cannot be brought to see that with a change of quarters it would not cease to be the library of Congress. That Congress is willing to appropriate money for libraries is shown by the facility with which the special libraries of the Government, notably, of late years, that under charge of Major Powell, obtain supplies; and it may also be remarked that the affirmative votes on appropriations for a library building have by no means included all the members who appreciate the value of books. Telephonic communication and quick expresses would bring to members the books desired within a space of time not much longer than is now required to get them. But, as it is now situated, the members use the library in dressing-gown and slippers, as it were; or, to phrase it differently, the Capitol is a great club-house, of which the library is almost as essential as the restaurant is. It is said, however, that the number of books ever wanted by Congressmen as such does not exceed 50,000 volumes, and that these could, and would, be left in the building. But however adequate the supply of books, the members would sadly miss their popular counsellor and friend, the Librarian of Congress, who serves many of them as a walking dictionary of all kinds of knowledge.

It is said, too, not only that the latter is overworked, but that it is impossible for any one to give the constant thought necessary in conducting a special library (which the Library of Congress as such is) and at the same time to manage a great general library. Especially is this held to be the case when the function of the special library is to make easily accessible all the information (contained in books) which may be needed by such a body as Congress. The responsibility of such a purveyor of information is realized only when one takes into consideration, not only the vast importance of having Congressmen provided with all the special knowledge circumstances may require (and which very few are competent to find for themselves), but also the constant watchfulness and enormous power of work needed by the person whose duty it is to serve as a key to the chaotic mass of material. It is alleged, at some of the special libraries, that Congressmen are anxious enough to learn, and that the extraordinary displays of ignorance with which the country is occasionally amused, would be much rarer if the light of books were not (for them) so largely under a bushel.

But this great collection is much more than the library of Congress, since both in size and character it is worthy to be called a national library. Unfortunately, it cannot be a national library (taking the British Museum and the Bibliothèque Nationale as representing the type of national libraries) so long as it is the Library of Congress. And it is held by some that this state of things is not really to be deplored, since, from their point of view, whatever sums may be appropriated for the purchase and care of books would be more advantageously expended in strengthening the various special libraries, in which, perhaps, Washington is richer than any other city in the world. Of these libraries, the Medical Museum is the best known, not only because of the excellence of its administration, but also because its special public is larger than that of any of the others; but persons who have occasion to use the collection of works on education at the Bureau of Education, on ethnology, etc., under charge of the Geological Survey, on international law and history at the State Department, of technical literature at the Patent Office, etc., etc., are said to have an equally high opinion of these libraries. The scientific works received, in enormous quantities, by the Smithsonian Institution have for many years been housed in the Library of Congress; but were these combined with the smaller scientific libraries, as has been proposed, and stored in a building near the Smithsonian, which, of course, is the scientific centre of the city, the wants of the scientific public would be much more efficiently accommodated than they now are. The various collections of the city would then form a university of every kind of knowledge, and, it is claimed, would so best further study and scientific investigation.

A diametrically opposite view is held by the advocates of a "national" library. They hold that a universal library is an essential feature of the capital of a great country, and that no possible combination of special libraries would serve the purpose, because no branch of knowledge is independent of others; that, in fact, they are so intertwined that, unless all branches of knowledge are brought under one roof, students would be vastly incommoded by having to run from one end of the town to the other. And irrespective of this they maintain that the copyright law produces a national library, however little the Government favors it in any other way. At the Library of Congress, they scout the idea of giving to the Medical Museum, as has been suggested, one of the two copies of each medical work deposited. The law requires two copies, they say, in order that any particular work may be always accessible to the student, just as the models at the Patent Office are accessible to the inventor.

In opposition to this view, it is said the copyright portion of the Library of Congress has a reason for existence as a special library, and that, the Congressional portion being left in the Capitol and the scientific transferred to the neighborhood of the Institution, an appropriation would be obtained without the least difficulty for a sufficiently large building for the Copyright Office, in connection with which the books, together with the other copyright "exhibits," could be displayed more advantageously than in a general library. The second copies "deposited" could then be distributed among the special libraries (including the Library of Congress) according to the nature of the work, on the plan recently advocated in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* with reference to the French "dépôt légal." In other countries, the depositing of copies is regarded merely as a special trade tax, being, perhaps, a survival of the old system of tithes. In Germany, indeed, it has nothing to do with copyright, not being exacted by the Federal copyright office, and having been abolished in some of the States of the Empire. The museum formed in Washington by the copyright deposit would thus be a unique collection, besides being of extraordinary value to the future student of American man-

ners. But if the Library of Congress is to be a museum, it is clear that the specimens should always be kept on exhibition; while it would be idle to expect Congress to alienate what, as things stand, it justly regards as its own collection.

The proposed library building would be large enough to give ample accommodations to a dozen special libraries, and there would seem to be no reason why the medical and education libraries, at least, should not be transferred to it. But there is, we are informed, a reason, none the less powerful because felt rather than expressed. Experience (it is said) has shown that as separation involves independence, so, in Washington, propinquity implies dependence. Supposing the great building finished and the Medical Library, with its staff, transported thither, however slight and silken might be the tie that connected its head with the Librarian of Congress as his superior officer, it would be impossible for a special library to maintain its individuality against the fusing currents which would play around it. *Per contra*, this is called a merely sentimental consideration, and it is asserted that the Medical Library as such would be just as useful as the Supreme Court Library is, which, though kept on the other side of the Capitol, forms part of the Library of Congress. Altogether, the question appears too involved to be judged by ordinary library experience.

PARLIAMENTARY BUSINESS AND THE LIBERAL PARTY.

LONDON, May 31, 1883.

THE condition of business in Parliament, which has caused some anxiety ever since the beginning of the session, when ten nights were wasted in the debate on the Address, grew still more serious when the Ministry had received a shake by the division on the Affirmation Bill. Although that bill was understood not to be a Cabinet matter, still a defeat after so long a debate and in so full a House could not but damage the prestige and weaken the authority of a Government which came in with so great a majority. The first effects of it were believed to have been found in a division which occurred a few days later on a comparatively unimportant question. The Chancellor of the Exchequer had proposed to transfer the collection of the income tax from the special collectors who now do the work to the ordinary revenue officials, alleging that a considerable saving would be thereby effected. The collectors raised an agitation against the proposal, on the ground that it would inflict a hardship upon them, insufficient compensation being provided for their vested interests. The Government, in deference to these complaints, modified their proposal, agreeing not to turn out the present collectors, but merely to substitute revenue officials for those who might die or resign. In spite of this concession, however, the scheme was defeated, its rejection being moved by a Liberal member, and the Conservatives, who of course voted against the Government, being reinforced by a few Ministerialists. Though the point was in itself insignificant, the want either of loyalty among the supporters of the Government, or of watchful activity in the Government whips in bringing up their men to vote, produced a considerable impression, and increased the discouragement of the Liberals. The Tories began to take heart, and to talk of their return to power as not such a distant event, after all. During the Whitsuntide holidays their journals and orators were unusually jubilant, these Parliamentary holidays being the time when the prominent politicians go on the stump. Even those Liberals who believed that Mr. Gladstone's conduct on the Affirmation Bill had rather strengthened than weakened his hold on his party in the country, and who saw no ground for disaffection in the Parliamentary majority toward its leaders, admitted that the backward state of business was a dangerous feature in the situation. If this session should pass, like the two last, without bearing fruit in useful measures for England and Scotland, there would be general disappointment in the country and a belief that the Liberal Government was, after all, but little more efficient than the Tory Government, whose failure to legislate had been so often arraigned. Up till now the Ministry had excused themselves by pointing to the defective procedure of the House of Commons, and the facilities it gave for obstruction. But after the six weeks spent last winter in passing a new code of procedure this excuse was no longer available. If the country should now see that Parliament effects nothing, it will blame the Government, who have the command of a Parliamentary majority, and who seem, therefore, to have the disposal of Parliamentary time.

These considerations had produced no small disheartenment among the Liberals, and made it seem desirable to apply some spur or stimulant to their flagging zeal. The remedy of a general meeting of the party was suggested in several newspapers. Such meetings are not very common in English politics, and more common in the Conservative than in the Liberal party. They have been resorted to either when some new and unforeseen crisis arises, which obliges a leader to make a special call on the loyalty of his followers, or when there exists, or is believed to exist, a certain amount of dissension or discontent within the party, for which it is thought well to provide an outlet. For many years Mr. Gladstone had held none until last February year, when he summoned his supporters to explain to them his views regarding the attack which the House of Lords were making on the working of the Irish Land Act. The results of that meeting were wholesome, so it was thought that the same expedient might now have similarly tonic effects. When the meeting, which was summoned for Tuesday last in the great room of the Foreign Office, was announced, much curiosity was excited. People expected some grave declaration of policy, some fervent appeal to resist and overcome the insidious obstruction which the Liberals have accused the Tory party of practising. However, the proceedings turned out so quiet and commonplace that the same afternoon people asked one another why the meeting should have been held at all. Mr. Gladstone merely announced that the Ministry felt themselves obliged to drop the bill for creating a new comprehensive municipal government for London, and added that he meant to press on all the other measures mentioned in the Queen's speech. When urged to declare that he would keep the Parliament sitting till it had disposed of those measures, even though this should protract the session into the month of October, he refused, remarking that it was not wise to threaten the House of Commons. All this of course might have been as well said in the House of Commons itself; and Mr. Gladstone did, in fact, tell the House of Commons at 5 o'clock very much what he had told his own supporters at 11. If the meeting produced any effect, it may be pronounced to have been transient, and the situation is substantially just what it was.

The Conservative party held a meeting the same day at the Carlton Club to consider what course they should take with regard to the Agricultural Tenants' Compensation Bill, a measure for providing that a farmer shall always be entitled to have compensation for unexhausted improvements made by him upon land. Although a few years ago the mass of English landlords strongly objected to making this a general compulsory rule, irrespective of the contracts made between the particular landlord and the particular tenant, opinion has now so much advanced that the Tory land-owners are willing to accept the principle of the bill, and the meeting so decided. They are mostly members for counties, and could not afford to displease their farming constituents. The bill will therefore probably pass without much difficulty, although some Radicals think that it does not go far enough.

I return to the question, which is really not an easy one to answer, why the Liberal party, which is united in its loyalty to Mr. Gladstone, which has no serious internal differences now distracting it (whatever grounds for future schism may be already discerned), which commands a large majority in the House of Commons, should be nevertheless in a condition of listlessness and languor, which allows the Conservative minority to clog so successfully the wheels of legislation. Two reasons may be suggested: The first is the fact that the questions now before Parliament are not of an exciting kind. Bankruptcy reform, the prevention of corrupt practices at elections, the creation of a court of criminal appeal, the recognition of the right of agricultural tenants to compensation, the prevention of floods—all these are matters which, however important, do not stir the heart or quicken the pulse of the country. The country, therefore, does not put any great pressure on its representatives to accelerate their settlement, nor show any great indignation at the waste of Parliamentary time in pretending to discuss them. True it is that members of the Legislature ought to recognize their importance, and to feel that the absence of more exciting and purely party questions is a reason for pressing on and settling such matters, in which the welfare of the people and the proper working of our Constitution are deeply involved. But it is vain to expect that representatives will keep much ahead of constituents, or be continuously active, except under popular pressure. The number of members who consider a seat as a social advantage, which carries with it some power and some privileges to be enjoyed rather than regarded as a weighty trust, is always large—sufficiently large to produce a great *vis inertiæ* in the House of Commons. The condition of the country seems fairly prosperous. The upper classes are thoroughly satisfied with the world of England as they find it. The poorer classes, though they neither are nor have reason to be satisfied, do not quite know what to ask for. They have not yet learned to use their power—indeed, they have scarcely realized what their power is—and no programme of changes calculated to improve their condition has yet seriously fixed their minds. Thus the motive force to propel Parliament which might be expected to come from the people comes in scant measure; and even reforming governments must be content to watch the sails flapping now and then against the masts and sit whistling for the wind.

The second cause is the feeling of vague uneasiness that springs from the expectation of Mr. Gladstone's early retirement from political life. Though he enjoys pretty good health, gives pretty constant attendance in the House of Commons, and certainly shows no sign of intellectual failing, being as fully master of his oratorical gifts as he ever was, it is no secret that for some time past he has wished to retire from labors which at seventy-four years of age it is wonderful he should be at all able to support. Nobody expects that he will consent to sit in another House of Commons, nor is it impossible

that he may quit the Ministry even before the present House is dissolved. His departure would immediately change the whole political horizon, for strong and respected as Lord Hartington and Lord Granville are, neither of them has the same authority over the extreme left wing of the party as the present Prime Minister, nor the same hold on the imagination of the country. We all know from our personal experience how hard it is to settle down to quiet, steady work when one is awaiting some event or some piece of news which will sensibly affect one's own life and prospects. The mind cannot help running off to it from whatever else it ought to be bent on. One feels as if it were scarcely worth while to be taking pains about little things when some big thing is to happen speedily. Somewhat in this way the expectation of Mr. Gladstone's departure has begun to tell on the minds of English politicians. They feel as if the present arrangements were only temporary, and cannot refrain from speculating as to the new developments they believe to be at hand Obviously the wise course for the Liberals would be to make the very most of the months or years during which Mr. Gladstone's leadership is left to them, by pushing through measures for which his experience and authority are desirable. But people can't always force themselves to do the things which they know to be wise. However, it need hardly be said that if this feeling exists it is wholly a feeling of regret and anxiety. Though Mr. Gladstone's reign draws to its close, there is no sign of any loosening of the attachment of his followers to him; nor has any one yet begun to discuss publicly the new combinations to which it may give rise. Y.

SOCIALISM IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, June 7, 1883.

IT has long been a commonplace of self-congratulation in England that the poorer classes are contented with their lot, and not, like those of some Continental countries, disposed to lend an ear to the preachers of wild or subversive doctrine. The various socialistic or communistic schemes, movements, organizations which during this century have alarmed the respectable classes of France, Germany, Spain, Russia, have not raised their heads here. No English advocate of communism has obtained any note or any following, either as a writer or as a practical politician, and when attempts have been made to transplant the programme of socialism from the Continent, it has invariably languished and expired. That great and comprehensive league of workingmen in all countries which struck so much terror into Governments all over Europe some few years ago, the International of Karl Marx, never took root here, never obtained any serious hold on the minds even of the class which is most radical in its political tendencies.

Our people attribute this remarkable and reassuring phenomenon partly to that general virtue of Britain which they are so deeply persuaded of, and to the special favor with which Nature and Providence regard this island; partly to the fortunate indisposition of the British, or at least of the English, mind to speculation, to its preference of that which is plain, solid, and close at hand to that which is ideal, visionary, remote. Admitting that this turn of mind has been serviceable, there are other causes of no less consequence. One is the material prosperity of Great Britain during the last forty years, a time which, with occasional ups and downs, has on the whole been one of abundant work, cheap food, good wages. Another is the comparatively large measure of political freedom the people have enjoyed, and their belief that grievances can be, and ultimately will be, removed by constitutional agitation. A third is the reasonably good feeling which prevails between the higher and the lower classes, there being hardly anything of that class hatred which exists in Ireland, and which to some extent exists still in France in spite of democratic equality. Lastly there has been the very important fact that Christianity has retained a greater hold on the masses than it has on the town population of Germany or France. It is no doubt true that the majority of our poorer townsfolk do not go to church, and are not to be reckoned as members of any denomination. Still, there are many among them who are under religious influences, and even among the irreligious there is very little—though, doubtless, there is some—of that positive and aggressive hatred of Christianity and its ministers which is so powerful a factor in many parts of the Continent. All these causes, and others of less general scope, have contributed to make the British working class acquiesce in the existing condition of things, and hear with listless ears the few who have attempted to interest them in large and sweeping plans for improving their condition by attacking capital and reorganizing society on a communistic basis. I cannot recollect that any person of the least note has ever proposed in England that the state should undertake the duty of finding work for the unemployed; or that any set of workingmen have demanded this. Questions as to shifting the burden of taxation more on to the shoulders of the rich off those of the poor have excited no interest. They cannot be called a part even of the advanced Radical programmes. Candidates for Parliament, for instance, are rarely asked for their opinions on the subject. Even that practical form of socialism, the English Poor-law, has not been used as an argument in favor of socialistic legislation. Whether those persons who think it has prevented the growth of other forms of socialism are right, is a point I do not discuss. The singular thing is that its inherent socialism has been almost forgotten, and not made a justification for further steps in the same direction by those who might have been expected so to employ it. In fact, the whole topic has been for us one of merely speculative interest—the interest of those who watch tides of opinion moving to and fro in other countries, and threatening practical consequences there.

But in the last year or two a change has been observable in England. Socialistic or communistic views (I use both terms, because either alone is apt to be misunderstood) have begun to find advocates here, and to be considered as influences which may have to be reckoned with as forces likely before long to come into the sphere of practical politics. It is, however, significant that these advocates do not come from the humbler class, and have not yet, so far as one can judge, made any substantial impression upon that class. Not only do they themselves belong to the educated classes (that has been generally true of socialist writers in Europe); they are still working in the plane of the educated classes and finding an audience there. No socialist party yet exists among the workingmen. The abstract doctrines of socialism which the new apostles of the doctrines preach have not yet been applied to the solution of practical problems, have not connected themselves with any section of politicians, nor taken shape in proposals to be brought before Parliament. These are results which will probably—indeed, necessarily—follow, if the movement continues. It will be time enough then to examine them, and try to forecast their action on our political future. In the meantime I propose only to suggest some reasons for the appearance of this new tendency, and thereby to seek an explanation of its nature.

Those who have watched the history of political economy in England during the last forty years, since its great triumph was won by Sir Robert Peel's acceptance of a free-trade policy, will find one of these reasons in the reaction that has taken place against the doctrines of individualism and competition and *laissez-faire* as they were enounced by the economists of that day. It was then believed that what the world needed was to have the old shackles upon industry knocked off, and that the principle of supply and demand, with unlimited freedom of contract, would do all the rest. This has been. We have had competition and (with some few exceptions intended for the protection of the working class, such as the Factory Act) full freedom of contract; and we are not satisfied with the result. We find the condition of the poor not so very much better than it was before. We perceive that competition has its drawbacks, and that under freedom of contract the stronger of the two parties to the contract may use his strength harshly. Thus there began a reaction against the teaching of the so-called Manchester school and the "high and dry" economists generally. Acts limiting the hours of labor, and giving especial protection to women and children, were passed. The system of paying workpeople in kind—that is to say, of forcing them to buy their food or clothes at the employer's store—was forbidden, elementary education was made compulsory, and the stream still continues to flow in the same direction—the direction of state interference and of the protection of people from the consequences of their own acts. At this moment a bill is before Parliament, and is pretty certain to pass, which prevents an agricultural tenant from contracting himself out of the right to demand compensation for his improvements. And the Government has promised, in deference to the opinion of a decided majority in Parliament, to allow local authorities to restrain, or perhaps stop, the sale of intoxicants. It is the extremer form of this reaction that lands some people in socialism. They despair of competition and individualism, and expect a real bettering of society from the opposite line of policy.

Nor is it only with the results of our economic legislation that the thinkers I am describing are disappointed. They complain that neither the general prosperity of England since 1846 nor the political enfranchisement of the working classes has greatly improved their material well-being. There still remains in our large towns a great mass of pauperism, and a still larger population which is only a little above the level of pauperism, and liable to be submerged if its level should rise. The agricultural laborers are in a wretched state. Their wages are still so low that it is almost impossible for them to save for their old age or to live in anything like comfort. Legislation on the old lines has done, and now is doing, so little for them that some far more sweeping change of existing conditions seems called for. The working classes now enjoy, in the towns, full political power. They have so great a voting majority as to be able to put in any Ministry they like, and dictate to them any measures they approve. Yet this power has not enabled them to get better houses, lighter taxation, a generally easier and more agreeable life. Must they not, therefore, look to some other kind of change, some radical resettlement of the economics of society, if they are to get what makes life worth living?

A third cause has come in to strengthen the two which have just been described: I mean the growing tenderness towards suffering, the growing desire to relieve men from facing those hard antagonists, weariness, want, hunger, cold, disease. All these foes of mankind are specially foes of the poor, and the relative soft-heartedness

of this generation makes it give a fuller and readier sympathy to the struggles of the poor against them. Hence a livelier interest in the possible methods of bettering their state; hence a greater readiness to grasp at any project which may seem to carry promise with it; hence also a certain sentimentalism of mind which does not try projects by the hard, dry logical or experimental tests which would have been applied thirty years ago.

Besides these general causes—intellectual and moral causes one may call them—there are two others to which some little importance may be assigned. One is the rise in Germany of the school of so-called "Socialists of the Chair" (*Kathedersocialisten*), who have discussed with zeal, and in many cases approved, proposals for state interference and state aid in favor of the working class, which, though they fall far short of communism, approach nearer toward it than the older economists would have done. Though the writings of these men are not largely read in England, thought and thought-tendencies are contagious in our modern world, and the example of learned and able men in another country following this path, undeterred by the practical dangers which socialism seems in Germany to threaten, has not failed to affect us in England.

This influence has been speculative; the other I speak of has come through politics. The Irish Land Act of 1881 was not in any sense a communistic measure. But it dealt pretty rudely with the property rights of the landlords, which, though they may have been founded in ancient wrong, had been confirmed by recent statutes. Thus the moral effect of that great measure was, if not to shake the popular respect for the sanctity of property, at least to impress upon some minds the idea that all sorts of rights may have to give way to the general interest of the people, and that the state may interfere, where economic difficulties have produced a sort of deadlock, to rescue the poor from their difficulties and give them a sort of new start. Everybody who has studied the subject knows that the circumstances of Ireland were so peculiar that the act passed for her could not be applied to England. Still, in a vague sort of way, the impression produced by such a bold and startling piece of legislation remains, and makes speculation wander more freely into new fields.

I have been speaking all through rather of tendencies than of doctrines. The only book that has proposed anything of a practical kind is Mr. Henry George's 'Progress and Poverty,' which has been largely read by our working class. But though it has made a great impression, there is still nothing like a socialist programme, much less a socialist party, among us. Perhaps a more significant occurrence is the foundation of an organ, "designed to advocate the views of Marx, Lassalle, and Henry George," by some young and ardent university men. Y.

Correspondence.

BUTLER AT WILLIAMS COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I want to call your attention to the fact that the presence of Governor Butler at the coming Williams Commencement has no personal significance one way or the other. In respect to State funds, Williams holds a relation to Massachusetts similar to that of Harvard. Always at a Williams Commencement the Governor of Massachusetts or the High Sheriff of the County is present in an official capacity to represent the State. The Governor is expected whenever other engagements will admit of his coming.—Yours respectfully,

A Williams Alumnus.

Peterborough, N. H., June 18, 1883.

EARLY MAPS OF THE ATLANTIC COAST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with interest the notice found in to-day's *Nation* of Mr. Henry Harrisse's paper devoted to an original map and documents of 1502, showing, it is said, the coast of America from the Gulf to the region of the Hudson. Of the paper in question, which, no doubt, is of much value, I have no knowledge; but I beg leave to call attention to the fact that during 1878, in a paper read before the New York Historical Society, I argued the existence of such a map as that produced by Mr. Harrisse, which appears to be similar to—possibly it may prove identical with—the map published in the Ptolemy of 1513. The original of the map published in 1513, I said, was drawn between 1501–4, and sent from Lisbon to the Duke of Lorraine. The map was certainly engraved prior to December 10, 1508. I also called attention to the fact that the Portuguese, at this early period, were busy exploring the Gulf, and "doubtless explored Florida." In 1503 Cosa sent a courier to Seville, complaining of the Portuguese; while at Segovia, in the same year, he presented two charts to the Queen—now apparently lost. The map of 1513, based upon the map drawn in 1501–4, probably contains all, or nearly all, that is found in the map produced by Mr. Harrisse—though I state this as a probability. Nor would it appear surprising if this newly-found map should appear to put the latitude of the Cape of Florida eight or nine degrees too high, since the principles of comparative anatomy may be applied to the old cartology with almost as much confidence as to the monstrosities of the Saurian age.

The delineation of 1513 gives a tolerable outline of the Gulf region and our coast as high up as the Hudson; yet it may appear, after all, the sketch so used was never intended for our coast, and that (as Mr. Valentini has suggested) some blunderer read a map of Yucatan the wrong side up, and made it do duty for the coast of North America. B. F. De Costa.

New York, June 14, 1883.

AUTHORS AND PUBLISHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a contribution to the discussion on the respective profits of authors and publishers, I would suggest one or two considerations which do not seem to have occurred to either side. From the very nature of things, literary labor always has been, and always will be, as a rule, underpaid. Before the invention of printing, this was evidently inevitable; and since that event, it is only the modern growth of a large reading public that has lifted the professional author above the degrading necessity of patronage. With the spread of education, however, the growth of readers has been accompanied by more than a corresponding growth of authors; and while the prizes in the literary lottery have been magnified for those fortunate enough to win them, the blanks have become proportionately more numerous.

When laborers increase faster than the wage-fund, the result must be insufficient wages. That this should be the case with authorship more than with almost any other pursuit is self-evident to any one who will bestow impartial thought upon the matter. There is, first, the competition of the dead authors of all ages and literatures, whose works supply reading matter free of all charge for authorship, consuming a large portion of the time and money which the public is willing to devote to reading. There is, I believe, no other pursuit exposed to this competition of the dead hand. Then there is the fact that many persons are blessed or cursed with the literary temperament, so that they are impelled to write irrespective of the question of literary reward; with the necessary corollary that what they write must be printed, even if this has to be done at their own expense. Partly contained in this class, and partly extending beyond it, are those who thirst for reputation or notoriety, and find their reward therein. Beyond all these are innumerable professional and scientific men whose careers may be largely benefited by well-directed efforts in their special lines of thought, and who may find themselves richly repaid for authorship even though it may yield them no return in current coin. Then there are the men and women with a mission, who have special causes to advocate in sociology, philosophy, politics, religion, and the myriad other fields of human activity, and who labor disinterestedly, without thought of payment. Add to these the horde of travellers, biographers, and a thousand others who make occasional excursions into the field of authorship, because they have, or think they have, something to say which the world ought to hear.

Not only has the professional author to compete with all these volunteers—whom he may regard as the regular soldier does the militiaman, but who nevertheless occupy largely the public time and the public ear—but his profession is one which has a greater tendency than some other professions to overcrowd itself. Aside from publishers' checks, the rewards of successful authorship have a very great fascination for a large class of minds, and the consideration which a popular author enjoys is just as much a portion of his incentive and of his gains as the social standing which compensates for moderate incomes in many other pursuits—such as the church, the army, and science. This seduces a large number of young people of both sexes to venture upon a literary life who had perhaps better be employed in some humbler but more practical career. Then, authorship is a business requiring no capital, and, as almost every person of moderate education imagines that he or she can write, the temptation to resort to it to eke out an insufficient income, or to begin life anew after a failure, is almost irresistible. A cultivated woman who is left a widow in straightened circumstances is almost sure to have recourse to her pen, and so is a briefless lawyer, a patientless doctor, or a pulpitless clergyman with long hours of profitless leisure on his hands. It is, together with teaching, the one profession which is popularly supposed to require no special training—the one profession open to all, without distinction of age or sex; and that it should be crowded beyond all other professions is the logical result. That it should be underpaid follows as a matter of course. Even the great masters of literature, who can dictate their own terms to publishers, have to be content with vastly less pecuniary success than attends equal talent and industry devoted solely to the accumulation of wealth. That the less fortunate should find ample cause for dissatisfaction in their paltry share of the world's goods is as unalterable as fate; and this will, I fear, continue as long as the printing-press is free to reproduce the masterpieces of bygone generations and to flood the world with the productions of all who choose to pay for employing it.

The moral of all this is not cheering for professional authorship, but, like other morals, it is not likely to be heeded.

As to the publisher, he, like other business

men, conducts his business to make money. If he does not succeed, so much the worse for the authors whose books he publishes. If he does succeed, his business will pay on an average about the same return as other lines of trade for the amount of capital, energy, and sagacity put into it. If it paid more, competition would be increased and profits cut down. If it paid less, the ranks would be thinned out till the average was reached. It has this drawback, however, that its extent is necessarily limited, and it is not capable of indefinite enlargement, like stocks, or breadstuffs, or dry goods, or transportation. None of the large fortunes of the world have ever been made by publishing books, nor will they ever be—unless, indeed, the dreams of the Rev. Barham Zincke be realized, and by the close of the next century the globe be encircled by 800,000,000 of educated English-speaking peoples. With a cosmopolitan copyright, this would open an illimitable vista for Anglo-Saxon authors and publishers alike—but, then, what about those of other tongues?

Very respectfully, L.

JUNE 16, 1883.

COLLEGE PROFESSORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been much interested in the article written by "N. N.," and in your comments thereon, in the *Nation* of recent date. I have just finished a service of thirteen years as professor in Western colleges, nine years of that time having been spent in a "land-grant" State college. I am able, therefore, to say a few words *ex-ex cathedra* about professors and salaries.

Nearly all the college professors I have known have been men of fair ability and devoted to their work. I have never, however, found one of the kind described by "N. N." Without exception, they have all felt the burden which the meagre salary of a Western college professor places on them. With all of these honest and often able men life has been a constant struggle, embittered by the thought that the urgent demands of the present permit no preparation for old age. I, being a bachelor, have been spared this struggle for existence, and, by following a simple mode of life, have never been pushed by actual poverty. If this condition of college finance is to continue, I see no hope for the professor of the future except in voluntary, or, rather, enforced, celibacy.

The Western college professor's duties are usually so varied that he has little chance to enjoy those deep pleasures which arise from great attainments in one line of study, and which, with the pipe and the *Seidel*, do so much to make the German professor's "life a happy one." In the "land-grant" college to which I have already referred, I have been nominally professor of chemistry, but at different times have been called upon to teach military tactics, physics, French, German, constitutional law, and political economy, and occasionally to lecture to the students on Sunday afternoons. Such an alternation of duties may bring a pleasing variety into the humdrum of college life, and I may say that I have enjoyed all these detours of pedagogy. But often it is otherwise, and the patient professor is overwhelmed with a deluge of subjects.

To show further how hard the lot of a Western professor is, I will add that once I have been cited to appear before the Board of Trustees to answer for the heinous crime of riding a bicycle. To this charge I pleaded guilty, and threw myself upon the mercy of the court. By one of the trustees I was compared to "a monkey riding around on nothing," which, on account of my well-known views on evolution, was doubtless intended for an ancestral insult. In spite, however, of this simian insinuation of the horrified trustee, I was allowed to retain my place. Indeed, I have learned gradually to look upon myself as an almost hardened criminal, since I was successively charged before the trustees with absenting myself from morning prayers, with being an infidel, and with membership in a political club. In another case, one of the most eminent young scientists of the country was dismissed from a college because he did not belong to a church. In another instance, where the majority of the professors in a State college happened to be Presbyterians, it was understood that, for a vacancy in the faculty, membership in that organization would be regarded as an insuperable objection to any aspirant, however high his qualifications might be. Other churches were clamoring for a representation. I do not exaggerate when I say that membership in some Trinitarian church is a *sine qua non* for obtaining a position in any Western college. Fitness for the position is a matter of secondary importance.

I close with a brief recital of three instances of hard luck in one institution endowed by the general Government and fostered by a State. The professor was about fifty years old; he had a wife and six helpless children. His compensation was small, and each quarter's salary (and somewhat more) was generally promised before it was drawn. Hard labor and the anxiety of life were too much for the poor man. One night a blood-vessel broke in his brain. The apoplexy did not kill him; the blood-clot became encysted; he lives a hopeless imbecile and paralytic. He had spent thirty years in teaching for the State. Had he been a pampered West-Pointer, the Government would have cared for him; but being only a faithful teacher, the State allows him and his family to starve. For the helpless husband, the crushed wife, and the bright children only one resource is left—to go on the county, to live and die in a poorhouse. The college is certainly not to be blamed for the breaking of the cerebral artery; but after the thirty years of faithful service which this poor professor has rendered, the State should provide something better than poverty for his apoplexy.

In the next two cases the college is not so blameless. In the first of these the professor was not old, but somewhat feeble. Nevertheless, he did his work faithfully and efficiently. He was thoroughly upright and honorable, and highly esteemed by all his students. A few months before his decapitation there had been some talk of changes in the faculty, and the president of the trustees had assured him that, whatever other changes were made, he at least should not be disturbed. A man of large liberality, he had given away what little surplus was left from his meagre salary. Thirty-five years he had been a teacher, giving the flower and the fruit of his life for the public. Without a trial, without a moment's warning, the axe fell, and his official head rolled in the dust. The only palliation offered by the trustees for this crime against humanity was, that the professor was somewhat deaf! The only consolation he has, in this mixture of falsehood, injustice, and ingratitude, he finds in the universal indignation of the students and the people who know the facts.

One other instance. In this case the professor was appointed on probation. He is a Methodist, and did not object to that. He had been a gallant soldier; four years he had served in the army, the greater part of the time as a private. A minié-ball through his hip had made him a partial cripple for life. After his year of probation, he was unanimously made professor, and, although he had the most difficult chair in the college, he was doing fairly well. A gentleman in the truest sense of the word, he commanded the respect of the students and the community. In some vague way a report reached the trustees that he was inefficient. No inquiry was made of the students, of his fellow-professors, or of the people of the neighborhood. His head fell—an act of arbitrary despotism.

The trustees of this college are honest men; they have acted through ignorance, and not through malice. In some way they have been led to believe that it was for the best interests of the institution that these two men should be dismissed. There is but one opinion among the students and the community as to how this influence was exerted, but no proof can be obtained. Their meetings are secret, and their victims are helpless. It is the hand of the assassin striking in the dark, and not the manly contest in the open day. Is there not some way in which such injustice can be prevented? Cannot some means be devised by which the professor may keep his place, or at least be confronted with the causes which make his removal a necessity? The above cases have occurred within a short time in one college, and their like are by no means unusual. I do not know of any business or profession which offers so little of stability and reward to a young man of good ability as a college professorship.

EX-PROFESSOR.

Notes.

JANSEN, MCCLURG & CO., Chicago, have in press and will shortly publish the second volume of their translation of Topelius's "Surgeon's Stories," entitled 'Times of Battle and of Rest.' It will be uniform in size and style with the preceding volume, 'Times of Gustaf Adolf.'

Soule & Bugbee, Boston, publish this month 'The Tariff Laws of the United States now in Force,' with explanatory notes, and citations from official and judicial decisions, by Charles F. Williams, Secretary of the late Tariff Commission. The book will have an index.

A new edition of Davies's 'Surveying' is promised by A. S. Barnes & Co. in mid-August.

Elliot Stock, 62 Paternoster Row, London, has in press a biographical sketch of Oliver Madox Brown, by John H. Ingram. This promising artist died in 1874 at the age of twenty, and the memorial will be enriched by illustrations after his own designs and those of his relatives and friends in a famous circle of British art. A small subscription edition will precede that for the general public.

Prof. Daniel Sanders, the well-known lexicographer and grammarian, has just written a book, of interest to specialists, on the structure and arrangement of the sentence in German. The language is unfortunately subject to much more complicated rules in this respect than English or French. The title of the book is 'Satzbau und Wortfolge in der deutschen Sprache.'

Indoors and Outdoors is the title of the new monthly organ (quarto) of the National Association for Sanitary and Rural Improvement. It is edited by Charles F. Wingate and John Y. Culyer, and issued at a nominal price, depending for its circulation on the various village improvement societies throughout the Union. The prospectus enumerates thirteen of these useful societies (without exhausting the list) in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; and if *Indoors and Outdoors* merely succeeds in multiplying them, it will have found an abundant excuse for existence. But it appeals to every rural householder. The publication office is 119 Pearl Street, New York.

We have received also the first number of the

Medico-Legal Journal, published under the auspices of the Medico-Legal Society of this city. It contains the inaugural address of President Clark Bell, and much other matter of interest, particularly in relation to lunacy and the coroners' system. A steel engraving of the late Dr. Geo. M. Beard serves for a frontispiece. On the recommendation of its President, the Society has voted to encourage the formation, out of its large membership, of committees for the common undertaking of translations from important foreign works within the province of this organization. It is a sign of the difference in culture between the present time and a generation ago that Mr. Bell thought it would be easier to make up a German than a French committee. The office of the *Journal* is No. 55 Broadway.

"Three Papers on Crime" is the title of a pamphlet, just issued by the American Social Science Association in Boston, which will repay careful reading. Mr. James F. Colby treats of disfranchisement for crime, urging the extension of it, after showing in tabular form the practices of the various States in this regard. Mr. Edwin Hill's "scheme for extinguishing crime" includes exemption of decent households from certain taxes, imposing the burden of municipal administration on houses used for disorderly purposes, or whose occupants refuse to give a satisfactory account of themselves. Mr. Hamilton A. Hill pleads for a differentiation in our prison discipline, by which hardened and degraded offenders may be kept apart from those of a milder and more hopeful type.

"Penitentiary Reform," as discussed at the Stockholm Congress last year, is the subject of a paper in *La Réforme Sociale* for June. In another part of this instructive journal we find proper notice taken of the extraordinary interference of Government with farmers' clubs (*comices agricoles*) in France. The Department of Agriculture has found fault with the diversity of their by-laws, and compelled them to adopt uniformly a set drawn up by one of its subordinates, with the significant provision that the prefect or sub-prefect of the department shall be honorary president, the mayor of the town honorary vice-president, of these clubs, with a right to preside if they choose to exercise it. Still another contributor, writing from Avignon, shows how the laws of succession in France not only are a premium upon small families and a stationary (total) population, but involve the dispersion of large families and the consequent abnormal growth of the cities at the expense of the rural districts. The subject is one on which it would seem as if the last word had been said, and yet testamentary liberty is apparently as far off as ever.

We read in the June *Bibliographer* (J. W. Bouton) that at the suggestion of Mr. R. R. Bowker the Index Society has agreed to reckon among its future tasks an index of English and American portraits, as it has already decided upon indexes of painted and engraved portraits. Mr. Bowker's plan includes the magazines and illustrated papers. To rate the portraits thus indexed according to their fidelity would probably be impracticable, but it would be desirable to affix the age at which taken (when known) or the year of publication.

Moses King, of Cambridge, has issued a new edition of 'Students' Songs,' comprising the most popular songs as now sung at the leading American colleges, compiled and edited by W. H. Hills. More than 11,000 copies of the earlier editions have been sold, and there is no reason for impugning the popular judgment indicated by this fact. Some of the pieces in the new edition are here printed for the first time, and have naturally a predominant Harvard flavor. In another similar collection that may here be mentioned, 'The American College Song-Book' (Chicago: Orville Brewer & Co.), Harvard is not included in the list of fifty colleges represented. The editor of this compilation issued an invitation to the leading colleges to contribute four songs each, original as far as possible, and this invitation in most cases was accepted. It cannot be said that the "originality" here displayed is anything to be proud of. In most cases the verses are much better than the music. The best songs of American students are still those adapted from collections of German student and folk-songs. Even Harvard, which has a musical department and an annual chorister who composes a class song to order, has not been able to produce anything to take the place of the borrowed "Fair Harvard."

'Mosaics of Bible History,' just published by Harper & Brothers, is composed of extracts from different writers in prose and poetry. "The mosaics," we are told, "are nearly all taken from standard literature, and many gems are embodied in them. The work furnishes an admirable method for instructing youth in Scripture narrative." In old times it used to be thought that a good way to instruct youth in Scripture history was to get them to read the Bible, and the Bible itself was considered a standard, and supposed to contain many gems. But we have changed all this, and the generation that has proceeded from its "Ancient Classics [boiled down] for English Readers," and its "Foreign Classics for English Readers," to its various "Selections" from English classics for English readers, may well expect to have the Bible prepared for weak digestions in the same way.

The latest edition of Sir Thomas Brassey's little volume on 'Work and Wages' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) represents the ninth thousand of the American reprint. This work has, in fact, not lost its utility since it first appeared in 1872. It is full of valuable facts—facts which in their very statement become lessons—for employers and employed.

From Houghton, Mifflin & Co. we have a number of new editions, the first being the late Dr. Hayes's 'An Arctic Boat Journey in the Autumn of 1854'—in all respects, so far as is evident, identical with the illustrated edition of 1867. Dr. Holmes's 'Pages from an Old Volume of Life,' embraces a great variety of essays and addresses, long and short, many of which first saw the light in the *Atlantic*. "Bread and the Newspaper" is here, and "My Hunt after 'The Captain,'" and "The Physiology of Walking," and "Mechanism in Thought and Morals," with "Crime and Automatism." The theological selections are "Jonathan Edwards" and "The Pulpit and the Pew." The twelve pieces together are, as their title implies, a fair sample of the author's philosophy, with one personal autobiographic episode thrown in.

The same firm have issued four little tracts in its "Riverside Literature Series," all by Hawthorne ("Grandfather's Chair," in three parts, and "Biographical Stories"), and the concluding two volumes of the fine uniform Riverside edition of this writer's works, with Mr. Lathrop's introductions. The tracts are equipped with questions at the end for the use of teachers. Vol. XI. includes the 'Dolliver Romance,' 'Fanshawe,' 'Septimius Felton,' and the 'Ancestral Footstep'; Vol. XII., Tales and Sketches, Biographical Stories and Sketches, the Life of Franklin Pierce, a steel portrait of Hawthorne, a sketch of his life by his son-in-law, and an index to the works (not to their contents). 'Fanshawe' excepted, the eleventh volume groups together three stories curiously related to one another and to 'Dr. Grimshawe's Secret,' and all posthumous, the 'Ancestral Footstep' being now published for the first time. Such a series of partial attempts and rough drafts has few parallels in literary history. Mr. Lathrop's biographical sketch is an excellent performance, marked by moderation and good taste. Before taking leave of this edition it is worth while to remind the reading public that the volumes are purchasable separately.

In a paper read before the American Philosophical Society on March 16, by Prof. T. F. Crane, of Cornell University, and printed in its Proceedings last month, an attempt was made to account for the spread of European folk-lore by reference to the part played in the diffusion of legends and stories by the preachers of the Middle Ages. A glance was given at the early collections of fables—Cyril's 'Speculum Sapientiæ,' N. Pergamenus's 'Dialogus Creaturarum,' and the 'Gesta Romanorum'—and then were considered in order the dictionaries (so to call them) of *exempla*, or the moral tales arranged for the use of preachers, either alphabetically or topically, such as Herolt's 'Promptuarium Exemplorum, and the 'Speculum Exemplorum'; the treatises for the same purpose, with *exempla* thrown in, like Étienne de Bourbon's 'Liber de Donis,' Peraldus's 'Summa Virtutum,' and Bromyard's 'Summa Prædicantium,' and, finally, the ready made sermons, like those of Herolt and those in Pelbart's 'Pomarium.' Samples of many of these *exempla*, with their affiliations, were given by Professor Crane, who evidently was embarrassed by the wealth of his material, which needed a course of lectures for a clear and thoroughly intelligible exposition.

The first volume of a new edition of the catalogue of the Musée Guimet, brought up to Jan. 1, 1883, has just been issued. The first edition of 1880 was in one volume; the present will fill three: (1) religions of India, China, and Japan; (2) religions of ancient Egypt, Greece, Italy, and Gaul; (3) a catalogue of the Japanese pottery. M. L. de Millone, the editor, says the *Revue Critique*, has prefixed to this first volume an introduction on the religions of the three countries, and in the body of the catalogue has carefully separated the articles relating to the belief of each people, and has subdivided them by the principal sects. He has grouped in each division the various representations of each divinity so as to show the modifications which time has made either in its characteristic features, or in its form or attitude, or in its mystic meaning.

—*Harper's* for July contains, for its chief illustrated article, an account of Hampstead and Hampstead Heath, by Mr. William H. Rideing, and of Cincinnati, by Olive Logan. Charles Reade has a short Irish story called "Born to Good Luck"; and a poem of Browning's, or song, as he calls it, is illustrated by Miss Emmet. Mr. T. W. Higginson contributes an historical account of the "Second Generation of Englishmen in America," which contains the most complete defence of the New England persecutions of Quakers and witches that we remember to have seen. "In those days religious liberty brought a heterogeneous and often reckless population; it usually involved the absence of a highly educated ministry; and this implied the want of a settled system of education"—education being still a function of the Church, or, as in New England, of the State through the Church. Mr. Higginson admits that the second generation of Englishmen in America were—as might have been expected in the case of exiled sectarians, cut off from intercourse with the rest of the world, and left to develop and perfect their own peculiar system—more narrow, gloomy, and sombre than the first generation, who represented, so far as the leaders were concerned, the

most enlightened classes in England. It is the most difficult thing in the world to enter now into the real Puritan feeling of this time, involving as it does the conception of life as a constant battle with a personal devil, who took possession of human beings and controlled their actions, for which at the same time they remained responsible. The reaction which followed the witchcraft trials is, in fact, almost as curious a phenomenon as the persecutions themselves. In the "Easy Chair" Mr. Curtis discusses the question of the proposed Newburgh memorial, and protests against either a statue of Washington brandishing a drawn sword on top of a column seven feet high, or, on the other hand, an obelisk or shaft with inscriptions. If we have to choose between the two, however, and take our chances of the badness of the work, we should be inclined to say, give us by all means a shaft. The more deeply we revere the memory of Washington, the more must we dread another statue of him.

—Mr. Crawford, in the *Atlantic*, begins another story—this time a tale of Roman life. We must defer criticism of it until it appears as a book; but we may say that it will probably please the lover of "local color," which seems to be generally recognized as the note of Mr. Crawford's stories. Mr. James has a pleasant account of Touraine, the first, apparently, of a series of French provincial sketches, and Mr. R. G. White finishes his international satire called "Mr. Washington Adams in England." The idea of this is ingenious, and we will not spoil it for the reader by disclosing the nature of the plot. It is intended to contrast the American of the English imagination, who is assumed to be still of the Asa Trenchard type, with the real American gentleman—who, we need hardly say, is, like his brother, the true British gentleman, one of nature's noblest products—and to bring out the gross dulness and ignorance as to American affairs pervading English country life. As to the accuracy of Mr. White's picture of English ways and conversation, we will not undertake to pronounce; but is not the Trenchard type probably extinct in the English imagination? It became antiquated, we have always supposed, both in England and America, while he still held the stage. If the imagination of English society is still haunted by memories of or a belief in Asa, we may look for anything in the international future. The misunderstanding of each country by the other, as depicted by Mr. White, is so profound, and has been going on so long, that we can only wonder at the goodness of Providence which still spares us a bloody war, and even seems to foster the delusion that we are every year on better international terms.

—Every now and then we are told that the taste of the world is changing—that nobody reads the English classics now except some unlucky civil-servant who must pass an examination in literature, or a young man who has been bitten by a mania for self-culture and is pursuing a "course" of reading. It is not merely that Addison slumbers on the shelf and Gibbon appears no longer on the ladies' toilet-tables where it was his chief ambition to be found. That change had already come when men who are now old were young; but the next generation of writers has met with the same fate. Jeffrey and Leigh Hunt and Christopher North—what are they but names? And Landor is barely saved by extracts. Nor has it stopped here. To come down still later, Dickens and Thackeray are not merely outdone by a finer art, but, we are told, the rising generation do not even read them enough to know whether their art was fine or not. Those who are *nel mezzo del cammin di nostra vita* can hardly believe this of their young friends; but there are not wanting signs that it is true. A very skilful writer has lately published the first volume of an admirable 'History of the United States.' In his endeavor to write in a style which should never puzzle and never fatigue, which should enchain the attention of the reader by presenting him with a series of pictures as vivid as those which our best artists furnish to our best magazines, he has fallen so exactly into the way of an historian popular a third of a century ago that the readers of that day rub their eyes and ask if here is a new Rip Van Winkle. It might be supposed that a resemblance so striking would have been generally pointed out at once in every public print. It was not so. The new 'History of the United States' was immediately noticed by all the daily papers and all the weekly and monthly magazines; it was received with a unanimous chorus of praise. The style, in particular, received especial attention; but no one thought of the forgotten writer of forty years ago: all looked at once to an English historian of our own day. Every one said that Mr. McMaster had imitated Mr. Green (though the English history did not appear till the American was half written), and no one perceived that he resembled Macaulay. Yet Thackeray did not better catch the style of Bulwer and Disraeli and Ainsworth; the parodies of the "Rejected Addresses" and of Warreniana are less like their originals; no admirer of Carlyle ever copied his model half so thoroughly and so well as Mr. McMaster has reproduced Macaulay. Whether it be imitation, or unconscious influence, or the similarity that comes from the effort of similar minds to attain the same end, the result is undeniable. The likeness is at times painful; one feels uncomfortable in listening to the familiar rhythm, and meeting, one after another, the well-known mannerisms. There are the short sentences, the repetition of words, the trick of the concrete, the trick of comparison, the trick of antithesis, the trick of the superlative—all excellent rhetorical devices, lending themselves admirably to a clear, animated, picturesque style, which tempts the reader on and on through a constant succession of interesting scenes till he drops the book from the mere fatigue of looking at such a variety of objects. The resemblance to Macaulay throughout is wonderful—at times laughable, at times irritating. Conceal the title, and it would be hard to persuade an admirer of the English historian that he had not before him a hitherto unknown essay by his favorite. And yet, till within a month, hardly one of the critics has mentioned the name of Macaulay. *Sic transit gloria mundi.*

—Dickens's 'Dictionary of London,' first published several years ago, was followed shortly by Dickens's 'Dictionary of the Thames,' and more recently by Dickens's 'Dictionary of Paris.' Now all three of these "unconventional handbooks," as their compiler calls them, have been revised and brought down to date, and are issued again and simultaneously, with the date 1883 boldly on the title-page. The original plan of these dictionaries was so good that it has needed no alteration; but the execution was not at first altogether equal to the design. After much personal use of the earlier editions of these guidebooks, and after a careful examination of the new issues, we take pleasure in saying that this discrepancy no longer exists, and that all three dictionaries are now to be highly recommended to tourists. In the dictionaries of London and Paris there is a general map of the city, filling one page and giving a key to fourteen or fifteen section maps on a larger scale. These smaller maps are less easy to tear and more easy to consult than a single large folding map. Under the heading of "Flats," Mr. Dickens notes the still slow introduction into London of the apartment-houses common in Paris and Edinburgh and now also in New York. In the 'Dictionary of Paris' we have remarked one or two minor slips which deserve correction in a third edition. Under both "Hotels" and "Ladies alone in Paris" are cross-references to "Confections"—which will, however, be sought in vain in its alphabetical place, although a list of those recommended will be found under "Tradesmen." Under "Newspapers" there is no mention of the highly characteristic *Figaro*. The information under "Panorama" is less detailed than it might be. Especially praiseworthy, however, is the section on "Old Paris." It might be well for Mr. Dickens to consult a few American guidebooks to London and Paris and borrow a hint or two from these. At present his handbooks are calculated for the meridian of Greenwich perhaps too exclusively.

—Mr. J. Edmund Clark writes us from York, England:

"With regard to my letter inserted by you on May 17, it has been pointed out to me that only in Great Britain, not in Ireland, have women *every* vote except that of the Parliamentary franchise. The municipal franchise still excludes women householders in Ireland; nor, I find on further inquiry, are women eligible as poor-law guardians. With reference to the main question, you have probably appreciated the significance of the memorial presented to Gladstone, signed by over one hundred members of the House of Commons."

—Civil-service reform has not reached France. Jules Sandeau, who died last April, was librarian of the Mazarin Library. He was an admirable novelist and dramatist, but, we fancy, nothing whatever as librarian. Certainly he has not won himself a name either in bibliography or bibliothetics. He has now been replaced by M. Ferdinand Fabre, also a good novelist, not as yet a dramatist—that will come in due time, as it does to all good French novelists—but not the least bit in the world of a librarian. The *Revue Critique* protests against the decision, as an injustice to a number of worthy and honorable workers who have served the library for years at absurdly small salaries, and now see their well-earned right to a chance of advancement disregarded. Fabre is an anti-clerical writer: readers will remember 'L'Abbé Tigrane.' This accounts for his appointment by the present Government; but the appointment is only one of a class that have exercised a very prejudicial effect upon the interests of the Parisian libraries, and have not been entirely unknown in this country.

HUMPHREYS'S VIRGINIA CAMPAIGN.

The Virginia Campaign of 1864 *and* 1865. By A. A. Humphreys. [Campaigns of the Civil War.—XII.] Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE last of the "Campaigns of the Civil War" issued by the Scribners forms in every way a fitting and creditable conclusion of the series. This volume has been looked for with unusual interest because of its author and of the period treated of; nor does it disappoint the public expectation. An officer among the highest in rank in the Army of the Potomac, and one whose rank was not more distinguished than his services to the Union cause, General Humphreys brings to his task peculiar advantages. As Chief of Staff to General Meade, his official position rendered him familiar with all the Federal movements in the campaign of 1864, while his subsequent career as commander of Hancock's (Second) Corps was not less conspicuous and important. His long and eminent service after the war, in Washington, placed within his easy reach all the official data now extant in regard

to the struggle. We are not surprised, then, to find his book a repository of data of the greatest value. The narrative is very clear, concise, and fair in spirit. It is too crowded, and written too much, perhaps, in the style of an official report, to be entertaining to the casual reader; but its interest to the student of the great campaign of 1864-65 can hardly be exaggerated.

This campaign was incomparably the greatest of the civil war. In the desperate daily struggle, unintermitted for months, in the unparalleled number of fierce battles, in the terrible destruction of life, in the magnitude of the issues at stake, and of the results determined by it, no campaign can compare with it. The history of it, when fully written, will constitute a splendid tribute to the courage and endurance of both armies. This history, too, will bear witness to the qualities of the leaders of those armies—to the determined perseverance, the obstinate tenacity of purpose, the coolness and firmness in the presence of defeat, that characterized the successful general whom his countrymen have ever since delighted to honor, not more than to the boldness, the sagacity, the fertility of resource, the consummate skill which have placed the defeated commander on the roll of great captains.

On May 4, 1864, Grant crossed the Rapidan at the head of about 125,000 men "present for duty," according to the official reports as analyzed by General Humphreys. Lee held the upper line of that river with a force of 62,000 men. Grant's purpose was to push rapidly through the tangled, wooded wilderness which covered Lee's right flank, and force him to fight in the more open country to the south of it by threatening his communications with Richmond. Lee anticipated his adversary, and, leaving his cantonments on the Rapidan, hastened to strike the Federal army while on the march. The 5th and 6th of May were marked by bloody battles in the dense, wooded wilderness, and sometimes miry thickets, of this region. Each side was by turn the assailant, but the advantage, especially on the second day, was decidedly with the Confederates. The difficulty of manœuvring large bodies of men in such a country was immense, and superiority of numbers did not give a corresponding advantage. On May 7 the Federal army again moved on Lee's flank, with the intention of seizing Spottsylvania Court-house; but Stuart's cavalry opposed their march so stubbornly that the Confederates reached the coveted position first, and held it.

From the 8th to the 20th of May, the vicinity of Spottsylvania Court-house was the scene of many severe and some furious battles, the most memorable of which occurred May 12, when Grant threw the half of his army, under Hancock and Burnside, against Lee's lines. Burnside was repulsed, but Hancock's attack on the Confederate centre was for a time successful, the Federals capturing a salient position on Ewell's line with a number of guns and a large part of Johnson's division. All day long raged at this point the sanguinary contest. The ground was piled with dead. A dead tree, nearly two feet in diameter, was cut off some distance above the earth by the terrific hail of musket-balls. The fate of the Confederate army trembled in the balance. Only by the most strenuous efforts and the fiercest fighting was Lee able to force back the superior masses which had broken his lines and seemed on the point of overwhelming him. But he did it, and the subsequent attacks upon his position were bloody and fruitless to the Federals. On May 20, Grant tried the movement by Lee's right flank again, but unsuccessfully, and in a day or two the armies once more confronted each other near Hanover Junction. Here the position taken up by Lee was so advantageous that Grant drew off without attack, and, continuing his former strategy, crossed the Pamunkey below the Confederate right. But when he advanced, Lee was again in his pathway, and continued to anticipate his movements until the lines of both armies crossed the famous field of Cold Harbor. Here, on June 3, Grant made the most bloody and disastrous of his assaults upon the Confederate army. His assault was general, but he was everywhere repulsed with great slaughter, and at comparatively trifling cost to the Confederates.

This ended the campaign against Richmond from the north side of the James, and ten days later the Federal army was on its march to try the approach by way of Petersburg and the Appomattox, where Butler had for some time been "bottled up" by Beauregard. The losses in battle of Grant's army had by this time reached nearly 50,000 men, according to General Humphreys (other Federal accounts make it much larger), and the reinforcements sent him about 28,000. Lee, on the other hand, had received about 15,000 men, which seems to have covered the bulk of his losses. This was a period of great depression in the Federal councils. President Lincoln is said to have been more discouraged and despondent at this time than at any other during the war. An ordinary commander, in General Grant's place, would have hesitated about continuing this costly and apparently fruitless mode of warfare on the south side of the James. Grant did not. He knew that Lee had been forced to detach Breckinridge and Early to drive Hunter away from Lynchburg. It was easy to maintain the Federal superiority in numbers, and General Grant transferred his army to the Appomattox and attempted to seize Petersburg. A failure and the loss of 8,000 men were the result. A series of attempts against the railroads from the South to Richmond followed, which were completely foiled by Lee, and with heavy cost to the Federals. By the 30th of June the Federal losses in battle had risen to over 68,000, according to General Humphreys (p. 242), or to 75,000 by other authorities. These losses and the detachment of the Sixth Corps to Washington, made necessary by Early's advance on that city, rendered Grant for a time less aggressive. Great preparations were now made for the springing of a mine on the centre of Lee's Petersburg lines. A vigorous demonstration on the north side of the James called off a large part of Lee's forces, and on the morning of July 30, when but three Confederate divisions were at Petersburg, the mine was sprung. The explosion of 8,000 pounds of powder buried a regiment of Confederates and made a fearful gap in their lines. An assault was at once made by Burnside's corps, supported by Hancock, Warren, and Ord. Some preparations had been made by General Beauregard against such a contingency, but only skill of the highest order, and a courage that counted life as nothing worth on the part of the handful of Confederates within reach, enabled them to resist the immense force sent against them. The assault was badly managed, and, notwithstanding the success of the mine and the tremendous momentum of the assaulting columns, ended in complete and disastrous defeat to the Federal arms. This chapter is the most graphic in General Humphreys's book.

After another period of comparative rest, Grant renewed his operations against both of Lee's flanks, his numbers enabling him to compel the Confederates to stretch their thin lines in both directions. The Federals thus seized the Weldon railroad in August, and Fort Harrison, on the north side, at the end of September, but all other efforts against Lee's lines during the autumn proved costly and abortive. The winter, however, brought worse enemies to the Confederates than even the splendid army in their front. The signs of exhaustion were everywhere evident in the South. A succession of disasters had given Georgia and South Carolina to Sherman, and Tennessee to Thomas. Sheridan had ruthlessly harried the Shenandoah Valley. For months Lee's men, in the trenches at Petersburg, were but half fed and half clothed, while every letter that came to the camp told of suffering and starvation at home.

The spring came, to find Lee holding thirty-five miles of entrenchments with 57,000 men of all arms (according to General Humphreys), while Grant had 129,000 in his front. Lee's strength was steadily weakening; desertions were numerous; the privations of the winter had broken the spirit of the Confederates. Lee's last effort against Fort Steadman, on March 25, made to cover his withdrawal from Petersburg, failed, and cost him heavily. Grant moved against Lee's right flank and communications as soon as the roads permitted. Then followed the overthrow of Pickett and Fitz Lee at Five Forks, on April 1. This Federal victory, and the loss it entailed on Lee, insured his defeat. Next day his thin lines were no longer able to resist Grant's assaults. Petersburg and Richmond were given up on the night of April 2, and Lee attempted to reach Danville. The failure of the supplies to reach him at Amelia Court-house destroyed his last chance of effecting this. The delay and exhaustion brought about by this cause, together with the rapidity and overwhelming force of the Federal advance, cut him off from Danville and forced him to turn toward Lynchburg. The sufferings of the winter found a fit sequel in the privations of that march, when for days a little parched corn was the only ration. The 30,000 men or more that had left Petersburg dwindled in a week to 8,000 in ranks at Appomattox. General Humphreys finds it difficult to credit the small number that remained to Lee at the last, and thinks that many men must have thrown away their arms after the surrender became inevitable. He is in error. There were but 8,000 men ready for duty on the morning of the day the surrender was decided upon and while the Confederate army was still drawn up for battle. The remainder of the 28,000 who were afterward paroled had already fallen out of ranks from utter exhaustion and lack of food, or had been scattered in the combats that marked the preceding days.

Lee has been criticised for his final operations in this campaign; but the truth is, the general result, after the defeat of Hood at Nashville and the advance of Sherman into North Carolina, was inevitable. It was not possible long to delay the catastrophe. As a specimen of the boldness, sagacity, and skill with which a small army may be so handled as to cripple and baffle far larger and better-appointed forces, this campaign will take high rank in history, as will its veteran commander among those who are recognized as masters in the art of war.

WHITNEY'S CLIMATIC CHANGES.

The Climatic Changes of Later Geological Times: A Discussion Based on Observations made in the Cordilleras of North America. By J. D. Whitney. [Memoirs of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College. Vol. vii.] Cambridge. 1882.

It is more than forty years since Agassiz published the famous memoir in which he maintained his theory of a glacial epoch, or that the era of man was immediately preceded by a period of intense cold, during which most of the temperate

zone, as well as the polar regions, was buried under a vast sheet of ice. Though admitting that the general tendency of the temperature of the earth's surface has been toward greater cold, and that each epoch was cooler than its immediate predecessor, he denied that the process had been gradual and continuous, and held that between each two geological eras there intervened a period much colder than either of them. The glacial period was merely the latest of these. So far as the ice age is concerned, this theory is still the most widely received, though comparatively few geologists concur in the hypothesis of recurrent cold periods. Astronomers, on the other hand, are nearly unanimous in the belief that the cooling of the whole solar system has been an uninterrupted process throughout the entire course of geological time, which implies that the sun was hotter during the glacial period than now, and that the mean temperature of the earth was higher. The difficulties involved in the theory of a cold glacial epoch are not even confined to this astronomical objection: for, strange as it seems at first thought, it is by no means certain that a rigorous climate would favor the formation of extensive glaciers. A general diminution of temperature would diminish evaporation from the seas, lakes, and rivers, and consequently also the rain and snow-fall, and it is anything but an easy matter to decide whether diminished temperature would promote the formation of glacial ice, or the accompanying decrease of atmospheric precipitation retard the accumulation of ice, to the greater extent; in fact, this point has never been determined. Doctor Croll has endeavored to reconcile the views of astronomers and geologists by an ingenious hypothesis, according to which a periodic variation in the earth's orbit is accompanied, not indeed by a change in the total amount of heat received from the sun, but by an alteration in the length of the seasons, so that in his belief the glacial period was one in which the winters in the northern hemisphere were long and cold, while the summers were hot, but short. Lyell, on the other hand, believed that the glacial period could be accounted for without any change in solar radiation by supposing an abnormal quantity of land in high latitudes; but both of these theories are open to the extremely serious objection that they fail to give a satisfactory account of the whole of the heat received from the sun.

It would be easy to make out a list of good geologists who have advocated the view that the mean sea-level temperature of the glacial period must have been higher than that of the present day on one or other of the grounds referred to, resorting to local conditions, such as high altitudes, to explain the formation of snow and ice; but they have obtained little hearing, and the great majority have quietly adhered to their belief in the association of a low mean temperature and glaciation, without much attempt to refute the counter-arguments. This is in part ascribable to the strength of the current of opinion which, once having received a certain direction, is more easily followed than fought, and partly to the convenience of the theory which, as something in itself mysterious, has been called upon to account for any of a very large class of phenomena otherwise difficult of explanation.

Professor Whitney has reopened the discussion with the advantage of the greatly increased store of facts bearing on the subject which has accumulated of late years. He passes in review the various areas of the earth's present surface, so far as they have been investigated, on which glaciers are actually forming, or where the mean annual temperature is so low that excess of heat constitutes no obstacle to their formation. Of such areas the great mountain system of Central Asia is one of the most interesting. Here the southern range, that of the Himalayas, receives the hot, moisture-laden winds from the Indian Ocean, condensing the vapor as rain and snow, and upon the mountains accumulate the largest glaciers in the world. The winds, deprived of most of their moisture, pass on to other immensely high ranges where the mean temperature is lower; but the air reaching this region is so dry that very little rain or snow falls, and glaciers are insignificant or entirely wanting. In the arctic regions, also, our author traces a similar relation between glaciers, temperature, and precipitation. Greenland has commonly been supposed to be buried under a vast ice-sheet, and has constantly been appealed to as a modern example of the conditions prevailing over a much wider area during the glacial epoch; but Professor Whitney shows that the supposition of continuous ice in Greenland is an assumption, and that the glacial sheet is probably confined to the neighborhood of the mountain ranges which run parallel to its eastern and western shores—a theory upon which rests the present expedition of Baron Nordenskjöld. Southerly winds carry much moisture to Greenland from the oceanic areas warmed by the Gulf Stream, and the consequence is a heavy annual snowfall along its coasts; but in other portions of the arctic regions less favorably situated with regard to oceanic and atmospheric currents—in the archipelago north of North America, and on the northern coast of Asia—though the cold is more intense, glaciers do not form for lack of moisture. These facts, and others of a similar character, evidently suggest the inquiry, If only those cold areas which are in the direct path of warm, moist winds are now glaciated, how could a more general prevalence of cold, accompanied by decreased evaporation, result in covering the earth from the poles to middle latitudes with ice?

Turning to the geological records of an ice age, Professor Whitney reviews the literature of geology to show that there has been no general glaciation in the western United States, in eastern Europe, in any portion of Asia (unless, it may be, near its uninvestigated northeastern coast), or in Australia. In all of these regions, wherever glaciers have existed, they have evidently been, like those of modern Switzerland, of the mountain type, strictly subordinated to the local topography. In fact, the clearly established relics of an ice age are confined to western Europe and a portion of northeastern North America, or, including Greenland, to the neighborhood of the North Atlantic. Of these areas, Professor Whitney pays most attention to Scandinavia, where glaciers still exist, and which, as the Swedish geologists have shown, occupied a higher level during the glacial epoch than it now does. The greater elevation gave the mountains of the peninsula greater condensing power; but this our author does not regard as sufficient to account for a glacier system exceeding that of modern Greenland, without the aid to be derived from additional evaporation resulting from greater sun-heat. Here, too, the proof seems indubitable that the glaciers flowed from a central elevated region, and did not form portions of a polar ice cap. The glaciation of the northeastern United States and Canada he regards as too imperfectly worked out for general discussion, and therefore confines himself to some suggestions and to criticism of certain supposed facts as to its character.

Professor Whitney states the general conclusions he has reached as follows:

"The conditions of a glacial epoch are not, therefore, to be sought for in a general diminution of the temperature. It is true that the regions in which the glaciers take their rise cannot be so warm that precipitation takes the form of rain; but the required low temperature must be confined to a limited area, and be brought about by local causes, and not be something in which all the other portions of the earth are sharers. There must be copious precipitation, which, although locally in the form of snow, can in reality only be the result of a high mean temperature in other regions. In short, warmth, as a phenomenon of general occurrence, is more indispensably necessary than cold, because the latter may always be produced, where locally wanted, by increase of elevation or by the shifting of the ocean currents."

It cannot safely be predicted that most geologists will be persuaded to agree with his conclusions by the argument Professor Whitney offers or the evidence he presents. He has shown that much is to be said for his view, and he has made valuable contributions to the literature of glaciation, but he cannot be thought to have met all objections or to have proved his case. Indeed, the question of the temperature of the ice age can hardly be settled on merely geological evidence, since physical principles of no little complexity are involved. Should these prove in harmony with his views, the evidence presented would acquire new value. But, however this may be decided, Professor Whitney has done his science a great service by drawing attention to the frequent abuses of the glacial theory, which is invoked without scruple in the writings of many modern geologists to account for gravel deposits, for erosion, for displaced rock, for denudation, for the formation of soil, and for almost any mechanical effects not readily referable to other causes. He also deserves thanks for having reopened a question which should never have been allowed to rest. If the sun is a variable star, it is to the geological record that recourse must be had for proof. If it is cooling uniformly, the earth must have had a higher mean temperature during the glacial epoch than it now possesses. Geologists and astronomers have an equal interest in settling this important point, and it is one upon which they should not agree to differ. If, again, it is really capable of satisfactory proof that the northern hemisphere, from the thirty-ninth parallel northward, was cooled down to a temperature compatible with general glaciation by an alteration in the length of the seasons or by a redistribution of land, while the entire northern hemisphere received as much, or more, heat than it now does, physicists and climatologists should vie with one another in seeking a rigorous demonstration of the conditions and of the manner in which the heat was disposed of without producing more warmth.

If the earth has been growing cooler, it must also have been growing dryer. Indeed, Professor Whitney was led to his examination of the glacial question by observations and speculations on the desiccation of certain areas, especially in the far West. Few of his readers will probably consider that he has been as successful in treating this subject as the kindred one of glaciers. A critic in a scientific journal has already pointed out that historical time affords much too narrow a basis for the deductions which Professor Whitney has attempted to make from the records concerning the dryness of past geological ages. Were it possible to prove clearly any perceptible desiccation arising from the waning heat of the sun during the last 5,000 years, that fact would indicate a temperature for the early Tertiary entirely inconsistent with the existence of the fauna and flora known to have flourished at that time. He also, it is true, advances geological arguments to show progressive desiccation since the Tertiary, but he neglects to mention the evidence of small precipitation and intense evaporation abundantly afforded by the Triassic and Jurassic of the

far West. The existence of areas of desiccation is compatible with almost any general temperature of the earth and any amount of evaporation, for the presence of a mountain barrier in the path of the moist air-currents will always cause drought.

'Climatic Changes' is deficient in clearness and in logical sequence. This not only has led the author into some inconsistencies, but will, we fear, cost him many readers. In these days memoirs follow one another so rapidly that even the specialist must select his reading, and is loth to spend time in remoulding for himself into a more compact and intelligible shape the details of a desultory argument.

A FRENCH BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Bibliographie des Bibliographies. Par Léon Vallée de la Bibliothèque Nationale. Paris: Em. Terquem. 1883. 8vo, pp. vi.–774. 25 fr.

SOME time ago we called attention to M. James Jackson's 'Liste provisoire de bibliographies géographiques.' That book, although confined to so narrow a subject, contained 1,557 articles. M. Vallée's, though he takes all knowledge to be his province, has only 6,894. The reason that the difference is not greater is that M. Jackson referred to lists, even short ones, which he found in books of travel, transactions of learned societies, and the like. M. Vallée records, in general, only substantive volumes. Had he followed M. Jackson's example, in this day when the custom of prefixing "lists of authorities" is so common, one shudders to think of the size which his volume would have reached.

M. Vallée very appropriately begins by giving a bibliography of bibliographies of bibliography. These second-cousins of literature—or, if you prefer, cube-roots or double-refined essences—are, he says, three in number: Tonelli (1782), which is entirely forgotten; Petzholdt (1866), which every schoolboy knows, or at least every library boy; and Sabin (1872), which is merely a selection of 1,200 titles. This list is absurdly incomplete. M. Vallée himself gives, in the body of his work, Peignot's 'Répertoire bibliographique universel,' Namur's 'Bibliographie paléographico-diplomatico-bibliogique,' Guild's 'Librarian's Manual,' and "J. D. O.'s" 'Some French Bibliographies.' Besides these, there are three books which he has apparently not met with, though it is almost incredible that he should not—Power's 'Handy Book about Books,' which was the foundation of Sabin's list; Porter's 'Handbook of Bibliographies in the Reading-room of the British Museum'; and the list of "bibliographical aids" prefixed to Leypoldt and Jones's 'American Catalogue,' which, though it is almost confined to recent English and American bibliographies, is fuller in a number of topics than M. Vallée's, in spite of the greater extent of his field.

Of the three whom he has mentioned, Petzholdt is the chief; and it is not evident why the German book of more than 900 pages should be replaced by this French work of 774. M. Vallée gives no explanation, unless we take as such his pointing out that Petzholdt is arranged systematically by subjects, with an index of authors, and that his own book is arranged alphabetically by authors, with an alphabetical index of subjects—as near an approach to a "dictionary" catalogue, which would mix the two alphabets in one, as a Frenchman would like to make. If this be M. Vallée's reason, it is hardly sufficient. There is a manifest propriety in arranging the entries in a subject-bibliography by subjects, as Petzholdt does, and not by authors, as Vallée does. There is also a manifest convenience to the reader in spreading before him in one place all the bibliographies of a certain subject; there is almost no advantage in having all the bibliographical works of a certain author brought together. One goes to such a manual to find what Schiller bibliographies there are, or what art bibliographies, and very rarely to know what Peignot has written or Quérard. Then, as to the ease of finding any special subject, if there is a pin to choose, the superiority is not on the side of the Frenchman. You want a Goethe bibliography: you look in Vallée's index, and find eleven brief catch-titles referring you by numbers to eleven different parts of the author-list, where are given the full titles—with imprints, but without collations, by the way. You look in Petzholdt's index, and you find one reference to three consecutive pages, where all of the fourteen Goethe books are spread before you at once, with full titles.

There is, however, a reason for which it is well worth while to buy M. Vallée's work. It is published seventeen years later than Petzholdt's, and those years have been unusually prolific in bibliographies. For instance, there are eighty-one subjects in Vallée's index in the letter T alone which are not in Petzholdt—that is to say, nearly four-fifths of the later editor's subjects in that letter are new, and probably the proportion is the same throughout. And yet he has not exhausted the field. We do not find, for example, Hortis's 'Bibliografia delle edizioni del Tasso,' 1879; Coelho's 'Bibliografia critica de historia e litteratura spagnuola,' 1872; Carpellini's 'Letteratura dantesca' (a continuation of De Batines's Dante bibliography); Salimbeni's 'Nota bibliografica intorno gli scacchi,' 1881; Orsi's 'Saggio bibliografico su G. Botero,' 1882; Pappafava's 'Letteratura notarile,' Innsbruck, 1883, although M. Vallée has the Zara edition of 1880. He has Papanti's 'Catalogo dei novellieri italiani,' 1871, but omits his 'G. B. Passano e i suoi novellieri,' 1878. A similar omission is Melzi and Tosi's 'Bibliografia dei romanzi di cavalleria italiani,' 1865. We do not find Antonucci and Giannini's 'Catalogo di opere stampate dai Soncini nei sec. XV e XVI, 1868,' nor the 'Catalogi dei codici orientali di alcune biblioteche d'Italia,' begun in 1878; nor the two periodicals, *Bibliografia d'Italia*, 1867, etc., and *Bibliografia universale*, 1879, etc.; nor Valdrighi's 'Annotazioni bibliografiche intorno Bellerofonte Castaldi.' These are all Italian books, but we miss also Dukas's 'Étude sur le Satiricon de J. Barclay'; Quérard's 'Livres à clef,' 1873; Tesar's 'Litteratur des Feuerwesens,' 1881; Pollen's 'Universal Catalogue of Books in Art,' published by the South Kensington Museum in two volumes and a supplement (the most important art bibliography ever compiled); the British Museum Catalogue of Hebrew books (although Steinschneider's Catalogue of Hebrew books in the Bodleian Library is given, which shows that the omission did not proceed from its being a library catalogue). And here we may remark that M. Vallée affords in his preface no indication of the principle upon which he goes in excluding and including books—one has to infer it from his practice; and from that it seems that he means, very properly we think, to put in whatever is in effect a bibliography, though it may be in form the catalogue of a library or a bookseller's list. He might include, for instance—but he does not—the catalogue of the Ticknor collection at the Boston Public Library as a bibliography of Spanish literature; it is one of the best that there are. He might put in—but again he does not—Quaritch's bulky volumes; they are, to say the least, quite as useful as *Le Livre*, which he has. He includes also a number of those bibliographies of authors which of late have so frequently been annexed to their works. But he has not found them all—not, for instance, the one annexed to Berti's 'Lettere inedite di Tommaso Campanella,' and to Cino da Pistoia's 'Rime,' edited by Brindi and Fanfani, 1879. There are serious omissions, too, among the older books, as Lichtenthal's 'Dizionario e bibliografia della musica,' four volumes, 1836; a remarkable omission, because the book is in Petzholdt. Indeed, there is some reason to think that our author has not used his predecessor as he might have done, but has rashly attempted to compile a bibliography from his own resources. How else can one explain his saying nothing of Adelung and Rotermund's continuation of Jöcher's 'Allgemeines Gelehrten-Lexicon' (he has the original work), and Finke's and Hauber's 'Beyträge'? Jöcher was in the Bibliothèque Nationale in which M. Vallée is employed; is it possible that the continuations were not? How else excuse his neglect to mention that Lowndes's 'British Librarian' was left unfinished at its author's death, and contains only the section Religion and its history? M. Vallée should have referred to it under Religion or Théologie, if he knew this.

American literature we do not expect to be well treated by a Frenchman, and so are not surprised that he makes no reference to Mrs. Hale's 'Woman's Record,' Putnam's 'Library Companion,' President Porter's 'Books and Reading' with Mr. Hubbard's select catalogue, and Foster's 'Literature of Civil Service Reform'; to Sprague's 'American Pulpit,' Drake's 'Dictionary of American Biography,' Harrisse's 'Columbus,' Hunnewell's 'Bibliography of Charlestown,' Norton's 'Literary Register' (except for 1856), Norton's 'Literary Advertiser,' and Leypoldt and Jones's 'American Catalogue' (!), Vicuña-Mackenna's 'Bibliografia americana,' Lee's 'Hand-list of Laws, Journals, etc., of Maryland,' or Trübner's 'Bibliotheca Hispano-Americana'; or that of Ticknor's 'History of Spanish Literature' he does not mention the three American editions, the London edition, and the French and Spanish versions, confining himself to the German translation by Julius. The last is perhaps the worst. One can pardon a man for not meeting with the title of a book published in a foreign country—though one would think he must have closed his eyes not to have seen the 'American Catalogue'—but to have found the title of a translation and not to have looked up the original, appears to indicate either carelessness, great haste, or an ignorance of the duties of a bibliographer. Similarly, the enumerations of editions and the treatment of periodicals leave something to be desired. Two quarto editions of Tiraboschi's 'Storia della leteratura italiana' are mentioned—the Roman and the second Modena—but M. Vallée does not allude to the two earlier editions of Florence in octavo, and of Naples, quarto, nor to the later and more convenient Milan edition in octavo (1822–24). The supplements to Schwab and Klupfel's useful 'Wegweiser' are stated in utterly insufficient fashion; but it would take too long to give the details here. There is nothing to show that the *Index Medicus* survived its first volume, or that the *Library Journal* outlasted 1881. The *Neuer Anzeiger für Bibliographie* rightly appears under *Neuer*, but the first series, the *Anzeiger*, is inconsistently put under the editor, Petzholdt, and wrongly said to cover 1840–(1846) in five volumes, when it really goes from 1840 to 1856 in sixteen volumes, and no notice is taken of two changes of title; yet all these details are correctly given in Petzholdt's 'Bibliotheca Bibliographica.'

We have by no means mentioned all the omissions we have noticed. The most remarkable character of the work is its incompleteness. It is difficult to understand how any one, with all the resources of the largest library

in the world at his command, could leave out so many works which a slight research in obvious places would have given him. Fortunately, M. Vallée intimates his intention of publishing a supplement, which, at the present rate of the production of book lists, will be, if he waits a few years, as large as the present volume, and in conjunction with it will be a very useful help; for what he has done is done well. There are a few slips, of course. The title of the standard Spanish bibliography, which is put in full under Antonio, N., for the Roman edition, is repeated a little further down under Antonius Hispalensis for the Madrid edition. A mechanical accident, probably, in the title of G. T. Petrowitch's 'Scanderbeg, essai de bibliographie raisonnée,' has reduced Scanderbeg, the subject of the work, to a first name of the author, thus, "Petrowitch (Sc.)—Essai de bibliographie raisonnée"; and consequently Scanderbeg does not appear in the index. But the work of the copyist appears to be generally painstaking and accurate, and the typography is admirable. It is only to be hoped that M. Vallée will not be in such a hurry to publish his next edition or his supplement, and will meantime have learned the art of research.

GENERAL SKOBELEFF.

Skobeleff and the Slavonic Cause. By O. K. London: Longmans & Co. 1883.

It is an open secret that "O. K.," the author of this account of General Skobeleff, is a certain Mme. Novikoff, the wife, we believe, of a Russian general, and well known in London society as, after some inscrutable fashion, an informal agent of the Russian Government. She has taken advantage of the sudden death of the brilliant young Russian general to put together a book which, under pretence of being a biographical memoir, is really a glorification of the autocratic system of government which prevails in Russia—a glorification and a defence. The book, being written in English, is addressed primarily to the British nation, with whom Mme. Novikoff may be said to have a standing quarrel on account of their lack of admiration for the great Russian institution of autocracy; and, in order to effect their conversion to the true faith, she adopts, woman-like, the *tu-quoque* style of argument. England, it appears, is just as autocratically governed as Russia:

"At his [Mr. Gladstone's] bidding the House of Lords pass one measure after another which they most abhor; at his command the House of Commons reluctantly consents to impose—after twenty days of talking—the closure upon interminable debates, which formed a kind of concert which no impresario in the world would tolerate more than one night. Mr. Gladstone's opponents are powerless. Queen, princes, lords, commons—all the estates of the realm—are as nothing compared with him. It is, no doubt, a noble spectacle, the devotion of the English people to their greatest statesman; but what about 'the one-man power'?"

Mme. Novikoff, adopting as her own the sentiments of a certain pan-Slavic organ, is

"firmly persuaded that all the talk of the present day about introducing another form of government is nothing more nor less than vain twaddle, which can lay claim neither to justice nor to sincerity. It is not of this that Russia stands in need. . . . What we want is, toleration in matters of religion, a cessation of discourses against dissent by police agents, publicity and independent courts of justice, freedom of the press, as the only means to drive out all infectious juices which poison our literature, and thereby to call out a free reaction of sincere convictions and honorable, sound judgment; we need a simplification of local administration, a reform of taxation, free access to means of enlightenment, a limitation of unproductive expenditure, a reduction in court attendants," etc., etc.

In other words, what Mme. Novikoff desires is, that her cherished Russian autocrat should be melted down and then recast in the similitude of that tremendous British autocrat, Mr. Gladstone. And she is of opinion that "all this can be done, not only without limiting the absolute power, but more speedily and more easily by an autocratic will, fearless and without suspicion, mindful of his absolute power, and therefore a careful guardian of the free expression of the people's mind and the people's needs." There is, of course, no accounting for ultimate convictions, and, as Mme. Novikoff declares herself to be possessed of this extraordinary faith in the healing power of an "autocratic will," there is, as Carlyle would have said, "nothing to be done but to leave her in that strange state, prayers at the same time being put up for her in all churches."

More interesting than "O. K.'s" queer defence of Russian autocracy is that portion of her book which deals with the life and exploits of General Skobeleff. She has little or nothing that is new to tell about her hero, but she has brought together the notices which appeared of him in the letters of newspaper correspondents during the Russo-Turkish war, and from the reading of these a tolerably clear picture of the man can be obtained. He was remarkable in many ways—a scholar as well as a soldier. He spoke English without the slightest foreign accent, was well read in English literature, and fond of quoting from the English poets, especially Byron. He also read French, German, and Italian; spoke modern Greek, as well as Wallach, Bulgarian, Serb, and more than one of the Central Asian dialects. Had he not been a soldier, he would probably have been known as a great geographical explorer. In all his campaigns he carried with him neatly-bound diamond editions of the British, German, and French standard authors, the margins of which were covered with annotations written in small, distinct characters. Speaking of his first meeting with Skobeleff, Mr. Archibald Forbes, the well-known war correspondent of the *Daily News*, writes as follows:

"I thought then, as I have never ceased to think, that I never looked on a finer man. Six feet high, straight as a pine, the head carried high, with a gallant, *débonnaire* fearlessness; square across the shoulders, deepened chest, slender of waist; . . . of frank, graceful, supple figure, set off to perfection by the white frockcoat with decorations and gold lace on it—Skobeleff, with his high, frank bearing, looked a genial king of men. As I write, I see before me that lofty forehead, shaded with the chestnut curls, the clear, frank, manly blue eyes, that met yours so stanchly; the long, straight, decisive nose—the kind of nose Napoleon said he looked for among his officers when he wanted to find a general; the beautiful mouth, with its wonderful mobility of expression; the well-turned, compact chin, with the deep dimple in the centre."

Mr. Forbes, in common with all who had any intercourse with him, speaks enthusiastically of the charm of manner which belonged to Skobeleff, the variety and easy flow of his conversation. He appears to have been preëminently great as a general and a soldier, because that happened to be the profession which he had selected, but endowed also with powers of mind which would have raised him to eminence in any walk of life. No judgment of him could be more erroneous than that which attributes his uniform success in all his undertakings to mere dash and excess of courage in the work of leadership. No general, it is true, ever possessed in a greater degree than Skobeleff those qualities which win the affection and confidence of the soldier, and so freely obtain from him all that it is possible for him to give; but Skobeleff called upon his soldiers to run no risks the measure of which had not been carefully calculated beforehand. His most brilliant achievements owed their success to the thoroughness and precision with which his plans had been previously matured in his mind. The sublime indifference to danger which he showed upon the field of battle was an essential part, so to speak, of his system. It was this indifference which drew forth to the uttermost the fighting capacities of his soldiers, which evoked in them a like disregard of death.

In the intervals of fighting, no one was more sedulous in looking after the well-being of his men. He was a rich man, and every penny of his pay he was wont to give away, in order to mitigate the hardships of his men in the field. "He knew the soul of every soldier as if he were himself a private," was the common remark of the men who had served under him. In front of Plevna, his was the one Russian camp that was kept scrupulously clean. The men were all sheltered in excellent huts, prepared for any degree of cold, and with a fire-place and chimney to every hut. When on the march, the camp-kettles were always despatched with great care in advance to the place where the troops were to sleep; and when the men arrived, their food was ready cooked. Skobeleff always tasted it, and recorded whether it was good or bad. He laid great stress upon a saying of Marshal Saxe, that the strength of an army lay in its feet, and was most particular to allow of no damaged boots in his division. It fared ill with the soldier and with his officer if the boots were not well and regularly greased. After the war, when typhus broke out in the Russian army, Skobeleff chartered a vessel at his own expense to convey his sick and wounded back to Russia, and they were, in consequence, the first of the Russian army who had the good fortune to return to their native land. By the Bulgarians he was idolized as much as by his own men; and he succeeded in instilling into Bulgarian recruits no small measure of his own reckless and indomitable spirit. One of the greatest exploits of the war was the battle of Shenovo, when about 15,000 Turkish troops, entrenched with heavy guns, surrendered to an attacking force unaided by a single piece of artillery. The position had to be carried at the point of the bayonet, and this apparently desperate enterprise was successfully accomplished by Skobeleff at the head of a force a considerable portion of which consisted of Bulgarians recruited during the war. Skobeleff's early death—for he was not forty when he was suddenly smitten—was an irreparable loss to Russia and the Slavic races generally. These races looked to him as the man who was marked out to be their deliverer from Turkish, Austrian, and Magyar tyranny, and Skobeleff responded to the hopes cherished regarding him by becoming an ardent partisan in the cause of Slavic emancipation. He appears to have resembled "O. K." in an infatuated admiration for the autocratic system of government, but in this he did not differ greatly from most successful soldiers in other parts of the world. It is exceedingly hard for a man who devotes his life to the slaughter of his fellow-creatures to place much value upon the ideas of law and liberty, seeing that his career is an energetic practical protest against the authority of all such ideas. Skobeleff had also that peculiar pitilessness, that light regard for human life, which, we fancy, is an essential element in the moral and intellectual equipment of a great general; and where a due sense of the sacredness of human life is not to be found, there it is chimerical to look for a recognition of the worth of individual liberty. For the latter conviction is but the developed fruit of which the former is the seed.

New England Bird Life: being a Manual of New England Ornithology. Revised and edited from the Manuscript of Winifred A. Stearns by Elliott Coues. Part II. Non-oscine Passeres, Birds of Prey, Game and Water Birds. Boston: Lee and Shepard. 1883. 8vo, pp. 409, 88 woodcuts.

THE high praise we accorded to Part 1 of this work, embracing the *Oscines* or Song Birds, is equally merited by the present and concluding part, treating of the non-oscine *Passeres*, the Birds of Prey, and the Game and Water Birds. The material for an exhaustive treatise upon New England ornithology is, as the editor observes, ample and inviting, though hitherto widely scattered; and especially is this the case with the Water Birds, in regard to which its richness is almost an embarrassment. The editor, in his preface, complains of lack of space to elaborate properly this abundant material and expresses himself as poorly satisfied with the result of his labors. "While inaccuracies of statement may possibly prove to be few and not serious, very much has been left unsaid through sheer stress of time and space." The 409 pages treat of about two hundred and thirty species; the notices of the different species varying from about a page to eight or ten pages in length, according to the particular interest of the species. Special pains have been taken to collate and sift the New England records of the rarer species, and in this part of the work the editor pleasantly recognizes the valued assistance rendered by Mr. H. A. Purdie, of Boston, whose name alone in this connection would be a sufficient guarantee of its trustworthiness.

The delay that has attended the appearance of Part 2, owing to unfavorable circumstances attending the editor's share of the work—evidently a large share, as already mentioned in our review of Part 1 — led to the fear that the same fatality of non-appearance of the part relating to the water birds which had overtaken several recent works on North American birds, would mark the present undertaking. Owing to the fact that no work adequately treating of the water birds of Eastern North America has appeared for nearly a quarter of a century, or, with the exception of one strictly technical, since Audubon's, the conclusion of 'New England Bird Life' has been anticipated with unusual interest, and we can safely say that within the narrow limits imposed this portion of the subject could hardly have been treated more satisfactorily.

The whole number of species formally included in the work is 368—140 in Part 1 and 228 in Part 2. Twelve others are noticed incidentally, three of which are introduced species, and five escaped exotics, while four are cited as liable to occur. Five species formerly more or less abundant are now doubtless extinct as regards New England, and about eighty are practically stragglers or waifs from remote parts of the continent or Europe. Former enumerations of New England birds are: Coues, 1868, 335 species; Brewer, 1875, 336; additions by the last-named author raised the number in 1878 to 357, and in 1879 to 361, or seven less than the number now recorded. Notwithstanding a few errors, mostly of no great moment, respecting the New England distribution of perhaps half a score of species, chiefly in Part 1, the author and editor of 'New England Bird Life' may well be congratulated on the production of a manual of the subject so eminently convenient and satisfactory. We only regret that a work of such excellence could not have been more extended; but this was hardly compatible with the cheapness and size that should characterize a manual. The fifty pages of introductory matter are highly pertinent; the descriptions are concise and to the point; the biographical matter sufficient to outline the leading traits of the species, is felicitously dressed; the rarer species receive the attention their special interest demands, the records of occurrence in such cases being well-nigh exhaustive; while the 144 woodcuts, though few of them are new, greatly aid in the exposition of technical characters.

Ecclesia Anglicana, a History of the Church of Christ in England from the Earliest to the Present Times. By the Rev. Arthur Charles Jennings, M.A. Thomas Whittaker.

THE title of Mr. Jennings's handy little volume indicates its purpose. It aims not to be a mere recital of events in the Church history of England, but to represent the Anglican Church as a thing existing by itself, having a continuity of being from its earliest to its latest day. According to this view, the Anglican Church did not begin with the Reformation. The Reformation was rather simply an episode in its life, bringing in new currents of thought, founding it upon a new principle, but making it no more an independent organization than it had been before. To carry out this theory of original independence requires very considerable skill. To the ordinary reader it would appear that for long periods the control of the King in alliance with the Papacy had abolished whatever of liberty might have been contemplated by the original English Church; but Mr. Jennings succeeds in showing very well that there always remained in the Church a sense of what Mr. Freeman would call its "Englishry," which claimed expression whenever the pressure from without was removed. This is exhibited by the long struggle against the right of Papal investiture and taxation. The avowed object of this volume is to furnish to candidates for theological examinations a concise summary of the chief points of importance for them. But it must be that very many others will welcome so compact and withal so scholarly a treatment of things every one ought to know, but cannot always find ready to hand, in so practical a shape.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abel, K. Ilchester Lectures on Comparative Lexicography. Delivered at the Taylor Institution, Oxford. London: Trübner & Co.
Across the Atlantic. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.
Anderson, J. Scotland in Pagan Times: The Iron Age. The Rhind Lectures in Archæology for 1881. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Bancroft, G. History of the United States. The author's last revision. Vol. ii. D. Appleton & Co. $2 50.
Blaikie, W. G. My Body. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.
Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon. 13th ed. Parts 66-71. Leipzig: Brockhaus; New York: L. W. Schmidt.
Carolino, P. The New Guide of the Conversation in Portuguese and English. Introduction by Mark Twain. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Clarke, Adam. Commentary and Critical Notes on the New Testament. New ed., condensed and supplemented by Daniel Curry, LL.D. Vol. i. The Gospels and Acts. Phillips & Hunt. $3.
Colquhoun, A. R. Across Chrysê: Narrative of a Journey of Exploration through the South China Border Lands, from Canton to Mandalay. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
Crafts, W. F. Successful Men of To-day. Funk & Wagnalls. 25 cents.
Fillmore, J. C. Pianoforte Music: its History, with Biographical Sketches and Critical Estimates of its Greatest Masters. Chicago: Townsend MacCoun.
Freeman, A. C. The American Decisions. Vol. xliv. San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co.
Gaboriau, E. The Downward Path. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Gordon, G. H. Brook Farm to Cedar Mountain; in the War of the Great Rebellion, 1861-62. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. $3.
Gower, Lord Ronald. My Reminiscences. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford.
Phelps, Rev. A. English Style in Public Discourse, with Special Reference to the Usages of the Pulpit. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $2.
Willson, M. and R. P. Mosaics of Bible History. The Bible Record, with Illustrative Poetic and Prose Selections from Standard Literature. Vol. i. Old Testament History. Vol. ii. New Testament History. Harper & Bros.
Ward, Anna L. Surf and Wave: The Sea as Sung by the Poets. Thomas Y. Crowell. $2.
Wilton, T. Mongrels: a Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Winser, H. J. The Yellowstone National Park: a Manual for Tourists. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 40 cents.
Woolson, Constance Fenimore. For the Major: a Novelette. Harper & Bros.
Wysard, Prof. A. The Intellectual and Moral Problem of Goethe's Faust. Parts 1 and 2. Trübner & Co.
Young, R. Modern Missions: Their Trials and Triumphs. Cassell & Co.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 28, 1883.

The Week.

DORSEY'S letter to Mr. Dickinson should be read with care not only by politicians, but by all who are interested in the development of the language. The English tongue as managed by him is as mighty an engine as the political machine became in his hands. His style is entirely his own, and he combines in it in a very curious way two widely different methods. One is simple but vigorous denunciation and abuse. This he applies to James, MacVeagh, Brewster, and Arthur, much as the frequenters of Billy McGlory's or Owney Geoghegan's do to the police when their feelings have been excited by an unexpected descent; the other is a lofty poetical imagery, so purely Oriental in its character that, outside of Stalwart politics, it is seldom used by modern letter-writers, unless in jest. He says, for instance, as to the charge that he has stolen money, just as if he were talking the matter over in the saloon which is said to have been the headquarters of the defence in his recent trial, that it was simply "a lie"; and that Arthur, MacVeagh, Brewster, and Bliss "knew it was a lie"; that the "white scoundrels" who had charge of the case tried to bribe his honest black boy to steal his books; that his wife was "shadowed" when she went shopping, and his servants "spotted"; and that "perjurers" were found among "the body lice of humanity" to go on the stand and swear him into jail. This is thoroughly Western; but in a moment, with the hand of a master, he transports us to the East. He has been living in "the House of Innocence," and it is the "Back Stairs of the House of Innocence" that George Bliss has been trying to sneak up, notwithstanding the fact that, as we have seen, everybody, "from the Stalled Ox feeding at the rich Trough of Accident" (this must be Arthur) to the "meanest Worm which fed from the Refuse swept from behind him," knew his residence to be the House of Innocence. It is satisfactory, on the whole, to be assured that though "the Claws of Ingratitude have spread their Nails," this remarkable man has been left abiding in the House "without a scratch," notwithstanding the sneaking manner in which the owners of the Claws, after spreading their Nails, listened at the "half-open Doors of Whispered Confidence," and also at the "half-closed Door of Family Confidence," which is probably in a different part of the House.

The explanation given by the new Commissioner of Internal Revenue, Mr. Evans, of the removal of Mr. Eldridge as Internal Revenue Agent, and the appointment in his place of Mr. Horton, who had been dismissed from the service several years ago, makes his action only look worse. He says that Horton was dismissed years ago without sufficient reason—mainly because he belonged to the Butler-Simmons wing of the Republican party in Massachusetts; and that Eldridge, who succeeded him, was an enemy of Horton's, and that to remove Eldridge now and to put Horton back, was a mere act of justice. Besides, Horton is his personal friend, which Eldridge is not. Taking Mr. Evans's own statement of his motives, it only shows that he has no conception of the business principles upon which a Government office should be conducted. Eldridge had been doing the work of Internal Revenue Agent for several years. He had proved himself an efficient officer. No fault could be found with him. He had worked up some important cases now pending, in the trial of which his aid was essential. On the other hand, there had been fault found with Horton's official conduct, and it was but a very natural thing that Horton, in applying for a reappointment at the incoming of a new Commissioner, should represent himself as the victim of some personal grudge on the part of the late Commissioner, and profess the warmest personal devotion to the new man in power. This is the common dodge. Every new chief of a department or of a bureau is at once overwhelmed with such representations, and no sensible man in that situation will fail to see that, if he yields to the pressure and attempts to redress all the real or fancied wrongs alleged to have been committed in the past, he will disorganize and demoralize the service and inflict great injury upon the public interest. We will not deny that in some cases wrongs may have been committed that ought to be righted. But they should then be very carefully investigated, and action should be taken with great circumspection, lest a new wrong be added to the old one. When the chief of a department or bureau goes at this sort of business pell-mell, he is sure to plunge from confusion into confusion, and to find himself shortly in very hot water. Putting the most favorable construction upon Mr. Evans's doings, this is the folly he has committed. He has shown that at best he is not a man of sense. But some of the other removals do not admit of even so favorable an explanation. They are simply a "new deal," according to the old ways of the spoilsmonger.

While we write, a terrible conflict is impending between the editor of the Richmond *State* and the editor of the Richmond *Whig*—the former the opponent, the latter the supporter, of Mahone. The duel is to be fought about a description which the *State* gave of the followers of Mahone, and a description which the *Whig* gave of the editor of the *State*, and is to decide which description is the more correct. If Mr. Beirne, the editor of the *State*, hits Mr. Elam, the editor of the *Whig*, it will prove that the followers of Mahone are a "vicious, corrupt, and degraded gang," who are in favor of mixed marriages and mixed schools. If, on the other hand, Mr. Elam hits Mr. Beirne, it will prove that "lofty pretensions of superiority in manners, morals, and letters are laughably ridiculous coming from a source so pitiable in all moral and intellectual resources" as Mr. Beirne. It will thus be seen that the controversy is a very important one, and well worth a life or two. One of its features is some very comic preliminary boasting from Mr. Elam, in the style of the Ashantee warriors. He drummed on his shield in front of the Beirne tepe, and called him a "Bombastes Furioso," who had shown the white feather by "going on the field without caps," while he (Elam) had on one occasion "fallen before a shot which he met in full face," and consequently "laughs at the *State's* vituperation and vaporing." The editor, for the time being, of the *Whig* has, we believe, always been a duellist, and has been accustomed to spend much of his time on "the field of honor."

Governor Butler turned up last week at the Commencement of Exeter Academy, where he got his schooling. In his address to the pupils, in speaking of the conditions of success in life, he said much apparently of "science and mechanical work," as the things which hereafter are to rule the world, but appears to have omitted all mention of morality, which gave President Eliot, who followed him, an opportunity to mention "the foundation of a true character" as one of the things an Academy should supply to its alumni. The report is very meagre, but if this is what happened it was a fortunate occasion. Butler, who wittily said long ago that he "never knew what happiness was until he lost his character," supplies in many ways a constant example to the young men of New England of the success which may be achieved without any pretence of morality whatever, by sheer and undisguised smartness. This probably makes him an instrument of an immense amount of unseen evil, and makes it very desirable that he should be confronted as often as possible by some testimony that our society is still based on truthfulness and duty and self-denial.

We notice with regret that the troubles which broke out a year ago at Union College continue. It is a pity that a venerable institution which can claim as alumni many of the distinguished men of this State and country should have fallen upon such evil days. The trouble seems to be due in part to denominational antipathies, which flourish, apparently, with uncommon rancor in a college professedly Christian and undenominational, and union in character as well as in name. No doubt, in fact, a Christian undenominational college is an anachronism. The conditions which obliged the union of several denominations in one institution belong to days when the country was sparsely settled, and when, to have any college at all, it was necessary to unite several denominations in it. Heretofore, until the advent of the present President, the College was practically in the hands of Presbyterians, and it would seem as if the process of natural selection by which a man takes his associates from among members of his own communion had led, in this instance, to the appearance in the Faculty and Board of Trustees of so many Episcopa-

lians that jealousy and alarm have been excited on the part of those who think the College ought to belong, whatever it is called, to the Presbyterians.

The methods, however, which have been adopted against the President, and to change the majority in the Board of Trustees, promise, if continued, to destroy the institution. Why its Board of Trustees have left the mode of election of alumni Trustees unprotected by the safeguards thrown around it in other colleges, they would probably find it difficult to explain upon any other theory than that of inattention to a very important matter. As it is, they are paying the penalty of a disorganized Faculty, the members of which have been tempted to leave their proper business of teaching to meddle with matters which properly concern the Board of Trustees, and in which the professors can never intervene without great injury to themselves and to all the interests of the institution. As to the complaints in respect to the President's financial management, none seem to emanate from those who have made the endowments and gifts to the College which have come to it through him. After all that has been published on that subject, those friends of the College—its real friends, one would say—are still his friends, and protest, so far as heard from, against the attempt to remove him. That he has worked with the greatest energy and devotion not even his enemies seem to deny. Having everything to do, and having done it, so far as appears, very much alone and without help, his efforts seem to have been crowned with such a measure of success as should have procured a different sort of return from that he is receiving for them.

The University of Cambridge (England) in 1881 formally sanctioned the admission of the women students of Girton and Newnham Colleges to the Tripos competitions—that is, to the mathematical and classical examinations for honors. The girls have since then answered on exactly the same papers as the men, and have had rank in the competition assigned them on the same scale. The only discrimination made against them was that the names of the successful did not appear in the University calendar among those of the men, but only in that of their own college. It is now understood that even this is to be done away with, and that the Senate of the University is so satisfied with the success of the experiment that they will probably next year publish the names of the female Wranglers and junior and senior Optimes in the regular University lists. These rash Radicals will probably read with amusement the plan of female education drawn up by Dr. Dix as a defence for the framework of society in this part of the world. But we trust Columbia College will in another year relieve itself from the somewhat ridiculous position in which it has allowed the reverend gentleman's fancies to place it.

A striking practical commentary on the medical Code has been furnished by an incident said to have occurred in Wisconsin. A little girl was thrown from a carriage and her skull fractured. A "regular" physician was called in, but when the family doctor, who was a homœopath, came, the allopath conscientiously refused to consult with him. The case needed surgical care, which the allopath could give and the homœopath could not. The regular physician, however, pointed out that under the Code he would have to leave the child to die, and went away; and, we are told, the child would have died but for the appearance of a surgeon from Chicago. The story is difficult to believe, because, unless we are greatly mistaken, the Code, or the practice under it, allows physicians to make an exception in critical cases involving safety to life. But if there is any reason for the existence of the Code, the conscientious adhesion to the spirit of it by the Wisconsin doctor is very praiseworthy, for critical cases are just those in which it ought to be obeyed most implicitly. The *Herald*, however, suggests that the Wisconsin physician, if the child had died, might have been indicted for manslaughter. But what of that? The physicians have never pretended that the Code was devised in the interest of patients, but represent it as having an ethical origin, or as a part of the professional moral law. If they are right, a conscientious "regular" ought to be willing to stand a trial for manslaughter, or even murder, for Its sake. A physician who once undertakes to discriminate between cases in which he will apply the Code and cases in which he will not, on such a flimsy pretext as the safety of the life of the patient, might just as well do it on the score of mere health, and then we are all at sea again. The only way is for conscientious believers in the Code to stick to it, no matter what becomes of the patient. It may be necessary to indict them for doing so; but what really good man will violate a principle for fear of the consequences?

The strange story of the disappearance and sudden return of Mr. Krum to St. Louis will, we trust, attract attention to the important position which the occupation followed by him is getting to have among lawyers in the United States. He was, as his father had been before him, and so many other prominent men all over the country are, an "ex-judge." He held the position of judge only for a short time, and apparently did not go on the bench on account of his love of a judicial career, but in order to become an ex-judge. There are many reasons why the position of ex-judge should be regarded among lawyers as one of greater value and dignity than that of judge. In the first place, any judge can become an ex-judge by simply resigning his office, whereas to become a judge he has to be nominated and elected, which is generally difficult, disagreeable, and sometimes, at least in this part of the country, very expensive. Then an ex-judge holds his position for life, and is irremovable, while a judge's tenure is short, and his reëlection dependent upon the action of political bodies which he cannot control and fix without subjecting himself to the risk of annoying charges. Added to all this, an ex-judge can practise the "law business" and make money to any extent, and as an ex-judge he is of course likely to enjoy the confidence of clients to a degree that one not an ex-judge can never reach. This is shown in ex-Judge Krum's case, for, notwithstanding his unexplained absence for some weeks, during which he was reported to be travelling under an alias to avoid arrest, and was removed by order of court from an administratorship for failure to settle his accounts, his return appears to have dissipated all suspicions, and restored complete confidence to his creditors. There is one drawback at present to this attractive profession, and that is that a man has to be a judge in order to become an ex-judge. Could not this be got over by a change in the law? Why should not lawyers, on proof of a certain number of years' active work, be entitled to adopt the rank of ex-judge as of course? An ex-judge is just as much an ex-judge whether he has been on the bench for a month or thirty years; and, therefore, to insist on his actually filling a judicial office seems an idle form, inconsistent with our national hatred of sham and pretence.

The consternation displayed by the Commissioners of Emigration over the landing of the "assisted immigrants" at Castle Garden, if it comes from their fear that a lax enforcement of the emigration laws will get them into trouble, is natural enough; but the idea spread by them that the British Government has concocted a cunning scheme of flooding this country with its own paupers does not seem borne out by the facts. Exactly how many paupers and tramps there may be in the British Isles we do not know, but there must be a good many thousands, and it is difficult to conceive a more dastardly outrage than an attempt on the part of a friendly government, in a time of profound peace, to deposit this pauper population on our shores. Considering what we have done in the past, and are all the time doing, in the way of relieving England of her surplus able-bodied population, how warmly we have welcomed it on landing, and how we have always called for more, it would be an act of peculiar baseness and ingratitude quietly to ship over here all her tramps, cripples, beggars, and paupers. Fortunately, there is no reason to think that she is doing anything of the kind. In the first place, the vessels now landing immigrants are not bringing any large number even of "assisted emigrants." There do not appear to be a dozen well ascertained cases of pauperism in the whole list. Some of the Commissioners seem to be laboring under the delusion that "assistance" in these cases is a test of pauperism, because the assistance is furnished by a government. The English Government is now undertaking to do for a surplus agricultural population, which has not food enough to live upon, exactly what is usually done in individual cases by private means. Of course, among the people it assists in this way, in the present condition of Ireland, there will be more real paupers than is customary among the emigrants, and these ought to be, and, we trust, will be, weeded out; but the idea gravely suggested of sending back all the "assisted" emigrants as paupers is a monstrous proposition.

Dr. Edward Lasker, who arrived here on Friday by the steamer *Werra*, might for a considerable period have been called the central figure in German politics next to Bismarck. When the Chancellor appeared willing to ally himself with the Liberal sentiment of Germany in shaping and consolidating a national empire, Lasker occupied the first place as a parliamentarian in aiding the work and in endeavoring to keep its progress and development in the direction of free institutions. With equal ability, again, and honesty of purpose he for a long time led the Opposition when Bismarck, cutting loose from the Liberal alliance, pursued the building up of absolute power in the empire with the same directness of purpose and energy with which he had served the cause of national unity. It was Lasker also who, when the French milliard developed its demoralizing influence, attacked the growing spirit of speculation and jobbery with singular fearlessness and power. At present the momentum of the reactionary policy is so great that Lasker finds himself pushed back into the ranks of those public men who have quietly to bide their time. It may be said without exaggeration that there is no man in public life in Germany who enjoys a higher degree of popular confidence and respect, even from those who do not in all things agree with him.

The speculation in the grain and provision markets at the West continues on a large scale. It was expected that the heavy failures of the last two weeks would effectually discourage these operations, but the result was a great decline in prices. Since June 1, wheat has declined in the Chicago market about 12 cents per bushel, and this week touched the lowest prices for nearly a year. Corn has declined 5 cents per bushel, pork $3 per barrel, and lard 2 cents per pound, in the same time. This has placed prices so low that fresh speculators are now buying these commodities with the expectation of a rise, and it is publicly known that Armour, of Chicago, is now carrying out the tactics in which McGeoch failed. Meantime, the decline has induced exporters to take a large amount of both grain and provisions for foreign markets, and the movement from Chicago in the last week, unusually great for this season of the year, has already had the effect of weakening the rates for foreign exchange.

The crop prospects are not as good as could be desired in some quarters of the country. The most trustworthy information goes to show that in the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri the winter wheat crop (which ordinarily constitutes about 60 per cent. of the entire wheat crop of the United States) will this year be short of its usual average by 75,000,000 to 90,000,000 bushels. The prospects for the spring wheat crop, however, are uncommonly good, and the deficiency in the winter wheat crop seems likely to be made up. The money markets of the country continue abundantly supplied with funds at the low rate customary at this season, but the stock market has not been greatly affected by it. Public confidence in the management of American railways has been so unsettled by such occurrences as the Northwestern railroad war last autumn that railway stocks do not attract speculative capital, and prices of stocks have, as a rule, continued to decline. During the past week New York Central touched the lowest price it has sold at in three years. In foreign circles there is a great deal of distrust in the stability of financial affairs in Paris, and the credit of some of the large banking and credit-loaning institutions has been publicly attacked in the newspapers. In London everything is quiet; the Bank of England has been gaining in specie reserve for nearly two months, and the outlook is for lower rates of interest.

The treaty of commerce, which General Wallace is discussing with the Porte, was concluded by Mr. Morris on our side in 1862 for a period of twenty-eight years, but with power to either side to terminate it on giving one year's notice at the expiration of fourteen years, or again at the expiration of twenty-one years. The treaty was accompanied by a tariff, settled by international agreement, which was to be in like manner terminable on notice of one year at the expiration of each seven years. The Porte now wants to get rid of them both, and, as the period of twenty-one years has expired, has given notice of abrogation, which General Wallace declines to accept, on the ground that it is too late. By the treaty the Porte agrees not to charge a higher import duty than 8 per cent. ad valorem on American goods, and to reduce gradually the export duty on goods exported to the United States from 3 to 1 per cent. From the protectionist point of view, it is difficult to understand General Wallace's course. It ill becomes us to exert even moral pressure to compel a weak Power to submit to free trade with us—for 8 per cent. ad valorem is substantially free trade—considering what the views are which are held by the majority of our Congress, and by so many of our leading statesmen, touching the social and political value of high duties on foreign goods. Turkey is a poor and struggling country, with little or no manufactures, and with her agriculture in an exceedingly rude and unprosperous condition, which our protectionists hold is the result of long persistence in the policy of free trade. She has apparently discovered in some degree the source of her weakness, and is seeking to get rid of the bonds which tie her down to a low tariff. Is it seemly that at this juncture the United States, of all countries in the world, should step in and insist on her continuing to receive American goods at nominal rates of duty, knowing well, or professing to know, that by so doing she pauperizes her own laborers, or, in other words, drags them down to the level of the pauper laborers of America, whose low standard of living enables them to undersell the respectable and self-respecting Turkish mechanic in his own markets?

This is not all, however, or by any means the worst. The tariff has not worked well for us of late. In other words, we have been receiving from Turkey more than we sent her, which, as every good protectionist knows, means loss. Without going back further, from 1876 to 1881 we had a nice balance of trade against Turkey; that is, we put off on the unfortunate Turks far more of our goods than we took of theirs. This is the way the account of American trade with Turkey stands during six years (we lack the figures for 1879):

1876..	Exports from U. S. to Turkey.....	$3,396,629
	Imports	439,647
1877..	Exports	9,338,501
	Imports	429,017
1878..	Exports	1,413,161
	Imports	558,091
1880..	Exports	1,913,122
	Imports	1,201,316
1881..	Exports	1,499,399
	Imports	1,582,307
1882..	Exports	2,585,256
	Imports	2,678,437

This table tells its own story. The treaty—we are considering it as good protectionists—appears to have worked well for us down to 1881. Thus far we gave the Turks more than we got from them, which everybody knows is the true way to make money in international trade. Since then the Turks have apparently discovered the secret, have called up their pauper laborers, and although they have only an 8 per cent. tariff against our 50 or 60 per cent. tariff, have managed to turn the balance of trade against us, and last year gave us $93,181 more of goods than we gave them. In fact, for the last two years they have been "drawing the gold out of the country," which everybody knows is the worst thing anybody, whether Turk, Jew, or Infidel, can do to us.

The *Tribune* fell into a curious mistake recently about Lord Reay, whom Mr. Gladstone has just appointed High Commissioner to the Boers at the Cape of Good Hope. It apparently thinks that he is an Englishman, and says he was "born Baron Bentinck," though how this could have happened, under the most favorable circumstances, it is hard to see. As a matter of fact, he is a Dutchman by birth, and was born Baron Mackay, owing to the Continental custom of giving all sons their fathers' titles as a matter of courtesy. His ancestor was a younger son of the Scotch Mackays, known as Lords Reay, one of the oldest of the Scotch peerages. He was an officer in the Dutch army under William of Orange, and, marrying a Dutch woman, settled in Holland for good. The elder branch became extinct a few years ago, and the title then passed to the younger or Dutch branch, of which the present Lord Reay was then, as Baron Mackay, the representative. He had his choice between remaining a Dutch Baron or becoming a Scotch Peer, and chose the latter. But a good deal of his youth had been passed in England, and he was already half an Englishman. He is a very accomplished and painstaking man. He visited this country twelve years ago, and was then noted for the indefatigable zeal with which he "studied our institutions." His father, the late Baron Mackay, was a Dutch statesman of distinction, and was for several years President of the Council at the Hague. Lord Reay has married an Englishwoman, and has of late years been a prominent figure in London society.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, June 20, to TUESDAY, June 26, 1883, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Ohio Democratic State Convention met in Columbus on Thursday. There was a very large attendance. The names of Messrs. Durbin Ward, Hoadly, and Geddes were put in nomination for Governor, the first-named by ex-Senator Thurman. The first ballot resulted as follows: Hoadly, 290; Ward, 261; Geddes, 77; Denver, 4. During the second ballot, and after its conclusion, some changes were made for Judge Hoadly, and amid great excitement a motion to nominate him by acclamation was carried. He had about 350 votes before the motion was made, 319 being necessary for a choice. He is about fifty-three years of age, and for many years has been one of the leaders of the Cincinnati bar. Previous to 1872 he was a Republican, but supported Greeley in that year; he was a Tilden man in 1876. A full ticket was then nominated. The platform adopted reaffirms the principles of Jeffersonian Democracy, favors a tariff for revenue "limited to the necessities of a government economically administered, and so adjusted in its application as to prevent unequal burdens, encourage productive interests at home, and afford just compensation to labor, but not to create or foster monopolies"; advocates the regulation of the liquor traffic by "a judicious and properly graded license system"; and reaffirms recent Democratic platforms, State and national, on the civil-service reform question, but does not mention the Pendleton bill. A great deal of dissatisfaction has been created among the "old line" Democrats by the nomination of Judge Hoadly.

The Supreme Court of Ohio on Tuesday decided the Scott Liquor Tax Law of that State constitutional.

The New Hampshire Legislature met in joint convention on Wednesday and cast a ballot for United States Senator. Mr. Rollins received 125 votes out of 329. His leading competitor was Mr. Harry Bingham, with 121 votes. On Thursday Mr. Rollins sustained a net loss of ten votes. No quorum was present on Saturday and Monday, though ballots were taken. On Tuesday Mr. Rollins received 104 votes out of 321.

On Monday afternoon the plan for the reduction of the Internal Revenue districts was officially promulgated at Washington. By the President's order the number of districts is reduced from 126 to 82, a reduction of 44. This is a greater reduction than was expected. In New York State the changes are all effected outside of Brooklyn and New York city. The State will have on July 1, or as soon thereafter as the changes can be made, seven districts instead of twelve. The consolidation in New England, New York, and Pennsylvania includes one-fourth of the reduction.

Mr. Evans, Commissioner of Internal Revenue, is carrying out his programme of "reorganizing the bureau" on the spoils basis. Another efficient officer has been asked for his resignation, and assigned to other duties, to make place for a friend of the Commissioner. It is understood that President Arthur and Postmaster-General Gresham, who suggested Mr. Evans's nomination, are much annoyed by his policy, and that he has been cautioned to refrain from any more removals without cause.

Mr. Solomon Carter, of Boston, has written to President Arthur protesting against the appointment of Charles W. Horton for a position in the Internal-Revenue Department. He narrates his experience when a member of a firm of liquor dealers, when Mr. Horton was in the Revenue Department before. He asserts that a portion of his stock was seized by Mr. Horton on account of irregularities, but he compromised the matter with him by the payment of $600 in cash. Mr. Horton denies the charge.

Postmaster Thomas L. Tulloch, of Washington, died on Wednesday. The President on Saturday appointed David D. Parker, Chief of Post-office Inspectors, to succeed him.

The Secretary of the Navy has sent a circular letter to the commandants of the different navy-yards, relating to his proposed reorganization of them with a view to a retrenchment of expenditures therein.

The contract with John R. Miner, to carry the mails over the route between Fort Niobrara and Deadwood, has been annulled by Second Assistant Postmaster-General Elmer, who finds that certain statutory requirements were not regarded in awarding it.

A nolle prosequi was on Monday entered by the Government in all the Boone "straw-bond" Star-route cases. The dismissal of the indictments as to him also dismisses the indictments as to a large number of other persons with whom, in the five cases, he was charged with having entered into conspiracy. Boone's friends say that the action of the Government in dismissing the suits was forced by Boone's lawyers, and that, as a matter of fact, he had a written agreement with the Government counsel that the cases should be dismissed, and threatened to make it public unless speedy action was taken.

The investigation of the official conduct of Supervising Architect Hill is still in progress at Washington. Considerable testimony for the prosecution was presented during the week. On Tuesday Mr. Hill filed his answers.

The Indians captured by General Crook arrived at San Carlos reservation on Saturday. Chief Loco and his family headed the hostiles. Loco, Nana, and Bonito were met by Indians acquainted with them. Nana said he was too old for further operations, and glad that he had arrived at a safe place. Bonito has no friends, but seems glad to be under the protection of General Crook. The officers of the command express the opinion that the Chiricahuas will be quiet and peaceful. General Crook has been summoned to Washington to consult in regard to the final disposition of his captives.

Considerable discussion has been caused by the arrival at Castle Garden of a number of "assisted" emigrants from England and Ireland. It is asserted that many of them are paupers and liable to become a burden on the State and country. The Emigration Commissioners are now considering the question.

Mayor Nolan, of Albany, caused a surprise on Friday night by presenting his resignation to the Common Council. This was due to the fact that the suit of Doctor Swinburne against him for possession of the office, on the ground that his election was secured by fraud, was set down for trial on Monday. No defence was made on that day by Nolan, and Mr. Swinburne was declared legally elected Mayor. He immediately took the oath of office.

The new Board of Trustees of the Brooklyn Bridge organized on Thursday by electing William C. Kingsley President. Treasurer Witte's report showed that the income from the bridge since the opening, for twenty-seven days, was $22,937 58, or an average of $849 54 per day. Of this amount $10,060 58 was collected during the first week, ending May 31. For the six days ending on Wednesday, $3,808 was taken. The total income from foot passengers has been $13,438 56, and from vehicles, $9,499 02.

The celebration of the seventieth birthday of the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher attracted an immense throng to the Brooklyn Academy of Music on Monday night. Congratulatory addresses were made by the Rev. Messrs. Armitage, Collyer, Fulton, and Mayor Low. Mr. Beecher responded in an appropriate address.

Commencement exercises were held at Brown, Rutgers, and Princeton Colleges on Wednesday. At the last-named institution the trustees refused to accept the resignation of President McCosh. Dr. J. O. Murray, Professor of English Literature, was elected Dean of the Faculty to relieve the President of part of his duties. At Cornell, Commencement was held on Thursday. President White's administration was approved by the alumni, and an alumni trustee was elected who is in sympathy with the present management. The fiftieth annual Commencement of the University of the City of New York was held on Thursday.

At a meeting of the alumni of Union College, Schenectady, on Tuesday, Col. David C. Robinson, the anti-Potter candidate, was elected alumni trustee by a vote of 159 to 122 cast for Judge Van Vorst.

The centennial of Phillips Exeter (N. H.) Academy was celebrated on Thursday. Many distinguished alumni were present. Two thousand persons attended the exercises.

Governor Butler has accepted the invitation to attend the Harvard College Commencement, and has ordered out the National Lancers to escort him thither according to custom, notwithstanding the refusal of the degree.

The Harvard College eight-oared crew defeated Columbia at New London, Ct., on Wednesday, in a four-mile straight-away race, by twelve lengths. Time, twenty-four minutes and forty-two seconds.

All the games in the college base-ball series have been played, and Yale has secured the championship, having won seven out of eight games.

President Cattell, of Lafayette College, on Sunday announced his coming resignation on account of ill health.

At the dedication of a Confederate monument in Camden, S. C., on Wednesday, Senator Wade Hampton made an oration in which he glorified the Confederate cause and principles, but counselled obedience to the laws and to the supremacy of the Constitution.

Warrants were issued in Richmond, Va., on Thursday morning for the arrest of Richard P. Beirne, editor and owner of the Richmond *State*, and W. C. Elam, editor of the Richmond *Whig*, charging them with being about to engage in a duel. The cause of offence was an editorial article in the latter journal. Both gentlemen left the city, and the warrants could not be served. On Friday preparations were made for the duel near Richmond, but Editor Beirne was arrested on the ground chosen for the conflict. Since then secret efforts have been made to bring about the meeting.

The will of N. L. Dukes, the Uniontown (Pa.) murderer, has been found. It is written on the back of a letter, and is dated December 29, 1882. He gave $2,000 to Miss Mary Beeson, to whom he was supposed to be engaged, and the remainder of his property, without specification, to his mother, Mrs. Struble.

Several levees, protecting the rich farms on the Illinois side of the Mississippi, between Alton and St. Louis, broke on Friday, inundating thousands of acres of land. The loss of crops was great. The water continued to rise, and on Monday the loss was estimated at more than $2,000,000. It was said on Tuesday that the American bottom, from Alton to Cairo, was flooded.

A terrible explosion occurred in a blast furnace of the North Chicago Rolling Mills on Friday, by which thirty-five tons of molten metal were scattered and seventeen persons severely injured.

A sensation was created in Philadelphia on Wednesday by the discovery in the cellar of the house No. 2243 North Fifth Street of the bodies of twenty-one infants who had been killed before birth. The house was occupied until a few months ago by Dr. Isaac Hathaway, who is now in Moyamensing Prison, awaiting trial on a charge of assault and battery upon Rose Elmer, his wife's daughter by a former marriage. Dr. Hathaway was

brought into court on Saturday and held for trial. He is about eighty-two years of age.

Wednesday proved to be another exciting day on 'Change in Chicago. The fluctuations in all the markets were sharp and rapid. The failure of George Stewart & Co., who were "long" on wheat and lard, was announced. There was a rally in prices on Friday, and confidence was somewhat restored. It is said that the liabilities of McGeoch, Everingham & Co. are $6,000,000; assets, $50,000.

The wife of Major Nickerson, of the United States Army, has sued for a divorce.

Hanlan, the Canadian oarsman, won a victory on Friday at Pullman, Illinois, winning a prize of $1,000; time 22:30. There were fifteen well-known oarsmen in the race.

Dr. Edward Lasker, the distinguished German Liberal statesman, arrived in New York on Friday. He will remain in America for five months, studying at leisure the political institutions of the country.

General Sherman, with members of his staff, on Wednesday, started on a tour of inspection of military posts across the continent.

Gen. Charles Ewing, formerly of Ohio, died in Washington on Wednesday morning. He served all through the war, part of the time on the staff of General Sherman, his brother-in-law. He was a brother of Gen. Thomas Ewing.

Gen. James Conners, ex-Attorney-General of South Carolina, and one of the most prominent lawyers and politicians in the State, died in Richmond, Va., on Tuesday morning. In the contests of 1876–7 the success of the Democratic party was in a great measure due to his efforts.

James Bates Thomson, LL.D., the author of a number of mathematical works, died in Brooklyn on Friday.

Charles Backus, the famous end-man of the San Francisco Minstrels, of this city, died on Thursday at the age of fifty-three.

FOREIGN.

The French, it is asserted in Paris, do not intend to go to Antananarivo, the capital of Madagascar, but will occupy the custom-houses and all the roads leading to the capital, and await the submission of the Hovas, which they expect will occur soon. Tamatav has been captured. An ultimatum offered by Admiral Pierre to the Hova Government, which refused it, included the acceptance of a French protectorate over the northwest coast, according to the treaties of 1841, the payment of an indemnity of 1,500,000 francs, and the acknowledgment of the right of French citizens to own land in Madagascar.

At the French Cabinet council on Thursday it was positively asserted that the Queen of Madagascar had been dead six months, and that the military party had concealed the fact. Friends of the Queen in London discredit the report.

Marquis Tseng, the Chinese Ambassador in France, and Prime Minister Ferry have had several interviews, and there are favorable prospects for a compromise of the difficulties between the two countries. It was announced from Shanghai on Friday that the difficulties between the two nations had been adjusted, but a subsequent despatch threw doubt upon the report. The Marquis Tseng also denied it.

In Tonquin General Bouet, the French commander, is fortifying Ha-noi, Nam-denh, and Hai-phong, and operations will not begin until the troops are completely organized. The health of the forces is excellent.

The French Senate has passed the bill providing for a direct postal service between New York and Havre.

Louise Michel has been on trial in Paris during the week for inciting to murder and pillage. In a speech in her own defence on Saturday she violently attacked the Government, and declared that the issue of the pamphlets to the soldiers inciting them to burn their barracks and murder their officers was justified. She declared that the soldiers at Sedan would have done well to shoot their officers and save their honor. She was found guilty and sentenced to six years' imprisonment and ten years' police supervision. Two other Anarchists were convicted and sentenced at the same time.

The protest recently sent by the Pope to President Grévy, of France, in regard to Church matters in that country, is couched in an amicable, though firm tone. His Holiness points out the painful position of the Church in France because of the policy of the Republic during the last few years. He says laws hostile to the Church are now being prepared. He hopes that the pacific assurances given by France at various times really signify a desire to avoid a painful conflict, which would be equally disastrous to both Church and State.

Herr von Schloezer, the German representative at the Vatican, has been ordered not to quit Rome until the fate of the Church Bill in the Prussian Diet has been decided.

The Prussian Church Bill was passed by the Lower House of the Diet on Monday by a vote of 224 to 107.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday a bill passed its second reading providing for the application of £250,000 of the church surplus fund to aid the Irish Sea fisheries, and particularly to provide harbors.

In the House of Commons on Tuesday, the Attorney-General for Ireland announced that James Carey, the Irish informer, had not yet been pardoned, but the subject was being considered by the Government. He said that Executive clemency would be coupled with conditions.

Mr. O'Donnell, Irish member of Parliament for Dungarvan, in a letter to the Dublin *Freeman's Journal*, on Monday, said the adoption by the Parnellite members of Parliament of the so-called bill providing for the abolition of the Irish Viceroyalty forces him, as a Home-Ruler, to resign from the party at its next meeting, The bill, he says, really is intended to convert the Viceroyalty into a Principal Secretaryship of State, the incumbent of which is to be appointed by the Queen from among the Irish members of Parliament.

A despatch has been received in Dublin from Mr. Redmond, now in Australia, asserting that he would guarantee to send from that country £1,000 toward the fund for Mr. Parnell.

The Land Corporation of Ireland, for the occupation and purchase of farms from which the tenants have been evicted, met in London on Monday. The Chairman reported that the operations for the year had been beneficial, and that tenants were returning and paying rents. A dividend of 5 per cent. was declared.

Lynch *alias* Norman, the informer, who testified against Doctor Gallagher and the other dynamite conspirators, was released on Monday from custody in London, because of his services to the Government as an informer.

In the inquiry which was in progress at Mullingar, Ireland, last week in connection with the murder of Mrs. Smythe in April, 1882, an informer testified that an assassination society had been started by Michael and John Fagan, with the object of removing tyrants and bad landlords.

A London despatch asserts that "everything points to a speedy break-up of the Liberal party. At the Cabinet meeting on Saturday the question was considered whether, having regard to the paralysis of business in Parliament, the Government should at once dissolve Parliament and appeal to the country. Mr. Chamberlain and Sir Charles Dilke advised against dissolution, and suggested that the Parliamentary session be prolonged until the necessary bills be passed."

Lord Randolph Churchill, in a communication to Mr. Gladstone, says that he will forward to him an indictment of the Khedive of Egypt on the charge of being the real author of the massacres, and that he (Lord Randolph) will be prepared to coöperate to the utmost extent of his resources in bringing up such witnesses as may be necessary to prove the truth of the statements in this particular.

The English Channel Tunnel Committee is drafting a report, which is said to be in favor of the project.

The Storthing of Norway has rejected, by a vote of 80 nays to 32 yeas, a proposal to increase the allowance of the Crown Prince by 50,000 kroner. The reason given by the opponents of the measure for voting against it is the unsatisfactory political situation.

Mr. P. Lorillard's five year-old Iroquois won the Stockbridge cup in England on Thursday. Iroquois was the winner of the Derby in 1881.

The British passenger vessels *Hurunui* and *Waitara*, belonging to the New Zealand Shipping Company, came into collision off Portland, England, on Friday night, and the *Waitara* sank in two minutes. Twenty-five persons were drowned.

General Wallace, the American Minister to Turkey, has refused to accept the notice given by the Porte of the termination of the treaty of commerce between Turkey and the United States, on the ground that it was given too late.

The Right Rev. John William Colenso, D.D., Bishop of Natal, South Africa, died on Wednesday, at the age of sixty-nine. He was appointed First Bishop of Natal in 1853. He published a number of religious books, one of which, on the Pentateuch, was deemed heretical, and in 1864 he was deposed from his see, but the decision was rendered null and void by the Privy Council. He espoused the cause of Cetewayo, and was an effective advocate of his restoration to his kingdom.

Disastrous floods visited Silesia, Bohemia, and Moravia during the week. Seventy persons were drowned in Silesia.

Anarchists have posted placards in Athens, Greece, threatening to destroy the royal palace and ancient monuments with explosives.

Serious anti-Jewish riots have occurred at St. Gall, Switzerland.

A trial is now proceeding in Hungary of a number of Jews who are accused of murdering a Christian girl for the sake of using her blood to mix with the Passover bread. The evidence proves the manifest absurdity of the charge.

While a performance was in progress at a puppet theatre at Dervio, Lake Como, recently, the structure took fire and was entirely destroyed. Forty-seven persons lost their lives and many others were injured.

Senator Lafayette Rodrigues Pereira has succeeded in completing a new Brazilian Ministry from the most advanced branch of the Liberal party, and the administrative decentralization of the country is one of the reforms which may be expected.

Meetings have recently been held in Peru which declared for peace and for Iglesias as President and regenerator of the republic, as proclaimed by the Cajamarca Assembly.

Letters from Peru announce that it is believed the Chilians will gradually evacuate the north of Peru under the treaty made with Iglesias, and that he will first establish his government, beginning in Trujillo and other leading towns, before he goes to the neighborhood of Lima. The Chilians certainly have more confidence in him than in any other leader, so that they may furnish him with the arms he will require to suppress Montoneros and marauders.

An epidemic of cholera, as is alleged, has appeared in Damietta, Egypt.

Intelligence has been received in London from Sierra Leone, Africa, that the recent British operations against Chief Gbpowe were attended with great atrocities on the part of the native allies, who butchered and mutilated all the males taken prisoners.

THE OHIO DEMOCRATS.

In selecting former Republicans as candidates for high places, the Democrats have not always been as fortunate as in the latest instance. Judge Hoadly, who has been nominated by the Ohio Democrats for the Governorship, is a man of marked ability and high standing. He also possesses many of those qualities which are apt to make a candidate stronger than his party: an extensive personal popularity, an active and energetic temper, and a pleasing faculty of speech. It is not probable that he will lose Democratic votes on account of the short time during which he has been identified with the party, while he may draw more votes from the Republican side than any man in Ohio similarly situated could do. Judge Foraker, the Republican candidate, is undoubtedly aware that in Mr. Hoadly he has as formidable a competitor as could have been picked out in the State.

The platform adopted by the Democratic Convention of Ohio deserves to be studied as a model of the double-action system. It exhibits the art of the platform-maker whose object it is to be all things to all men, in its perfection. It begins with a reference to Thomas Jefferson's principles, and their application to the present condition of affairs, which of course involves the substitution of good practices for bad practices. No well-meaning citizen of the United States, whether he be Democrat or Republican, will object to this, unless he be thoroughly perverse and obdurate. Coming down to tangible particulars, the platform takes up the tariff question. It "favors a tariff for revenue." Everybody does, under present circumstances. It does not speak of a tariff for revenue *only*, for that would offend the protectionists. It would, moreover, have the tariff for revenue "limited to the necessities of a government economically administered, and so adjusted as to prevent unequal burdens." This is to please the revenue reformers. But the tariff is also to "encourage productive interests at home and afford just compensation to labor," which is the exact language used by the protectionists when glossing over their selfish policy. All this, however, is by no means "to create or foster monopolies," which will make the crowd applaud and the protectionists smile. And then the platform denounces the reduction of the tariff on raw wool by the Republican Congress as iniquitous legislation, thus countenancing the most odious and absurd feature of the protective tariff, the duties on raw materials. This, of course, will be highly gratifying to all protectionists of the extremest stripe.

As to the liquor question, the platform declares against all sumptuary legislation, which will please the liquor interest and also those who are on general principles opposed to prohibitory or restrictive measures. It is "in favor of the largest liberty of private conduct consistent with the public welfare and the rights of others," which will be subscribed to by the prohibitionists as well as by their opponents, each side reserving to itself only the right to define how large a liberty of private conduct will be consistent with the public welfare. And finally it is also "in favor of regulating the liquor traffic, and providing against the evils resulting therefrom, by a judicious and properly graded license system." This bears a striking resemblance to the Republican platform, which declares its approval "of the taxation of the liquor traffic for revenue and for the purpose of providing against evils resulting from such traffic." Both speak of providing against the evils resulting from the liquor traffic—the Republicans by "taxation," and the Democrats by a "license system." But as the State Constitution forbids a license system, the thing favored by the Democrats can be reached only by constitutional amendment, and they must, therefore, by implication at least, concur with the Republicans in "approving of the action of the General Assembly of Ohio in the submission of constitutional amendments in relation to the liquor traffic." The Democratic platform, therefore, covers the ground pretty completely. While it has a broad smile for the anti-prohibition side, it has a wink for the other.

As to civil-service reform, the present platform demands it as earnestly as the Democratic State Conventions of Ohio did in 1880, 1881, and 1882, and the Democratic National Conventions of 1872, 1876, and 1880. But how earnestly? The fact that since that time a civil-service reform bill, fathered by a Democratic Senator from Ohio, has passed Congress and become a law, is not deemed worthy of notice. Considering the circumstance that this law and the champion of it were roundly denounced and ridiculed by the Democratic press of Ohio and the Democratic members of the Ohio Legislature, in spite of the repeated platform declarations in favor of civil-service reform, it is not surprising that the Convention did not push its earnestness so far as to endorse that measure and its champion.

Thus the Democratic party may enter upon the canvass with the reassuring consciousness of having something in its platform to please everybody, even people of the most opposite views and endeavors. It will be a curious campaign. The Republicans, according to Senator Sherman, will press the tariff issue, but they will find the Democrats on both sides of it, and both parties will be apt to appear on both sides of the liquor question. Both parties will vociferously "claim" the victory down to the day of the election, and when the struggle is decided we shall know which candidate is elected and which party has gained an advantage, but it will be hard to say whether any, and what, distinct set of principles and policies has won a triumph over another.

CAMPAIGN RECORDS.

Dorsey is apparently a very prolific writer, and we shall, now that he has leisure and has got over his fear of the penitentiary, have a great deal of literary matter from him in the shape of abuse of his enemies. There is nothing, however, in his letters which is at all new or interesting except his explanation why he did not surrender the papers and books forming the party archives, which were supposed by his successor to have come into his hands as Secretary of the Republican National Committee. He says, in a communication to his successor in that office, Mr. John A. Martin, that before he became Secretary he, too, supposed there were party records, and that the Secretary was the custodian of them, and he asked *his* predecessor, Governor McCormick, for them, but was informed that there were none, that "a bonfire of forgetfulness" was allowed at the end of each campaign to "eat up the evidence of honesty." Governor McCormick had in like manner received no records from his predecessor, the late Mr. Chandler, owing to the same bonfire of forgetfulness. "They," then says Dorsey, with a certain epigrammatic force, "were my predecessors, and you are my successor. I have nothing more to give you than they gave me." But he goes on to add that he has certain party papers, and means to keep them. "I have," he says, "a great mass of papers relating to the last campaign. They are chiefly made up of letters addressed to me and letters written by me to others, in which no one could have the slightest interest except to obtain curious information." He then explains that none of the campaign funds came into his hands—that they were simply "expended under his direction"; which is his fine way of saying that money was sent to such persons as he designated.

Now, there is no question that the next great step in the work of political purification will be to compel the campaign committees to file and publish, after each canvass, an account of their receipts and expenditures, and there could hardly be a better proof of its necessity than this letter of Dorsey's. Public attention was drawn to the need of something of the sort last fall, apropos of the assessments which Mr. Jay Hubbell was levying on the office-holders, and of the subsequent destruction by his committee of all record of the amount and disposition of the proceeds of his extortions. The burning of books of account always excites suspicion, unless they are strictly private books. To burn books showing what you did with other people's money raises a presumption of wrong-doing, and all electioneering money is in a double sense other people's money. An account of it is due not only to those who may have voluntarily contributed it, or from whom it may have been extorted, but to the people of the United States, whose will it has been used to shape or modify. In plain English, the public has a right to know what party managers do with money about election time for precisely the same reason that they have a right to know what the trustees of corporations do with the money of the corporations, *i. e.*, because the temptation to use it for the public detriment—or, in other words, for illegal purposes—is strong. In England this has been fully recognized, since the extension of the suffrage, by compelling each candidate to file after every election a sworn itemized account of the money expended in his canvass. If the items are improper, the candidate loses his seat or suffers the other legal penalties of corruption.

We ought to have an act of Congress compelling every campaign committee to file its accounts after each canvass, showing how much money it used and in what manner. The legitimate uses of money in a canvass are easily specified, and no party need be asham-

ed to tell how much it spent on them when all is over. Nor need any party be ashamed of having plenty of money, provided it comes from proper sources—that is, the free contributions of voters. In fact, a full party treasury is a very legitimate sign of party strength and hopefulness. The proper use of party funds in a canvass is the provision of the machinery of persuasion. If Dorsey's letters relate to this, neither he nor the party need be afraid to have them published. Doubtless they contain plenty of lies and skeletons or suggestions of lies; but these things the law cannot touch and ought not to concern itself with. In so far as they direct the expenditure of money, they are or ought to be public property. It ought, therefore, to be obligatory on him to produce them, with explanatory annotations. Hubbell ought to have been compelled to produce his, and all persons burning or concealing or mutilating campaign records ought to serve a term in the penitentiary. Astounding as it may seem to party managers, we have no sort of doubt that this is coming. We shall see these things enacted before long. The American people will do whatever is necessary to make elections a fair expression of the popular will, instead of a game between two rival sets of jugglers or "manipulators." And when we have such a law, able men of high character, and not smart, tricky men, will be sought out for the executive work of campaign committees.

DUPLEX PROFESSORSHIPS.

President White, of Cornell University, has tried to solve a problem which has long vexed many souls, by appointing Mr. H. C. Adams, a free-trader, to the chair of Political Economy, and at the same time appointing Mr. Ellis H. Roberts as a lecturer "to present the protectionist view," or, in other words, to confute whatever the Professor may say in favor of free trade. This is a concession to long-standing discontent on the part of the protectionist public with the way in which political economy is taught in nearly all our leading colleges. We have no figures before us, and, therefore, speak under correction, but we believe the University of Pennsylvania is the only college of note at the East which now has a protectionist professor. Nor is this the result of any settled policy or leaning on the part of the college authorities. We believe they formerly all, or nearly all, had protectionist professors. It is due to the fact that almost all promising men of the younger generation who devote themselves to the study of political economy, and are willing to teach it, are free-traders. In other words, the colleges are committed to free trade almost whether they will or no. Nor are the protectionists compensated for this disadvantage by the assistance they receive in the literary field. The support which comes to them from this quarter cannot be compared to what it was twenty-five years ago. No journal advocates their cause with the vigor and ability displayed by the *Tribune* in Horace Greeley's days, and they have no book writer who approaches the late Henry C. Carey in dogmatic force and audacity. In fact, they may be said, for all practical purposes, to have lost the press. Their most faithful journalistic friends, instead of preaching the old protectionist gospel, plead *ad misericordiam*, or ask for a postponement of the inevitable day on grounds of expediency.

They lament this state of things a good deal, but have never produced any practical remedy. They have consoled themselves somewhat by the reflection that if the professors and "doctrinaires" were against them, the practical men—that is, the manufacturers—were on their side; and that if the young men in the colleges were led astray for a while as to the true conditions of national prosperity, they would get over their errors when they came to engage in the actual work of life. They have found much comfort, too, in painting the free-trade professor as a blear-eyed, dreamy pedant, who got on very well while he was talking to boys in the recitation room, but would cut a very sorry figure if brought, with his theories, face to face with hard-headed business men, who know "the bottom facts" of the case. The Tariff Commission apparently invited Professor Sumner before them on this theory, and were confounded by finding the actual Professor a very healthy and decidedly warlike person, exceedingly plain in his speech, who knocked all their heads together in five minutes, and made a most amusing exposure of their mental condition, even about their own subject.

There is, no doubt, a certain absurdity in putting up two persons in an institution of learning to teach opposing views of the same subject simply because opposing views exist in the community. They do this in Germany, but the American college is not a German university. It professes to know the truth, besides teaching how to seek it. Before 1879 the silver men and greenbackers were nearly as powerful, respectable, and reasonable a body as the tariff men are, and held that the existing teaching of the colleges about currency was false, mischievous, and inspired by capitalists and "gold-bugs." We believe they did also, in some cases, ask for "representation" in the collegiate lecture-rooms, so that they might have a chance to prove to the undergraduates the virtues of "fiat money," and the desirableness of having money of low purchasing power for the poor man, and money of high purchasing power for the rich man; but nobody listened to them, and they have now nearly all disappeared, and are making hard money as fast as they can.

But we do not think any free-trader need complain of the Cornell method. It is, perhaps, the best thing for free trade that could be done under the circumstances. It is not easy at present to find protectionist teachers of political economy who can contend successfully with the existing occupants of the chair. Acquaintance with the literature and history of the subject is somewhat rare among them, and this, though of small consequence before popular audiences, tells on a college class. We should be glad, therefore, to hear of two professors of political economy in every college in the country fighting, hammer and tongs, over Adam Smith, the pauper labor of Europe, and British gold, Willimantic thread, and the million tracts of the Cobden Club, and Dr. Hamlin's Turkish protective tariff.

CZECH REVIVAL IN AUSTRIA.

The Taaffe Cabinet in Cisleithan Austria proceeds without wavering on the path which it marked out for itself when it assumed the direction of affairs four years ago, and it proceeds more rapidly than it then intended. Its latest political act, the dissolution of the Bohemian Diet, (in which the German element had a majority over the Czech), merely for the sake of reversing the balance of legislative power in Bohemia, surpasses in directness anything ever done by the present rulers of Cisleithania in favor of Slav preponderance. We are not ready to say that this act is the result of a deliberate intention to accelerate the momentous change of base undertaken in 1879. On the contrary, it appears to us rather a necessary consequence of the position originally taken by the Cabinet, perhaps more from necessity than choice, and of its long-continued movement on the inclined plane leading from the artificial summit of dualism and German leadership to the broad level of federalism and Slav supremacy. The Germans call it a descent toward an abyss which will engulf not only the higher civilization and constitutional and religious liberty of the Austrian peoples, but also the monarchy itself; and some are bold enough to make it clear that they will not hesitate to contribute to the dissolution of the latter, convinced that a really German order of things, under the auspices of the Hohenzollern sceptre, could be evoked out of the ruins. Taaffe, however, and his supporters—Czechs, Poles, feudalists, clericals—are equally emphatic in the assertion that the present policy is the only one which can save the monarchy from a collapse. In the meanwhile, the Czechs—who, since they reëntered the Vienna Reichsrath on the formation of the present Cisleithan Cabinet, have extorted concession after concession—are jubilant in the triumphs achieved and in the sure expectation of an electoral victory soon to come, while dismay and disorganization reign in the ranks of their opponents.

Nothing is more peculiar and curious in the political history of our times than the constantly changing phases of the Czech national movement within the Austrian Empire. A hundred years ago no Bohemian nation existed. It had been extinguished by the victory of the Emperor Ferdinand II. at the opening of the Thirty Years' war, and by the stamping out of its Protestant elements during the course of that terrible struggle. The Bohemian nobility and burgher classes had become completely Germanized, and the whole people Romanized. The descendants of the Hussites had become bigoted Papists, and subservient tools of the Hapsburgs. The Czech language, in which Huss and Jerome of Prague once preached, had been degraded to the state of a vernacular of a despised peasantry. A slow national reawakening began to manifest itself during the reign of Joseph II. Poor *literati* attempted a rehabilitation of the beautiful Slavic idiom of the country, and ultimately dreamed of a resuscitation of the national spirit. The tendency of the era of revolution which followed favored the movement. Powerful writers arose, and the higher classes, though late, were finally carried along by the

current; and when, in 1848, the Metternichian system collapsed, there was a half-regenerated Bohemian nationality, with which new Austria had to reckon. This nationality, however, had dual features which distinguished its aspirations from those of any other. It cherished the recollections of a national past, the glories of which were anti-Catholic and revolutionary; it was intensely Catholic, and clung with religious fidelity to the Hapsburg dynasty, which had extinguished the Protestantism of the country together with its independence and liberty. This dualism has not yet ceased to characterize the modern history of the Czechs.

The first impulse of the Czechs of Bohemia, when they were roused from political lethargy by the revolutionary tempest of 1848, was to baffle the attempt of their German fellow-citizens to join in the pan-Germanic movement of the time. They hoisted their own flag with the arms of Austria. The next aim was to reunite all the fragments of "the crown of St. Wenceslas"—Bohemia, Moravia, and Austrian Silesia—into one Czechic realm. Extremists talked of the annexation of the Slovakish territory of Hungary. The pro-Austrian agitation against the Germanic Parliament at Frankfort was soon followed by the convocation of the Slavic Congress at Prague, which led to a bloody contest with the Austrian military authorities, in which the Czech cause succumbed. This revolutionary movement was rapidly succeeded by efforts to sustain Austria in her desperate grapple with the Hungarians, the Czechs sacrificing their liberal aspirations to their Slavic race interests. They flocked to the banner of Windischgrätz, who had bombarded Prague and dispersed the Slavic Congress. It was, however, Russia that decided the contest, and when Hungary fell Austria returned to her centralizing and Germanizing policy. When Solferino and the passive opposition of the Hungarians had forced Austria to conciliate the non-German nationalities by constitutional concessions, the Czechs entered the Vienna Reichsrath in the expectation of ruling it with the help of the other Slavs —Poles, Slovenes, etc.—but, baffled in this, left the Reichsrath in 1864, and finally also the Bohemian Diet, when the majority there too escaped their grasp. It was during this long period of abstention that their Slavic ardor almost completely prevailed over their creed-hallowed fidelity to the house of Hapsburg, and the Czech leaders Palacky and Rieger, frightened by the victories of the Prussians in the Bohemian campaign of 1866, sought to win the sympathies of Russia and France by demonstrations and secret manœuvres almost bordering on treason. All sympathy with oppressed Catholic Poland was ostentatiously renounced for the sake of the future Russian alliance; Russian and Czech celebrated in common the memory of Huss; Panslavism, under Russian headship, became the goal of Czech patriotism.

The occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by the armies of Austria-Hungary in 1878 caused a sudden change in the political combinations of the Empire. That occupation was the work of a court policy, supported by the sympathies of the army, the nobility, and part of the people, but distasteful to the leading Magyar and German parliamentary spheres. Andrássy won for it the reluctant consent of the Hungarian Diet and Imperial Delegation, but the opposition to the policy of expansion in Vienna became so passionate that it cost the German party its unity, the favor of the court, the coöperation of a fraction of the nobility, and the confidence of many a constituency. The parliamentary situation became untenable at the moment when Prince Bismarck meditated the formal conclusion of an Austro-German alliance, directed against Russia and France. This alliance was to strengthen and extend the Austro-Hungarian influence in the Balkan Peninsula. Bosnia was to form the *point d'appui* there. The Slavic interest of Cisleithania was to support the occupation, and form a counterpoise to the influence of Orthodox Greek Russia. The alliance was formed. The Czechs and Poles readily entered into a combination with feudalists and clericals of every hue, and the Taaffe Cabinet was created. The German Constitutional party drove it, by an almost factious opposition, completely into the Slavic camp, forcing it to purchase its only possible support by constant yielding to demands in the Slav interest. The Czechs, reëntering the Reichsrath, at once again became the most loyal subjects of the Hapsburgs, the most devoted citizens of the Empire which they again hope to rule. The power of Panslavism is thus broken for the moment, and this it is which makes Taaffe boast of a successful and saving policy, while the Hungarians, in their quieter and better governed part of the dual Empire, contemplate with patience the advance of their Czechic ill-wishers, and Bismarck apparently looks on with contentment. The German politicians of Austria, on the other hand, exasperated by constant defeats and the arrogance of illiberal opponents, see in their own impatience an earnest of future revolt, conflict, and collapse. Austria has, however, gone through so many crises of a similar character that all predictions of imminent ruin for her have ceased to be terrifying.

GOOD MANNERS.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* has been raising the old question, "What is a gentleman?" and answers it in a somewhat novel way by saying that the meaning of the term "varies with the times." Conservative people, of course, will be shocked by such an assertion, for the conservative view of the term is that it is absolute, and that any recognition of changes in its meaning would be an improper acknowledgment of the inroads which sheer vulgarity is constantly making in the social world. Their view of the subject is that a gentleman is always a gentleman, as a lady is a lady; but that good manners, which are the true mark of both, are in a state of decadence. At heart, too, whatever they may pretend, they believe that the spread of democracy and equality is driving good manners out of the world.

If this idea is just, it is not owing to a lack of attention to manners, for there probably never was a period of the world in which so many people gave close and thoughtful attention to matters relating to behavior as in the present. A century ago good manners among men and women were a good deal like breeding among horses, a question of inheritance and blood. The social traditions of the race were in the hands of a small class, who handed them down orally from father and mother to son and daughter. The mass of mankind had no more part or lot in them than they had in a knowledge of Latin and Greek. Indeed, the dead languages were really more accessible. Money would always furnish a road to any branch of polite learning, while it was universally admitted that it took "three generations to make a gentleman." Now, however, all this is considerably changed. Everybody who is at all familiar with modern society knows that gentlemen have to be made quickly nowadays. People are not willing to wait for their grandchildren to be gentlemen; they want to be made into gentlemen themselves. In this country especially, where family counts for so little and money for so much, and where the bewildering ups and downs of fortune revolutionize the features of society every thirty or forty years, it would be ridiculous to talk about manners being the result of "breeding," or being confined to any particular class. They have been thrown open, like education, or foreign travel, or the suffrage, to all the world. Anybody can now get some manners. They still have, however, aristocratic associations, and in a thoroughly democratized society there is nothing so pleasant—particularly to women—as a touch of what is essentially undemocratic. This explains the fact that while manners in the United States have been so constantly found fault with by foreigners, there is no country in the world where so much attention is paid to them, where so many books on etiquette appear, where there is so much conversation about them, so many people constantly trying to find out what they are and to practise them, and also giving a substantial proof of the difficulty of the process by producing "too good manners" as the result of the process. A man or woman whose manners are "too good," is invariably a person to whom manners have not come by inherited tradition and early association, but by conscientious and painstaking labor.

On the other hand, it should be admitted that, in a purely industrial community like ours, refinement is always looked upon by outsiders who do not happen to be trying to refine themselves, in a hostile spirit. The vulgar, underbred man looks upon a refined and fastidious man with a feeling something like that which Justus Schwab may be supposed to feel when he walks by the Vanderbilt houses in Fifth Avenue, though less consciously. But whereas Justus is working for the day when the wealth and splendor he sees about him may be divided among him and his friends, the general fund of refinement and good manners, even when the reign of absolute justice and equality is established, can never be distributed *per capita* on the basis of population. The resentment which the vulgar man feels against the refined man leads him, in a free society like ours, to do what he can to spread and foster vulgarity, just as his enemy does refinement, and this may serve to explain the

phenomenon, certainly noticeable in our day, of a constantly increasing refinement in manners generally, contrasted with and accompanied by a rapid progress in vulgarity. Everybody has noticed the feeling of disgust that any marked display of refinement or sensitiveness in horse-cars, omnibuses, and railroad stations produces among the majority of the passengers; and what is this but an expression of the confident superiority and unaffected pride arising from a sense of common vulgarity?

One marked proof of the deep interest taken in the United States in the subject of manners has always been the attention paid by Americans to foreign critics of their manners; an attention which is all the more remarkable because England, which is the country generally resorted to for advice, owing to the radically different mode in which society is organized there, cannot possibly furnish a fixed code of manners for this country. Nevertheless, the interest in the English code has always been very great. We have before us a curious historical illustration of the fact in some manuscript directions as to behavior in society written down about fifty years ago for the benefit of an American "set" of that day by an English nobleman. The owner of the manuscripts tells us that they were asked for by the late Mrs. Patterson-Bonaparte, and furnished to her by Lord Cholmondeley, a man of fashion of that day. It will be seen that they were not meant exclusively for women, and they relate to language as well as behavior:

Say *shooting*, and not *gunning; coachman*, not *driver*. Say *drive*, not *ride*, if it be in a carriage. Say *drawing-room*, not *parlour*. Say *glass of water*. Say he *doesn't*, not he *don't; apple tart*, not *apple pie*. You must not say, "I have dined off ham," or off anything. Say "Give me some Madeira or sherry," but never add wine. It is not vulgar to say "port wine." Never utter the word *victuals*. Avoid the word *elegant* on all occasions. No one ever says *genteel, dashing*, or *elegant*—words entirely excluded from good company. Be sure never to send your knife and fork when you send your plate to be served a second time. Do not put your knife into your mouth. Do not carve with your own knife. Do not put your knife into the butter or salt, or anything which is destined for another. Do not ask for a piece or slice or cut of anything; say, "May I trouble you for some of the beef, ham, turkey," etc. Hunting means riding after hounds; shooting, killing with a gun. Never say "people of quality," but "persons or people of rank." Never say "My Lady," it is never used except by footmen. Avoid saying Sir, Ma'am, or Madam—you may say it in a public coach or in the street. Do not call a surgeon "Doctor," but "Mr." in speaking to him or of him; you may call a physician "Doctor." You must not say "send for a doctor," but "send for a physician."

Eat fish, fruit, and vegetables with a fork. Break your bread at dinner; never cut it. Say a fortnight, not *two weeks*. Say autumn, not *fall*. Say "I shall get cold," not I will, etc. Say a ladylike or gentleman-like, or nice or agreeable person, but never use the expression *genteel person*. Say clergyman, never parson. Parson is never used but as a term of ridicule when applied to Methodists, etc. Say lilac, not *laylock*. Say a pain in the chest, not a *pain in the breast*. Say ill, unwell, indisposed, never *sick*. Direct your letters to Thomas Brown, Esq., never to Mr. Brown, unless he is a tradesman. If you do not know his Christian name make a dash, thus: —— Brown, Esq. Seal with wax, never with a wafer, unless you are writing to low people. Use blotting-paper, never sand. Do not ask people how their brother, father, mother, son, sister, daughter is. Speak of them by their names or titles. Say hall, not passage, unless it be a back one. Say street door, not *front door*. Do not laugh loud or rub your hands or show turbulent symptoms of any kind. Never use the word God; do not say devil or devilish. Do not spit on the floor or in the chimney; if obliged to spit, let it be in your pocket-handkerchief. Do not pick your nose. Do not sit close to or touch any one in any way. "May I trouble you?" or "I will trouble you" for the salt. Never say "Please help me" to anything. Never say "I guess," or "I expect," for believe or suppose. Do not empty your egg into a glass. Do not crowd different things on to your plate. Expression of wonder or any great show of emotion is ungentlemanlike. Never pour your tea or coffee into the saucer. Do not put your spoon into your tea-cup to signify you have done. Say James not Jeames. Never say old Mr. or old Mrs. Anybody. Do not speak through your nose, as most Americans do.

Many of these instructions cannot have been of much use to Mrs. Bonaparte or her friends; and most of them relate to such minute points that no one could possibly remember them all, unless they came to him as part of an inherited tradition. Some of them have no meaning out of England, as the distinction between physician and surgeon, and the insistance upon apple "tart." Such rules could never have been applied as practical tests of good manners here, and cannot now. Most of them would not now be recognized in England as furnishing infallible criteria. No Lord Cholmondeley of the present day would ever dream of sketching out such hard-and-fast tests as to details of behavior. Refined people clearly perceive now that vulgarians have rights in society which should be respected, and one of these is that their lives shall not be made miserable over such contemptible trifles as the trick of asking for "a drink of water," confusing "will" with "shall," of putting their spoon in their tea-cup to show that they are "through." If we were to go seriously to work, as Mrs. Patterson-Bonaparte did, to get our present faults corrected, we should undoubtedly find plenty of censors who would tell us what they were, but would there be any general agreement as to whether the criticisms were right or wrong?

THE COMTE DE PARIS'S HISTORY OF THE REBELLION.

PARIS, June 7, 1883.

THE Comte de Paris is continuing the history of the war of secession at his Château d'Eu, and has just published the fifth and sixth volumes of his great work. I have opened with a melancholy feeling these new volumes, and could not help meditating on the singularity of the times we live in. Only a few months ago, while the Count was perhaps correcting the proof-sheets of his work, he was suddenly threatened with banishment. Prince Napoleon had put on the walls of Paris a placard which seemed to throw the Republican party out of its senses, and the Chambers were on the point of sending all the so-called pretenders into exile. In 1871 the Comte de Paris, inspired, I have no doubt, by the most patriotic motives, waived all his claims to the throne of France in favor of the Comte de Chambord. He did not declare himself an enemy of the Republic; he merely said to his cousin at Frohsdorf that if the French nation wished to reëstablish the monarchy, he would not be his rival, he could only be his successor. I will not dilate here on the character or the consequences of the interview at Frohsdorf; the monarchy was not reëstablished, and it is only just to say that the Comte de Paris has lived quietly, like a private citizen, mixing in no intrigue, and winning all suffrages by the dignity and purity of his life, by his laborious habits, and by the disinterestedness of his character. We owe the continuation of the 'History of the American War' to the leisure which circumstances have made for him. At Eu the Comte de Paris has collected an enormous quantity of documents concerning the war, in which, as a young man, he took an honorable part, with his brother, the Duc de Chartres. He is in correspondence with many officers, Northern and Southern, who were conspicuous in these great events; he works diligently and with great regularity; and thus it is that, notwithstanding all the circumstances which often have crossed his quiet life, he has been able to bring down his history as far as the momentous battle of Gettysburg.

The fifth volume opens at the beginning of the campaign of 1863—a campaign which everybody felt would be decisive. "Though the Federals had gained ground on their adversaries during the preceding year, they had paid such a price for their acquisitions, and the last months of 1862 had been marked with such bloody reverses, that the reëstablishment of the Union by the force of arms seemed more distant than ever. In vain did people count on the resources of the North, on its obstinacy, on the strength which would be given to it by the proclamation of emancipation: it was natural to doubt of its success when the results obtained were measured with the sacrifices which they had cost." In December, 1862, the Army of the Potomac had in vain tried to take the lines of Fredericksburg, and Sherman had suffered a defeat before Vicksburg.

General Hooker took command of the Army of the Potomac on the 26th of January, 1863. The army was discouraged, but the name of Hooker was popular, and his presence soon reestablished discipline and put a stop to desertion. The Comte de Paris describes with great accuracy the region of the Rapidan and of the Rappahannock, and the forest called the Wilderness. He explains the plan of General Hooker, who opened his campaign on the 29th of April.

"After having well combined and very happily executed the first part of his plan of campaign, Hooker seems to have forgotten that the point the possession of which was to decide the fate of the enemy was not in the forest of the Wilderness, but on the heights of Salem Church, which dominate Banks's Ford. Instead of taking possession of them with the promptness which he showed when, as a simple general of division, he conducted his soldiers against the enemy, it seems as if he allowed the enemy time to come and attack him in the midst of thick woods very unfavorable to a numerous army, well provided with artillery."

After the bloody struggle of Jackson against the Federal right, near Dowdall's Tavern, the position of Hooker became critical; he was, so to speak, shut in on the plain of Chancellorsville, threatened on one side by Jackson, on two others by Lee. The battle of Chancellorsville, told in the minutest details by the Comte de Paris, was, in his opinion, a defeat, but not a disaster, for the Northern army. The troops were tired, but not discouraged, as they had been after Fredericksburg. They needed repose, but Lee did not leave them much leisure.

The invasion of the Northern States had been decided on in the Southern councils. The Army of Virginia knew all the ways which led toward Washington, Baltimore, and Pennsylvania. Such an invasion, even if it was followed by the capture of Washington, would undoubtedly have more results than a battle like Chancellorsville, which had been fruitless. When General Lee asked for rations, he received the answer: "If the General wants rations, let him go and find them in Pennsylvania." The Virginian army was put in motion on the 3d of June, 1863. This army was far superior to what it was the year before, when it had invaded Maryland; it

was well drilled, well disciplined, well organized; it had great confidence in itself and in its chiefs. Lee had divided his army into three corps, which were commanded by Longstreet, Ewell, and A. P. Hill. His object was to follow the Shenandoah Valley, behind the Blue Ridge, and to enter Maryland. Meanwhile, it was necessary to keep the Federal army before Fredericksburg by a great show of troops. Great secrecy could alone protect his own army during its dangerous flank-march. Hill was left behind, and concealed the departure of two-thirds of the army.

Hooker had only 80,000 infantry; his artillery was very numerous, and out of proportion to the reduced number of the infantry. His cavalry was tired, after the raid of Stoneman, and needed repose. The most cruel experiences could not determine the authorities of Washington to reduce the garrisons of useless posts. Hooker had orders which forced him to cover Washington and Harper's Ferry, though Washington was well garrisoned and Harper's Ferry had no strategical importance. "General Hooker had asked that all the forces which could coöperate against Lee should be under one direction, so as to combine their efforts. General Halleck judged that the superior direction which was exercised by himself in his cabinet at Washington was sufficient." The Army of the Potomac was thus reduced to the defensive. The Comte de Paris praises the efforts made by Hooker in order to counteract the plans of Lee. In reality, Lee was leaving the road to Richmond open, while he himself tried to march on Washington—he was playing, as he said, Queen for Queen; and Hooker soon perceived the advantages which could be drawn from the movements of his adversary. Washington, with its powerful fortifications, its formidable artillery, its garrison of 36,000 men, which Schenck could have rapidly swollen to 50,000 men, was more than a match for Lee, while, without a second army, Davis could not have been able to protect Richmond. The resources of the Confederates were limited in men, in material of war, in means of transport; they had not the command of the sea. Hooker could not, however, persuade the Government; he was told that his mission was not to go to Richmond, but to fight Lee's army. Abandoning to the enemy the offensive, there was nothing left for him but to try to understand its movements.

Meanwhile, Lee marched his army between the two parallel ridges, the Blue Ridge and the Bull Run Mountains. His movements were masked. The campaign was opened by the battle of Winchester, which told the North that the army of invasion was in the valley of Virginia. Hooker put his whole army in motion, turned northward, and concentrated his troops so as to cover Washington. The disastrous retreat of Milroy produced a profound sensation; the invasion of Pennsylvania was near; Harrisburg was in danger; the valley of the Cumberland was in alarm. The audacious, though extremely injudicious, raid of Stuart had very singular results. At one moment, says the Comte de Paris, Lee, Hooker, and Stuart were marching all three on parallel lines, the second being between his two enemies, and separated from them by a chain of hills. The diversion of Lee's cavalry was very useless, and brought in reality no good result to the Confederate cause.

It is well known that the command of the Army of the Potomac was transferred from Hooker to Meade. "This change would have been logical the day after Chancellorsville; it was singularly inopportune at the moment when the two armies were on the eve of a decisive struggle." General Meade is thus described:

"Quiet, modest, silent, but with a just judgment, a clear and precise mind, and a coolness which danger could not alter, he was only known by his subordinates and by the other generals; for neither his slow and methodical mind nor his long thin face, with eyes the sad expression of which was hardly veiled by spectacles, was made to strike the multitude or to inspire enthusiasm. But he was esteemed by his companions in arms and respected by his adversaries."

Meade received large powers from Washington, but he had the good sense to make as few changes as possible in the organization of his army. This army, when he received the command, was little short of 105,000 men. The two armies, in ignorance of each other's movements, changed their direction, while their cavalry crossed each other and sometimes met in sharp encounters, and finally, on the 1st of July, took a direction which placed them in presence of each other in the neighborhood of Gettysburg.

The Comte de Paris has two long chapters on the momentous battle of Gettysburg, which was in reality the turning-point of the war. I will only give a résumé of his account. The first cause of the defeat of the Confederate army was the absence of Stuart, which brought about the fortuitous encounter at Gettysburg, and retarded the concentration of this army. Lee had four brigades of cavalry with him, but did not know how to use them. He did not understand that a new ground, open, with commanding positions, rendered all concealed marches, all sudden attacks impossible. He gave too much development to his line, and made his principal attacks at the two extremities. Having failed in them, he did not throw troops enough against Meade's centre. The Army of the Potomac had the advantage of good positions, of which Meade made excellent use. His victory was decisive, for the losses were enormous on both sides, amounting to 27 per cent. on the side of the Federals, and to 36 per cent. on the side of the Confederates. The numbers show how desperate the struggle was. The Confederates lost seventeen generals; the Federals lost ten. On the 4th of July a proclamation by President Lincoln, conceived in a simple and noble style, announced to the people of the North that the invasion of the free States had come to an end. Three days after, the news came that Pemberton had capitulated at Vicksburg. We have left aside this part of the operations, which fills half a volume of the work of the Comte de Paris. The sixth volume ends with the "third winter" of the war—a chapter which gives a complete survey of the Union and of the Southern States during the months which followed Meade's victory.

Correspondence.

THE LAWYER IN LITERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the remarks in No. 937 of the *Nation* concerning the disparaging "note" which literature has almost uniformly sounded in respect of lawyers and (in lesser degree) of other learned professions, let me recall the fact that, so far as English literature is concerned (to say nothing of the classics), the offence is one of pretty long standing. The "London Lickpenny," of Lydgate, who flourished during the reigns of the fourth, fifth, and sixth Henrys, is an old and typical example. Says that jolly Benedictine:

"To London once my stepps I bent,
Where trouth in no wyse should be faynt,
To Westmynster-ward I forthwith went,
To a man of law to make complaynt;
I sayd, 'for Mary's love, that holy saynt!
Pity the poore that wold proceede';
But for lack of mony I cold not spede."

This experience is repeated till the whole round of barristers, or attorneys, is made, and so it is at "the Chepe," "Canwyke Street," "Corn-Hyll," and "Belyngsgate," where "hot pescodes," "hot shepes feete," and "many a pye," made tempting displays, but—

"Wantyng mony, I myght not spede."

At last, after vainly trying to get ferried over the Thames gratis—

"I prayd a barge-man for God's sake
That he would spare me my expense."

He footed the journey into Kent—

"For of the law would I meddle no more,
Because no man to me took entent.
. . . . . .
Now Jesus that in Bethlem was bore
Save London, and send trew lawyers there mede!
For who so wants mony with them shall not spede."

The circumstance of Lydgate's being a monk may explain his evident claim to services and supplies without "mony," and doubtless the same reason would stand for other censures than those in "London Lickpenny." Finally, as showing the irrational character of this particular critic of the "man of law," we may refer to one other verse of the poem:

"The taverner took me by the sleve,
'Sir,' sayth he, 'wyll you our wyne assay?'
. . . . . .
I drank a pynt, *and for it did paye.*"
. . . . . .

This is the solitary instance where anything was paid for, and there is not a word of censure of the "taverner," who, like the bargeman and the lawyer, wanted his "mony," and, unlike them, got it. C. F. B.

Washington, June 25, 1883.

THE TOTAL DEPRAVITY OF THE BICYCLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last number an ex-professor relates that he was called to account by a board of college trustees for having ridden a bicycle. Can it be that the religionists have discovered this little machine to be in some way the work of the devil? The Rev. Hugh O. Pentecost, it is currently reported, was invited to resign, and did resign, the pastorate of Marcy Avenue Baptist Church, Brooklyn, because of the severe displeasure of his flock at his having ridden a bicycle.

The said church is, I believe, an offshoot of the Hanson Place Baptist Church, upon whose expulsion, readmission, and retrial of a deacon you recently commented. Brooklyn.

June 22, 1883.

THE ORIGINAL "MASHER."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think it is the Autocrat of the Breakfast-Table who somewhere, in confirmation of his assertion that there is nothing new under the sun—not even in slang phrases—quotes Horace's *Est tibi mater?* as the original of "Does your mother know you're out?" Another case in point, as suggesting the possible genesis of the "masher," may perhaps be found in the following, from the same poet's fourteenth Epode:

"Me libertina neque uno
Contenta Phryne *macerat.*"

J. D. T.

Colby University, Waterville, Me.,
June 23, 1883.

DUELLING AND KILLING ON SIGHT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial article on "Southern and Other Duelling" contains nothing that the majority of us in the South who are at all enlightened do not consider worthy of our warm assent. There is reason to lament, however, that the duel, carefully arranged, should be superseded by the reckless street encounter, as it has been, unquestionably, to a great extent. In the South most severe penalties are pre-

scribed for those who in any way take part in duels. Of course such laws are successfully evaded, as are divorce laws, by repairing to other States, and, besides, the Legislature promptly removes the political disabilities imposed. A considerable number of Southern people, however, fearing that they might be made exceptions, or shrinking from implicating their friends, are deterred from duelling. But they are not deterred from fighting what are in essence duels—and duels devoid of all safeguards. In most cases one does not in the South arm himself for an affray without first warning his foe. I know of a case, also, where one of the parties in a "street duel," having his thumb disabled by the first fire, was allowed to push back the hammer of his revolver against an object several yards distant by his antagonist, who "chivalrously" waited for him thus to get ready for the second shot. When prevented from getting word to the other, it is common to provide yourself with two knives or pistols, that there may be no temptation to kill unfairly.

Cox, who killed Allston in Atlanta in a "fight on sight," was found guilty of murder—probably the only case on record; and doubtless his conviction was due to the fact that he continued to shoot after all the chambers of Allston's revolver had been emptied. These cases prove that the street fight is regarded as a sort of duel. The effect of all anti-duelling legislation in the South has been, according to my observation, to increase the number of fights and homicides. Few of the horrible murders which occur among us, and which the *Nation* hears "cast gloom" over our communities, but call forth the declaration that we all feel to be true: "Under the code this would not have happened." It seems that at this time we should concern ourselves only about the question whether we shall have code or codeless duels. In time both will go. Under the code, the judgments of the aggrieved principals were surrendered. The seconds were usually men whose friendship prompted them to save their principals from danger. There was much room for conciliation, and at the worst there was an abundance of precaution, and certainly an entire absence of risk on the part of others.

A gentleman of large experience in such matters recently said that where the code had been carefully followed in the many duels with which he was conversant, there had invariably been amicable adjustments of difficulties. Of course such duels are somewhat silly, but if they are your great peace-makers they should be tolerated. We of the South are not entirely submissive to the law. We have not thoroughly surrendered a portion of our natural rights to society in consideration of having what remains more fully secured. We want to be protected in part by society without giving any consideration. If we had reached that stage when slanderers, seducers, and all that class are, as a matter of course, handed over to society by individuals, and not, as is now the case, handed over to individuals by society, to be punished, strict laws against the private avenger would be well enough.

Until a greater diffusion of knowledge has removed the idea now fixed in our people that without the shedding of blood by individuals there is no satisfaction of a certain class of injuries, it would be well to control the effects of that idea. At present the Legislature virtually says, "You shall not fight your duels as of yore"; the juries say, "You shall not suffer if in a fair fight you kill." The effect is known. It is not generally known that in several Southern cities—for instance, in Savannah, Augusta, and Macon—a board exists consisting of the most influential citizens, whose duty it is to arrange differences. They are men as adverse to unnecessary bloodshed on the one hand as they are "jealous in honor" on the other. They are, in consequence, unobjectionable to the most punctilious. Being sure of their own weight and standing, they exercise freely and on their own motion the powers of arbitrators. Though not formally appointed, they are a real institution, and the community sustains their decisions. Their suggestions are received and their conditions are submitted to because nobody in the community cares to be known as one who resists the counsel of such men, and who obstinately insists upon fighting for its own sake. The attempted abolition of the "code" has made such "boards" a necessity in the South.

E. I. R.

ATLANTA, GA., June 18, 1883.

Notes.

A LUXURIOUS holiday book in preparation by J. B. Lippincott & Co. is Gray's 'Elegy,' with illustrations on wood by the best American artists.

'The Story of Theodore Parker,' by Mrs. Grace A. Oliver, will introduce a series of "The Great and Good," to be published by Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston.

We have received the revised edition for 1883 of 'Appleton's General Guide to the United States and Canada,' a work of approved excellence, very compact, generally free from error, and giving evidence throughout of alterations to date. It is one of the best of its kind.

F. Leypoldt has got out a revised and enlarged edition of Samuel S. Green's little pamphlet on 'Library Aids,' and "hopes that it may form the foundation of a 'Library Annual,' having for chief features a topical record of the more prominent bibliographies, and of the articles and books relating to libraries published during the year."

Doctor Coan's "Topics of the Times," No. 2 (G. P. Putnam's Sons), consists of Studies in Biography, with selected articles on Gambetta, Swift, Miss Burney, Bishop Wilberforce, Lord Westbury, George Sand, and Literary Bohemians. The table of contents now names the magazines from which the articles are taken.

In the *Monthly Reference Lists* for June (F. Leypoldt) the Brooklyn Bridge and Jefferson's Administrations are the topics of biblio graphical guidance. The latter is third in the very valuable series which Mr. Foster is at great pains to prepare for students, with special reference to collateral reading in connection with the "American Statesmen" series. That the most profitable way of reading history is in the lives of those who make it, is a truism, old indeed, but never untimely.

The catalogue of the Phillips Exeter (N. H.) Academy for the hundred years 1783-1883 is, humanly considered, a very interesting document. As one runs through the class-lists from the beginning, great family and individual names meet one at every turn of the leaf. Here are Lewis Cass, in the class of 1792, and Joseph S. Buckminster (1795), Daniel Webster (1797), Joseph G. Coggswell (1801), Edward Everett (1807), W. B. O. Peabody and O. W. B. Peabody (1808), Thomas Bulfinch, John A. Dix, John G. Palfrey, and Jared Sparks (1809), George Bancroft (1811), Richard Hildreth (1816)—four eminent historians in succession; John Langdon Sibley (1819), Samuel Foster Haven (1821)—these, with Doctor Coggswell, make three eminent librarians; Morrill and Jeffries Wyman (1826), Francis Bowen and Benjamin F. Butler (1829). We stop short of the half century, and have omitted not a few who attained distinction in the professions or in politics.

Five columns of the *Athenæum* of June 9, in fine print, are occupied with Baalun-Bartram of the B's proposed for Mr. Leslie Stephen's 'Dictionary of National Biography.' Corrections or additions may be sent to the editor at Smith, Elder & Co.'s, 15 Waterloo Place, London.

In the *American Naturalist* for July Mr. Edwin A. Barber has an interesting paper on "Catlinite: its Antiquity as a Material for Tobacco Pipes." This stone is the product of the famous quarry at Côteau des Prairies, in Minnesota, and, though mostly and preferably red, passes through many shades, even to white. It is found distributed in relics all over the country, and, while obtainable in some other deposits, appears to have been derived by the aborigines exclusively from the source just named. The evidence is in favor of an ancient working of the quarry, going back some centuries.

The latest instalment of the 'Anecdota Oxoniensia' (Mediæval and Modern Series), from the Clarendon Press, consists of the 'Saltair na Rann,' edited by Whitley Stokes from the MS. Rawl. B. 502 in the Bodleian. This Psalter of the Staves (translating the title literally) is a rendering of the Psalms in rhyming (or assonating) quatrains. The language is of the period known as early Middle-Irish, but with many archaisms. Not a few of the pieces treat of themes outside of the Psalter, notably from the fabulous mediæval literature that accumulated around the personages of the Old and New Testament. We could have wished that the editor had allowed himself more space in his preface for the discussion of such points. It would have been well also to indicate the Latin text followed in this Irish psalter, and to compare it with the kindred Anglo-Saxon psalter in Grein. But doubtless Mr. Stokes is saving up for a separate monograph. Meanwhile we get an extremely valuable addition to our store of Irish texts, edited with the scrupulous fidelity for which Mr. Stokes is well known.

It is but a short time since we described the distinguishing features of 'Meyer's Hand-Lexikon,' apropos of the appearance of the first volume of the third edition (B. Westermann & Co.). The second and concluding volume (L-Z) has now reached us, and is, like its predecessor, a model of useful condensation. The political maps are again numerous, and each is accompanied by a reference list of places, for example, Northern, Central, Eastern, South-eastern, and South-western Europe, by States, the United States, the ancient world, the world according to forms of government. There are historical maps for Prussia and Austria-Hungary, and maps of the world's religions and languages. The physical charts show the North Polar regions, ethnography, the ocean currents, isothermal belts, the solar system. Tables of the mineral kingdom, the animal kingdom, of the history of painting and music; of orders (arranged according to the countries which bestow them), of time differences all over the globe, of the chief observatories, of the German meteorological stations, of measures, weights, and coins, in international equivalents, of the world's trade, of the German Imperial army and navy; a chronological survey of the Roman Popes under German Emperors and Kings; the order of business in the Reichstag—these are among the most noticeable general insertions in the text. For the purpose of reference hardly any scheme could be more satisfactory. We will remark again, also, on the typographical neatness and clearness of this *multum in parvo*.

From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we have a number of wall-maps of excellent quality. One is a physical delineation of Asia by Dr. H. Kie-

pert (the third edition), which really embraces also Europe and the whole Mediterranean basin, and, in a side map, shows the main political Asiatic divisions. Elevations are indicated by tinting; the northern limits of the vine and the palm, of barley and tree growth, by colored lines. The scale of this map is 1:8,000,000. Companionable with it are the same cartographer's new wall-map of ancient Palestine in eight sheets (1:200,000); the second revised edition of his public school wall-map, in four sheets, (1:300,000), and the fourth of his hand or pocket-map (1:800,000), of the same country. All these agree in adding the modern European and Turkish names to the ancient, and in showing separately the tribes of Israel and the plan of Jerusalem. In the wall-maps the topographical features are of course more accentuated. The English surveys of the country west of the Jordan have been available in the revision. The fifth and sixth numbers in Richard Kiepert's series of school wall-maps of Europe are devoted to Italy, physical and political, in four sheets (1:1,000,000). It is worth remarking that Tunis, Montenegro, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and *Italia irredenta* are included in these surveys. The lettering in the political map is distinct and well-proportioned.

The Pedestal Loan Exhibition in behalf of the Bartholdi monument in New York Harbor will, the Committee announce, be held in the Academy of Design during the month of December.

The thirty-second meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held at Minneapolis, August 15–21. Principal Dawson will call the Association to order and resign the chair to the President-elect, Prof. C. A. Young, of Princeton. The headquarters of the Association will be at the State University; of the Permanent Secretary, at the Nicollet House. The Local Secretary is Prof. N. H. Winchell.

—The *Century* for July has contents of a very varied interest. Mr. E. V. Smalley, who is, on the whole, the most successful producer of the typical illustrated magazine article of "contemporaneous human interest" now writing, has a description of the petroleum industry ("Striking Oil") which we have found very pleasant reading. He makes very intelligible the causes of the extraordinary periodical excitements in the oil market, differing as they do in some respects from other speculative excitements. Put in the fewest words, the secret of the wild fluctuations in oil is the fact that no human being knows how long the supply of oil will last, nor whether it may not disappear some fine day altogether, nor whether it may not double over night from the discovery of new fields, in search of which the "wild-catters" are continually prospecting in every direction. This was what was supposed to have happened in the excitement over the Cherry Grove well last year, which began with 4,000 barrels a day, caused a "shrinkage" to the extent of $30,000,000 in oil, sent crude petroleum down from eighty-five to forty-nine cents, and a few months later "petered out." This well, while it was being sunk, was the scene of a curious struggle between the "wild-catters" who were at work upon it and the petroleum "bears." The bears, of course, wanted to get early advices as to the yield, so as either to sell heavily for a fall, or to avoid doing anything of the kind. The wild-catters, for similar reasons, wanted to keep the knowledge to themselves, and, knowing that only strong measures would keep bears at a distance, they guarded the well against them by discharging their pieces at random into the woods on all sides, as a warning to any bears that might be trying to come too close. Notwithstanding these precautions, an enterprising young bear managed to creep up through the bushes and secrete himself under the floor of the derrick, and, lying there, discovered that the well was yielding oil. This news he carried to his brother bears in the busy marts of commerce, and it is to be hoped was well paid for his trouble. Mr. James Herbert Morse has a second instalment of his "Native Element in American Fiction," relating to the novelists who have appeared since the war, in which he asks, apparently in reference to Howells and James—a nice pair of Americans they must be, if what Mr. Morse says is correct—"Is the new novelist to take his stand with the healthy livers or with the dyspeptic?" This seems a strange question to ask. Does not Mr. Morse know that dyspepsia is a trait of the critic, not the novelist? But we will spare our readers the painful revelations that Mr. Morse makes as to the behavior of Howells and James in literature, out of respect for the feelings of the editor of the *Century*, who, we observe, allows both of these shameless enemies of their country to write in it—Mr. James, this time, on Trollope. It is a good article, too—for when he is not defaming his country, Mr. James writes well—though to our mind he rather exaggerates Mr. Trollope's power of producing real human characters. Certainly, in his later books, his people's conversations, though good in substance, are marked by a uniformity of style which often destroys all illusion as to individuality. Then, too, Mr. James hardly dwells enough on his story-telling, narrative power. This Trollope certainly had to an extraordinary degree, notwithstanding his disregard of form.

—In his letter last week "L." gave some excellent reasons which should discourage any young man from becoming a writer. We hope his counsels will be heard, and that a diminution of the supply will lead to an enhancement of the price. As possibly tending to that end we add some fresh disadvantages of the literary profession lately discovered in France. When a minister decorates an author, he excites the enmity of all the authors whom he does not decorate; when he decorates a painter or a comedian, he gains the good will of all the amateurs who like the painter, of all the dealers and collectors who own his pictures, and of all the journalists and the audiences who applaud the actor. The natural result is that the practice of giving the ribbon of the Légion to painters and actors has increased, and that it is very rarely given now to men of letters. Perhaps this is not very applicable to this country, where we do not give ribbons to anybody, and where, too, the successful author enjoys full as much consideration as the successful actor or artist. But in France literature formerly certainly stood higher than art or the stage, and if there it is really at any disadvantage, now, the fact indicates a change which may come to pass also in our own country, for such ways of looking at things are apt to spread from country to country in this age of internationality.

—So important a book from the sceptical side as Renan's 'Souvenirs' was not to be passed over in silence by the *Revue Critique*. M. Duchesne, whose travesty of the preface to 'Ecclesiastes' we have mentioned, indulges in two or three pages of raillery at the autobiography, in which he represents Renan as having given himself a sort of lay canonization, and as recording the qualities which have justified the admiration of his followers in a book that might be termed the 'Acta Sancti Renani.' One remark is not without force. M. Duchesne had been explaining that there are no miracles in these Acta, because anti-clerical saints, of course, do not perform miracles, nor even believe in those which their ecclesiastical brothers are asserted to have worked. They go further, and regard the belief in the resurrection of Christ as a hallucination, and explain the conversion of St. Paul by a sunstroke, "without reflecting that, turning their own 'scientific' method against them, we might demand that they should repeat the experiment, and see if the dreams of a visionary will persuade twelve French peasants to leave their property behind and found a religious society, or that they should submit M. Paul Bert to the sun's rays long enough to make him join the Jesuits." As an argument, this, of course, does not amount to much, for the scientist would reply that, to repeat an experiment with the same result, you must repeat all the conditions; but as a bit of badinage it is worth anything in Mallock's 'Is Life Worth Living?'

—One of the leading ideas of the new school of political science is, that in sociology as in geology nothing is done *per saltum*, that the new is always the old a little modified, and that the reformer who pronounces his reform a complete change pronounces it a failure. An example of this permanence has been lately given by the *Parti Ouvrier*. The French workman is no friend of the *Dimanche*. He has protested against the law forbidding work on that day. And yet in their official *Programme électoral*—their platform, as we say—the first article of the third part, the *Programme économique*, is: Repose for one day in each week, or legal interdiction to employers to keep their laborers at work more than six days in seven. Not one day in ten, as some one proposed in the last generation—the magic number seven retains its power; it is enough if the day of rest is some other than Sunday. The second part, or *Programme politique*, is more radical: "Suppression of all state support of religion (*le budget des cultes*); suppression of the legal inferiority of woman to man; suppression of the public debt." The latter suppression is, of course, not to be made in the way in which the United States is doing it, for the French workman is as bitter against bloated bondholders as the American demagogue, and he would be content with nothing less than complete repudiation.

—For some time the engravings of Rembrandt have brought higher prices than those of any other artist. Till recently no plate had ever brought more than the 29,500 francs which M. Dutuit paid for the "Hundred-Guilders" piece (from Sir Charles Price's collection); but last May Rembrandt, to use a sporting phrase, beat his own record. At the sale of Mr. Griffiths's prints, at Sotheby's auction-rooms, in London, the portrait of "The Advocate Tolling," or "Petrus van Toll," excited a contest as lively as the famous one for the Valdarfer Boccaccio. It was in the first state, of which only three other copies are known (and they are beyond the reach of purchasers), in the national print-rooms at Amsterdam, Paris, and London. The previous engraving had gone for £33, but this was started at £500. Various persons joined in the contest at different periods, but the print was finally adjudged to M. Clément, a printseller of Paris, at £1,510 (37,750 francs). He was thought at first to be acting for M. Dutuit, who would then have owned the two costliest Rembrandts; but it has since been announced that the fortunate purchaser was Baron von Rothschild. Some other prices were not bad. A second state of "The Burgomaster Six" reached £505, and a "rich impression" of the "Hundred-Guilders" piece went for £305. Some fine Marc-Antonios brought very moderate prices, from £13 to £61. At some future day these may be bringing their small fortunes to their lucky possessors, as was the case with a battle piece of Du Hameel, sold

for £371, with an old price-mark of £15 15s. on the back.

—Those who wish to study the supernatural and the miraculous element in folk-lore, in its quaintest and most fanciful shape, we recommend to lay aside the 'Arabian Nights' and take up a collection of tales, legends, and popular poetry of the Southern Slavic nations scattered all the way from Istria and Dalmatia to the plains of Southern Hungary. We do not find in these stories the contemplative spirit prevailing in German folk-lore, in which the quiet, truly poetical talent of the rhapsodist never seems to hurry to a conclusion. The legendary tale of the Southern Slav is all passion, fire, and excitement; an ancestral garb seems to be assumed only to picture men and women of our own times, as they act now before our eyes. The purpose of these fictions is to show the impassioned, moral or immoral, side of human life. Animal stories, which monopolize almost entirely the folk-lore of the ruder nations, as that of the South African and of the American races, are not more frequent here than purely human tales; and when an animal speaks, it is as the personification of some human trait. Several collections containing the popular stories of these Slavs have been made public, but failed to attract from Europeans the attention which they deserve on account of their poetic qualities. These collections were reduced to writing in the original Slavic dialects; but the author of the latest of them, Dr. Friedrich S. Krauss, has published one hundred and nine tales and legends in an attractive, though colloquial, German style, well adapted to popularize this branch of literature. Born at Pleternicza in the Austrian province of Slavonia, Krauss had an efficient tutor in his illiterate mother, who from his infancy recounted to him all the numerous legends, tales, and ditties she was acquainted with. On account of her strange familiarity with spirit and hobgoblin stories she passed for a witch throughout the neighborhood. When Krauss had settled as a teacher in the Austrian capital, he began to compose his charming 'Sagen und Märchen der Südslaven' (Leipzig: W. Friedrich), the majority of which had never seen the light before. The transcendental power or *deus ex machinâ*, interfering miraculously with men's affairs, is here the fairy-queen or Vila ("elf"), another fairy called Vilenik ("elf's companion"), and Bendeš Vila ("the chained one"). Krauss prefaces his elegant volume with a literary sketch adapted both for the popular mind and to satisfy the curiosity of the learned, in which he points out his authorities, as Valjavec, Vuk Stefanovic Karadzič, Stojanovićs, etc., and gives a general introduction to this class of studies. This is but the first volume of a larger collection, which will be forthcoming if the author is encouraged by ready sales, and which will serve a special purpose in pointing out the connection traceable between the folk-lore of the Southern Slavs and that of the other Indo-European nationalities.

—Mr. Alexander Meletopoulos, a prominent collector of antiquities in Athens, who published last year the important inscription containing the specifications of construction of the Arsenal of Philon, announces to the Parnassos Society the probable existence, within easy reach of recovery, of an ancient bronze equestrian statue of large size. Four years ago some Aiginetan sponge-fishers discovered near the shore of Delos, not far from the site of the temple of Apollo, at a depth of five metres, the colossal figure of a horse in bronze, covered with shell-fish. They succeeded with much labor in detaching one of the feet of the horse, which they sold to Mr. Meletopoulos. From the workmanship of this foot, its owner believes that the statue to which it belongs is a fine work of the Hellenic period—probably a votive offering of some distinguished person, set up in the sacred precinct of the temple. Mr. Meletopoulos at once reported his acquisition to the Direction of Antiquities in Athens, and invited the authorities to profit by so good an opportunity to obtain an important acquisition for the National Museum, which has as yet but a scanty collection of bronzes. He also offered to present to the museum, upon the recovery of the statue, the foot in his possession. The Government has, however, done nothing, and Mr. Meletopoulos now calls upon the Parnassos Society to take steps to cause this interesting monument to be raised and brought to Athens.

—A Moscow correspondent of the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* recently sketched the condition and tendencies of the political press of the two Russian capitals as follows: The leading liberal journals—the *Golos* (*Voice*), *Strana* (*Country*), and *Molva* (*Report*) of St. Petersburg, and the *Poryadok* (*Order*) and *Telegraf* of Moscow—were all either entirely suppressed or suspended for a number of months. The *Golos*, suspended for six months, was expected to receive pardon at the coronation, just as the *Russki Kuryer* of Moscow had received it. The latter journal, however, which was formerly very outspoken, has been awed by repeated persecutions into strict reserve. Only Katkoff's *Moskovskiya Viedomosti* (*Moscow News*) and Aksakoff's *Rus'* (*Russia*) are allowed to speak their minds, both being Slavophils and ardently monarchical, though at present otherwise widely divergent in their tendencies. Aksakoff advocates the extension of provincial autonomy and the unshackling of the press; Katkoff demands of the Government nothing but energetic action and strenuous repression. Prince Meshtcherski's St. Petersburg *Grazhdanin* (*Citizen*), which is fully in accord with the ultra-conservatism of the intimate advisers of the present Czar, Count Tolstoi, and Pobiedonostzeff, applauds Katkoff, and fiercely inveighs against Aksakoff, whose occasional liberal indiscretions are denounced as atrociously disloyal. Meshtcherski's organ is also in constant feud with the St. Petersburg *Novoye Vremya* (*New Age*), a newspaper without principle or steady tendency, inclined to go with the powers that be behind the throne, and, before his fall, the organ of Count Ignatieff. This journal, however, devotes its chief attention to foreign affairs, which none of the liberal papers does, engrossed as the few surviving are with the momentous problems agitating the inner life of the Empire, though compelled to treat them with extraordinary caution and reserve. The general sympathy, in foreign questions, is with France, the United States, and on occasion with England, while Katkoff now exceptionally coquets with Germany, receiving in reward the applause of Bismarck's semi-official organs. Austria-Hungary has no friend in the Russian press, and to the Panslavist Aksakoff that Empire has not ceased to be the *Carthago delenda*. Neither has his nor Katkoff's hostility to the Polish nationality cooled off. Russian chauvinism, however, is at present at a discount, and nobody dares to blow the trumpet of war.

SIDGWICK'S POLITICAL ECONOMY.

The Principles of Political Economy. By Henry Sidgwick, author of 'The Methods of Ethics.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1883.

By the publication of 'The Methods of Ethics' Professor Sidgwick made sure of a respectful hearing whenever he should choose to make known his views on any subject, but there are several reasons why the importance of the present work is less than that of the former one. In the first place the audience addressed is far more limited. To say nothing of other classes, the clergy at least must have some acquaintance with ethical systems; but it is thought less indispensable that legislators, and still less that ordinary citizens, should have much acquaintance with political economy. Not many persons in this country have read even the principal works referred to by our author, and to those who have not, this book would be of doubtful value. For, in the second place, Professor Sidgwick is nothing if not critical. His mental attitude we can liken only to that of a judge in charging a jury. His discussion is addressed to those who have heard the evidence and listened to the arguments, and is on that account unsuited and even misleading to those who are familiar with neither. For, as he says, it is not truth itself, but the search for truth, with which he is concerned. Other economists commonly "underrate the importance of *seeking* for the best definition of each cardinal term, and they overrate the importance of *finding* it." He considers that the true method of investigating relations of fact—where the organs of sense are unavailable—is to reflect upon our use of common terms; the effect upon superficial readers, however, being to make the whole discussion appear to be about words alone. Moreover, the constant and extreme care with which exceptions and qualifications are noted puts a strain upon the attention greater than most readers are capable of enduring. There are so many "senses before explained" requiring to be held in mind and clearly distinguished, that one walks in dread as of

> "Seventeen distinct damnations,
> One sure if the other fails."

Nor will the wayfaring man find that he is aided by illustrations. Professor Sidgwick seldom descends to particulars; his examples are few, and almost invariably expressed in general terms. His method results in such a mass of subtle reasonings and refined distinctions that most men, to whom concrete illustration is as their daily bread, would consider it proportioned to "an intolerable deal of sack." Nor is he always fortunate when he does refer to "facts"; as when he speaks of "the great coal companies of New England," although he is only partly responsible for this slip. So in one of the few cases in which he positively recommends a particular measure of legislation—that bankrupts should be deprived of all political franchises—the proposal would seem, to Americans at least, wildly impracticable.

It may be said that much of this criticism would apply as well to 'The Methods of Ethics'; but there is a difference in the mode of treatment of the subjects. In that work the author stood, as it were, in a place where three ways met, and warned coming travellers of the various sloughs and pitfalls into which those who had gone before had fallen; but he also pointed out to them the only true path. It cannot be denied that the present work contains warnings of like character, but they do not seem to us so instructive, nor do we consider that the methods of political economy have been so clearly defined. The third division of this treatise, the Art of Political Economy, suggestive and careful as it is, fails to satisfy the needs of our society at least, for reasons that we cannot take the space to explain, but which we can indicate by saying that the doctrine of natural liberty is inadequately apprehended. It is true that this is because it has been inadequately presented by its defenders; but we are disposed to exact of Professor Sidgwick, in most cases, stronger statements of his adversaries' positions than they have themselves given. In this case he inclines

to assign to government the function of redressing inequalities of distribution by means of productive enterprises; whereas we conceive its proper function to be so to regulate the fundamental laws of property as to restrict monopoly, and thereby enable just distribution to be obtained by individual effort. Our civilization is certainly disgraced by the tyranny of monopolies, but we consider their regulation to be within the power of our citizens; and certainly no one who is acquainted with the secret history of our public works can contemplate without a shudder the possibility of our politicians engaging in business with the public funds.

But perhaps we have adopted an unfair standard of criticism, for Professor Sidgwick does not lay claim to originality. His book is based upon that of Mill, which it will not supersede, but to which it will be an indispensable commentary. Its aim, as stated by the author, is to do to a certain extent for political economy what we consider his former work to have done for ethics. A small number of vivacious writers have recently assailed several of the established doctrines of the orthodox school with what they persuaded the world was great success. Our author undertakes to clear away the ruins, so far as there are any, and to show that the main structure of the science is substantially unimpaired. We note as especially satisfactory his statement of the population theory and the law of diminishing returns, his chapter on money; and as especially suggestive, the discussion of *laissez-faire* and the moral influences of the science. The treatment of the theory of rent seems to us defective in two respects: in neglecting to consider the rent of lands in towns—when it brings thirteen millions an acre it is worth the attention of philosophers—and to investigate the relation of rents to the fluctuations of wages and profits. It is the great problem of the science to determine whether the landlord, the employer, or the laborer will yield in particular circumstances. This brings us to what we regard as the most serious error in the book, the view taken of the wages fund.

Professor Sidgwick maintains that wages are not normally paid out of capital at all; that they are not "advanced" by the employer to the laborer. The employer, he says, purchases the result of a week's labor, and gives in return some of the finished product of the laborer's industry. This view seems to us to overlook entirely the fact that the wages—*i. e.*, the real support of the laborer—must exist in the possession or under the control of the employer before the work is begun. Otherwise there is nothing to hinder the laborer from hiring his master—leaving fixed capital out of view—and paying him his wages out of what he earns. In one passage (p. 379) this seems to be admitted, but only incidentally. Time is the all-important element, for the laborer must be supported by the employer until the result of the labor becomes available. General Walker, indeed, informs us of cases where farmers have not paid their laborers until the end of the year. To the question, What did the laborers live on during that time? he replies, if we remember correctly, Oh! they lived upon credit. But this argument, for obvious reasons, fails to be convincing. We think nothing but confusion can result from any theory concerning wages that disregards the fundamental fact that the labor of any given season is paid for out of the products of the preceding season; and we consider that such part of these products as at the beginning of the given season is set apart for the payment of laborers is properly denominated the wages fund. It is with reluctance that we differ from Professor Sidgwick, but we cannot reconcile his theory with the facts of the case.

The chapter on protection is unexceptionable in logic, but we fear that the American advocates of the doctrine, should they discover it, would wrest some of its texts to their own destruction. It is no doubt conceivable that the wealth of a nation may be increased by levying taxes for the support of industries that cannot support themselves. But the conditions that must be supposed (as on p. 487) are so different from those that actually prevail, that the argument seems to have a purely speculative interest. It is in the nature of our government impossible that a bounty should be imposed upon only one industry; the sentiment that would support it would demand a system of bounties, and where the attempt is made to bestow these through a tariff, the resulting interferences with industry are absolutely incalculable. It appears from Professor Sidgwick's method of discussion that he has not considered the complexity of the results of governmental interference, and we think this also appears from his remark that there is no evidence that either the ingenuity or the enterprise of manufacturers in the United States has been impaired by protection. A notable instance to the contrary, cited in Cairnes's 'Leading Principles,' seems to have escaped his attention. There is, however, an element of truth in the observation; for to many of our manufactures protective duties have been a severe burden by raising the cost of the necessary materials and machinery, and only ingenuity and enterprise have saved them from ruin. But to a very few these duties have really had the effect of bounties. We should hardly venture to assert this of any great industry except the manufacture of pig iron; and there is no more conspicuous instance of the absence of both the qualities referred to. It is but a few weeks since even the New York *Tribune* felt constrained to denounce the folly of the Lehigh furnace men in not adapting their methods to the wants of trade, and an inspection of some of the greatest of these works will convince any one that, for whatever reason, they are in a very backward condition.

But these are only minor imperfections in a great book. There is no economist who will not learn much from it, and few who will be disposed to lay before the public their views upon any of the topics of which it treats without having first consulted its pages. We have given reasons why it will not interest a large number of readers, but they are reasons why it will be of greater value to a few, and through these its influence will be widespread. The sustained dignity and sweetness of the style cannot fail to impress every reader.

RECENT NOVELS.

Through One Administration. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1883.

The Scarborough Family. A Novel. By Anthony Trollope. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Hot Plowshares. By Albion W. Tourgée. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

The Priest and the Man; or, Abelard and Heloisa. A Novel. Boston: Cupples, Upham & Co.

In the Olden Time. By the Author of 'Noblesse Oblige.' [Leisure Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co.

Mongrels. By T. Wilton. Harpers.

Like Ships upon the Sea. By Frances Eleanor Trollope. Harper's Franklin Square Library.

Doctor Claudius. By F. Marion Crawford. New York: Macmillan & Co.

Mr. Jacobs. A Tale of the Drummer, the Reporter, and the Prestidigitateur. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth.

The Led-Horse Claim. A Romance of a Mining Camp. By Mary Hallock Foote. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.

'THROUGH One Administration' is such a very American novel that it is hard to explain the fact that it has caused little or no discussion as to whether it presents a true picture of American life. The scene of its action is laid in Washington, the characters are all American, and the relations established between the heroine and the various men in the story are such as it would hardly be possible to imagine existing in any other country. It contains, moreover, a picture of society at the national capital which, in its broad general features, is at least as true to nature as that contained in 'Democracy.'

It resembles most novels of the day in being largely devoted to analysis and introspection; the action is slow, and it all ends with the kind of climax that is now most in fashion—that which avoids a pathetic death-scene, or an act of retributive justice, or any of the regular pieces of terminal business such as writers of novels of incident used to resort to. It ends much as Howells would end one of his stories, though with a dash of pathetic retrospection which he perhaps would not allow himself. The last words of the story are, "Bertha went into the room and closed the door." We have, however, been just reminded that this was the very same door that Philip Tredennis "had seen open the first night when he had looked in, and had seen Bertha sitting in her nursery-chair with her child on her breast." Bertha, like Charlotte in Thackeray's version of Werther, was a married woman, and a good one, though surrounded by temptations, and put to very base political uses by her good-for-nothing husband Richard, in the interest of the great Westoria land scheme. He in fact uses her attractions to bring over certain politicians of influence, and we feel bound to say that it gives us a far higher notion of the purity of the capital than we had before to know that the scheme failed. Any woman with the charms of Mrs. Amory who plays Mrs. Amory's part, however unconsciously, would in most cases, we fear, insure her friends' success.

At another point, the curious relations established between Mrs. Amory and the good Tredennis, the novel also presents a very pleasing picture of the effect of the absence of social restraint upon the morality of American life. Richard, the husband, on several occasions makes Mrs. Amory over to Tredennis, who takes care of her like a mother, notwithstanding the fact that he and she are in love with each other, and ought, by rights, to have married each other in the first place. In a French novel such a situation would be simply regarded as absurd; in an English novel, in a moment of supreme passion, the pair would run away, filled with guilty regrets, no doubt, but unable, in the weakness of human nature, to resist the temptation. But nothing of the kind happens in this novel at all, though there are scenes between Philip and Bertha which make the reader feel very doubtful as to what can be the upshot of it all, and even fearful that Mrs. Burnett may be going to tell him a naughty story. There is really nothing, however, that is not improving in 'Through One Administration.'

The only fault that we have to find with it is that it is a woman's rather than a man's book. Mrs. Burnett's analysis of Bertha's psychological history may be perfectly correct; but her men's conversation, she must permit us to say, is not true to nature. It has one fatal defect: she

makes the men talk about the woman in whom they are interested in the same unreserved way that women do about a man in whom they have a common interest. The analytic conversation of women about a man is always searching, and their interest in him only serves to make them less reserved to one another in discussing him; but, for some reason, there is no subject that two men are less likely to spend an evening of conversation over than a woman in whom both are interested. The fact of the interest usually takes away the male power of conversation. It might be better if it were otherwise, but it cannot be changed. A good deal of the men's talk in 'Through One Administration' is about Bertha, and they talk about her, not with the suspicion and reserve of men, but with a frankness and interest in each other's views that are deliciously feminine. The book is well worth reading, as all of Mrs. Burnett's are; but chiefly by women. Men, we fear, will find it too long. As a social study it presents many curious features, and perhaps the only reason why it is not already attracting more attention as a fresh specimen of the American novel, is that we have not yet got the news of the way it is looked at in England.

Mr. Trollope's posthumous novel is in some respects very like a great many others of his stories. It is a picture of English life taken in his usual photographic way; it opens well, drags through the middle, and gets better again at the close. It concerns the fortunes of an English country family, but has a dash of low life for comedy, some fox-hunting, a love-affair in which the lady's family raise fruitless objections, and so on. It opens with a situation out of which any novelist but Mr. Trollope would have made a thrilling romance. The hero, who is the rival of young Captain Scarborough, meets that gallant officer at two o'clock in the morning in the streets of London, is assaulted by him, knocks him down, and leaves him. The Captain then disappears from human sight altogether, and his adversary very unwisely conceals the fact of the encounter, and rapidly gets himself suspected of knowing more than he is willing to tell. A romantic novelist could hardly have failed, under circumstances like these, to have the young man arrested for murder, tried for his life, sentenced to be hung, and saved at the last moment owing to the unexpected reappearance of his supposed victim. But Mr. Trollope is above all things a moderate man. He holds his hand from any such iniquities as these, and merely lets the young man first get into a great deal of commonplace trouble, and then get out again.

The central figure of the book, however, is not the hero, but old Mr. Scarborough, who is a terrible rascal, judged by ordinary standards, but who, notwithstanding his defiance and violation of all law, human and divine, gains the reader's regard, partly perhaps because, in Mr. Trollope's commonplace world, he is a very uncommonplace man. In the first place his eldest son, the Captain, at heart an amiable man, goes to the devil through gambling, and, having made away with all his means, has recourse to the Jews and *post-obits*. By this means he first raises and then squanders a large fortune. His father, making up his mind that such proceedings mean the ruin not only of himself but of the entire Scarborough property, resolves to cheat the Jews by declaring that his eldest son is illegitimate, and that consequently the paper they have taken from him is worthless. To do this he submits to his family lawyer a set of documents showing that he married his wife (since dead) after the birth of the Captain. These documents seem to be all right. He and his second son, Augustus, now promoted to the position of heir apparent, then propose to the Jews that if they will take the money actually advanced by them in full discharge of all their claims, without regard to interest, or to the face of their bonds, it shall be paid them; otherwise they will get nothing. This they reluctantly do. Meanwhile, however, Augustus has turned out a very poor and ungrateful substitute as a son for the spendthrift Captain, and his father is heartily sick of him. So in the end the worthy though lawless old man declares that his first story was all a lie, restores the Captain to his proper position, "bounces" Augustus, and dies, triumphing, much to the horror of the good family lawyer, over the laws of England. All this Mr. Trollope has great difficulty in making seem probable; but interesting it certainly is.

In reading this last of his long series of successful novels, in the light of the admitted fact that they represent English life more clearly than the works of any novelist of our day, we have been reminded of one striking feature of English life as he describes it, which in the criticisms brought out by his death was not dwelt on as much as it deserves to be. We refer to the extraordinarily strong, coarse flavor of money that pervades them. In most American novels, as in American life of our day, money is generally avoided, or looked at and spoken of askance, as if there were something belittling about appearing to think too much about it. In Trollope's novels, the action of the book generally revolves in some way about a question of pounds, shillings, and pence. Whether a man may marry the woman he loves, whether a youngster shall go into a profession or emigrate, whether a son shall honor or despise his father—all questions, practical or sentimental, become a simple matter of money, until in the end the reader gets an impression of English society as a country pervaded not merely by a commercial, but by a positively sordid tone. How much of this is due to England and how much to Mr. Trollope, we must leave others to determine; but as to the fact we think we can hardly be mistaken, for we never lay down one of his novels without regretting that in so rich a country as England it should always seem as if there were rather too little money to "go round" comfortably, and easily, and expansively.

'Hot Plowshares' is the last of the series of which 'The Fool's Errand' was the first to appear. Chronologically it is the earliest of all the stories, covering the period from the election of President Taylor to the outbreak of the war in '61. According to the preface, "it is designed to give a review of the anti-slavery struggle, by tracing its growth and the influence of the sentiment upon contrasted characters." The book is too long and too diffuse for any vivid effect. Eight didactic chapters, each of which would make a heavy "leader," are too much for one novel. The interest is divided between loosely connected incidents, of many of which it may be said, that if true, they are *too true* for a novel. Whether this remark can include the one hundred and fifty pages (one-quarter of the book) devoted to an account of an attempt to kidnap a young girl in rural New England, is doubtful. Nothing short of the evidence of one's own senses would make the story as told credible to anybody. Human nature is so constituted that it will willingly accept a great deal of the terrible, the horrible; but the point where it will refuse to believe in the preposterous is very soon reached.

If the book were more important, the fairness of some of the statements about even Northern affairs would doubtless be impugned. This we pass, except to notice what recurs not unfrequently elsewhere, that opinions held on both sides thirty years ago are judged as if their holders had all the light of experience which we have to-day, with no allowance whatever for the marvellous changes of a purely physical sort, the increase of wealth, the rapidity and ease of intercommunication, etc., which have taken place since 1850.

That some things are too true for a novel—that is, too true to themselves, and too much at variance with the common experience of mankind to become the subjects of fiction—may be affirmed, upon a higher plane, of the story which has been worked out in 'The Priest and the Man.' The letters of Abelard and Heloisa make one of what have been called the "only" books that have no parallels. Nothing can add to them, nothing take from them. The scholar already knows them at first hand. The reader of belles-lettres gets the story from the French essayists or from the drama of M. de Rémusat. The only justification for choosing it as the subject of a novel would be the possession of such power of dramatic presentation as should make the dead live again—a power, for instance, like that by which Scott made Claverhouse a present reality whether to friend or foe. There is even greater difficulty in reproducing a world so remote as the scholastic world of the twelfth century. Not Scott himself could have made that intelligible to one in a thousand of novel readers. The author of the book before us has gathered much geographical and historical detail, but that makes brilliant essay writing, not the picture of life. As to the love-story itself, no eloquence of imagination can equal the simple tale of the calamities of Abelard and Heloisa as they have told it themselves. The attempt to reproduce it has, it seems to us, coarsened and degraded the whole story, not altogether from the fault of the writer, but from the necessities of the case—the difficulty of presenting it in any form to be comprehended by modern superficial thought.

'In the Olden Time' is a chronicle story rather than a novel, but it deserves a place not far below the 'Schönberg-Cotta Family' and 'The Dove in the Eagle's Nest,' as an illustration of some of the aspects of society in the later Middle Ages. The author is hardly equal to the working up of striking situations, but she has gathered a succession of varied incidents such as a troublous time like the Peasants' War supplies indefinitely.

'Mongrels' would have done credit to a more attractive title, having which it would have been surer to make its way into holiday satchels. It, as well as 'Like Ships upon the Sea,' to which the same praise may be accorded, has a tragic incident, but deals mainly with commonplace people, though the latter sets off very well English commonplace against Italian or rather Roman types, which, if exceptional from English standpoints, are ordinary enough in so mixed a world as Rome. It is something to say of both books, that nobody has any money to speak of. The burden of riches, the ostentation of wealth, the hard brutal force of it in the second-class novel, just now are repulsive.

Beyond question 'Doctor Claudius' is next of kin to 'Mr. Isaacs.' A *Privat-docent* at Heidelberg who "wears twice-mended shoes," and has in his letter-box "a string of pearls" lying loose with eight or ten thousand pounds—a man who by way of joke caps the mast with a Scotch bonnet, as "it sways far out of the water with the motion of the yacht," or who, quite unknown, just steps over to Saint Petersburg and, merely by asking the Czar, rescues the fortune which his lady has lost through a suspicion of Nihilistic proclivities on the part of her brother-in-law—surely no one could do the like of that but "Mr. Isaacs." Need we add his coming in for a mil-

lion odd from a New York uncle at one end of the book, and a grand title from one in Norway at the other? He keeps the finest company we have known since the days of 'Lothair' and 'Endymion'—a Duke of superlative grandeur; a Countess "whose hair is as the thickness of the night spun fine," and a New Yorker who cannot fail to be recognized, for he is "a priest of Buddha" and wears diamonds and "a priceless sapphire." "He is the only man of his time who can wear precious stones without vulgarity." Seriously, there seems to be some reason for inquiry into the reason of the success which 'Mr. Isaacs' attained, if numbers are to be trusted. It lies in the surface cleverness, the cheap splendor, which entertains for a moment, which dazzles as it passes. 'Doctor Claudius' is made up in the same way. Let any one count, for instance, the number of times that the heroine is called "the dark lady" or we are told that her eyes and her hair are dark. Mark how many catch phrases there are, like *quand même*, *foi de gentilhomme*, or stock quotations or allusions—"the strength of ten," "eternal womanhood guiding me onward," etc., etc. To these add the use and misuse of Scripture phrase, and the sources of most of the fine sound of the book will be apparent. What doubters call vague incoherency, extravagant fantasy, may be (in the eyes of admirers) largeness of view and unfettered imagination; but these are not the days of Haroun-al-Raschid. Imagination without the basis of observation, the correction of experience, is futile in our time.

One specimen of the style will do the book no injustice. "The screw below them rushed round, worming its angry way through the long quiet waves," may not be grandiloquent; but does Mr. Crawford parody himself when he, a little after, describes Mr. Screw the lawyer, "relentless as a steel cork-screw, crushing its way through the creaking cork"? The speech of the men has a kind of school-boy coarseness, but the pungent, sparkling wit which bright men throw into the *argot* of the smoking-room and other masculine haunts, is utterly wanting; yet Mr. Crawford's men, by his own showing, are nothing if they are not bright. "Vulgar" is an epithet easily bandied about in these days, and one hesitates to apply it to the tone of a book. Yet it might be that, after a short-lived popularity, these books would be classed as specimens of the brummagem in literature.

'Mr. Jacobs' is a vivacious little sketch far more successful than the elaborate affair in *Life*. The world will laugh over it, while the author of 'Mr. Isaacs' will probably console himself with the thought that it is something to have arrived at the dignity of caricature.

'The Led-Horse Claim' has the striking merit of a very distinct purpose, so far as literary form goes, and of keeping very closely to that purpose. It may be only the unconscious fidelity to experience which gives the story so purely and simply from the woman's point of view, but the merit is none the less. Picturesque and graceful description is likely to be a woman's forte, but the fine balance which keeps Mrs. Foote's eye and hand true is a rare power. Not even the sharp contrasts, the swift tragedy of the wild mining-life tempt her to venture imagination, but so much the more powerful is her picture of the women waiting at home. It seems something more than a chance coincidence, that the return to the older life in the East appears now in more than one novel. Whereas once there was only the escape from it to the more brilliant possibility of the West, now more than one comes back in story to the old home, and finds a friendly light in the sky, a content in the hills, a sense of refuge in what was once a hated narrowness. All the years from Plymouth Rock to the Golden Gate are embodied in the home of the "Led-Horse Gulch" and the home at "Little Rest" on the New England hillside. It is hard to say which picture is the better; but by way of minor figures, one must go far to seek even in a novel a more gracious pair than the two boys, half-brothers of the hero. They are most slightly sketched, but one-half the readers will flatter themselves that they were once such boys, and the other half will *know* that they have at some time loved and watched over their like.

"When the afternoon sunlight gilded the tree-stems and dappled the warm slopes of the wood, they were always at large, making the rounds of their favorite haunts. . . . Divers and many were their errands, but none of so pressing a nature that time was wanting for wrestling together in beds of fallen leaves, or flinging surreptitious armfuls of them over each other, or pausing on the top rail of a fence that crossed a hill, to wake the silent landscape with a shrill hoot or whistle."

HARE'S SOUTHERN ITALY.

Cities of Southern Italy and Sicily. By Augustus J. C. Hare. George Routledge & Sons. 1 vol. 8vo.

MR. HARE is well known as the author of 'Walks in Rome,' 'Walks in London,' 'The Life and Letters of Frances, Baroness Bunsen,' etc., in all of which works he has been the editor rather than the author, being indebted to the scissors more than to the pen. The present volume belongs to the same class. It purports to be an historical, archæological, classical, and practical guide-book to southern Italy and Sicily; but the historical part is condensed from encyclopædias, the archæological and classical from previous narratives and guide-books, with quotations derived all the way down from the oldest Greek poets to the latest tourist; the practical is his own personal experience. This last is the poorest part of the book, being biassed by the author's English prejudices and superficial knowledge of the manners and customs of the people, whom he judges from what he has read in guide-books long out of date.

The introductory chapter is composed of quotations from Mme. de Staël, Stamer, Martial, Pliny, Virgil, Sannazzaro, Swinburne, Horace, Juvenal, Fergusson, etc.; but in the last paragraph, which is the author's own, in referring to the scarcity of manufactories in southern Italy, he mentions only the few which existed there fifty years ago, and which he had found mentioned in some old guide-book. As the author travels from one town to another, he refers to their archæology, quotes classical passages of ancient writers, relates absurd and silly legends connected with them; but of the people of to-day, their progress and improvements, not a single word, if we except a tiresome growl against the hackmen's extortions or beggars' solicitations for alms—as if only hackmen and beggars existed in southern Italy. His description of Naples is a random collection of historical facts, interspersed with the most narrow-minded criticisms of modern improvements. He states that "since the change of government and the enormous increase of taxation, poverty has greatly increased." Had Mr. Hare looked into the present statistics of Italy, the parliamentary reports, the modern scientific publications, he might have learned something very different about the poverty of Naples or southern Italy. The late resumption of specie payments is the best proof of the wealth of the country. To show with what little labor he has written a book of 535 pages of very small type, it suffices to state that for the description of the National Museum he merely transferred to his book twelve pages translated from the official catalogue. In his quotations from classical authors he uses an English translation, if there is one; otherwise he gives merely the original, as if expecting every traveller to understand Latin.

In referring to historical events, he frequently follows old traditions without any critical inquiry. He says of the island of Procida, "that it was the property of John of Procida, *the hero of the Sicilian Vespers*." Now, Michele Amari, in his 'History of the Sicilian Vespers,' published thirty years ago, satisfactorily proved that John of Procida had nothing to do with it, was not in Sicily at the time, and was anything but a hero. Mr. Hare repeats the same story in speaking of his tomb, when he treats of Salerno, which he calls "a dull place with a beautiful view." He gives a confused account of its cathedral, built by Robert Guiscard, with its Norman and Swabian tombs, but not a word of the place itself as it looks now. And, indeed, how could a classicist, with scissors in hand, take note, for instance, of a three-masted American schooner, as is constantly to be seen, discharging bales of Southern cotton to supply the looms of a large factory which manufactures cotton goods for half the population of southern Italy? He could not be expected to notice a noisy cotton factory among such archæological wealth, in the very seat of the oldest medical school of mediæval times!

But the worst comes when Mr. Hare starts for Sicily. He begins with the following growl: "It is a long railway journey of nineteen and a half hours from Bari to Reggio, and the traveller who is in a hurry to reach Sicily becomes unutterably weary of the meaningless lingering at the most obscure stations, to which a filthy crowd of idle peasants are always admitted to beg and curse, to the disgrace at once of the Government and the railway company." What a shame that the Italian Government and the railway company do not put an express or "lightning" train from Bari to Reggio to accommodate Mr. Hare and the score of English tourists who in the course of the year might desire to take this roundabout way to reach Sicily in a hurry! Why should they, instead, be so anxious to accommodate the thousands of "filthy, idle peasants" in every insignificant village? Did the idea occur to Mr. Hare, in the midst of his clippings, to inquire about or study the railway system of southern Italy? Had he done so, he would have learned, and informed his readers, that there are no railway companies in Italy, and that the Italian Liberal Government built those roads at an enormous expense, and keeps them running at an immense yearly loss, not to accommodate half-a-dozen English tourists, but to educate and civilize those very "filthy crowds of peasants" whom centuries of religious and political despotism had reduced to semi-barbarism.

Mr. Hare's ignorance and obtuseness of observation in regard to the present state of Sicily are marvellous. In his introductory remarks he says, in reference to the products of the soil: "The upland plains of the island, which in classical times were supposed to be the native land of wheat, are still famous for their crops; *but the chief industry of the country is sulphur*." And what of the millions of boxes of oranges and lemons that flood England, America, and even St. Petersburg by way of Odessa; the millions of bags of sumac that supply the tanneries of the world; the line of steamers owned in Palermo that ply all along the coast of Italy, the Levant, and even reach semi monthly to New York; the thousands of hogsheads of wine and oil that are exported to France and go toward the manufacture of French clarets and salad oil; the wine factories of Marsala, the iron factories of Palermo; to say nothing of

other articles of export, such as licorice, manna, nuts, figs, raisins, and the early vegetables and fruits that are sent even as far as Paris?

Describing the ascent from the station of Giardini to Taormina, on his way from Messina to Catania, Mr. Hare says: "A steep stony footpath leads to the heights from the station of Giardini to Taormina." This gives the impression that there is no other means of ascent to the town except a "steep stony footpath," whereas there is a most picturesque winding *carriage*-road to the very summit. An English tourist may prefer to climb the hill, and thus save a few francs in hack hire; but when he writes about it for the information of travellers, he is bound to know and to state that there is such a convenient road. Then he proceeds to say that "near the top it winds through thickets of the prickly pear (*Cactus opuntia*)—'*fichi d'India*' the natives call it, for the plant is of West Indian origin. It is very productive, and *contributes largely to the food of the lower classes, who make a kind of bread of the fruit, when dried and pounded.*" In the sentence we have italicised there are almost as many errors as words. The prickly pear does not "contribute largely to the food of the lower classes," for it only bears three months in the year; the fruit does not keep more than three or four days after being gathered, and is used merely as fruit, like oranges, grapes, fresh figs, plums, etc. As to their making "a kind of bread of it," it is simply ridiculous, and we cannot conceive how it was possible for Mr. Hare to make such a blunder, unless, in his total ignorance of the Sicilian language and the peculiar manners of the lower classes of Sicilians, more Eastern than European, he was the victim of a practical joke by some fun-loving Sicilian fruit-vender. We can only guess this laughable blunder to have arisen thus: Perhaps Mr. Hare saw the prickly pears in a stall, and the vender peeling and selling them to the street-gamins and maid-servants. (The fruit is so covered with almost invisible little thorns that only experts with gloved fingers can peel them unhurt.) He probably inquired of the man what they were, and if the people ate such cactus fruit. At the unusual question the man replied with the Oriental figure of speech common to the natives of Sicily: "Eat prickly pears? Why, certainly, they are *the bread* of the poor people!"—meaning by it that the poor people make great use of them during the season, because they are very cheap: they can have a basketful for a few cents. At the word *bread*, our tourist, taking it *ad literam*, must have asked in a serious tone: "Do the people make *bread* of them?" The vender must have opened wide his eyes, and winked almost imperceptibly at the crowd collected around the stand; and in order to have a joke at his expense, replied: "Oh! yes, sir; they *dry them, pound them*, and bake them as *bread!*" "Ah! indeed, most extraordinary," the tourist must have observed, moving off, and taking out his note-book to record the fact, without perceiving the broad grin on the man's face, and the gesture or exclamation signifying, "He swallowed it!" to the great amusement of all the bystanders.

From the fact of his mentioning the prickly pears, Mr. Hare must have been in Sicily in the dead of winter, the only season when they are eatable; therefore, he could not have ascended Mount Etna, though he gives what seems a personal description of the ascent, quoting, as usual, other authors, such as Sir C. Lyell and J. A. Symonds for a description of Val del Bove, and Silius Italicus, Claudian, Ovid, Virgil, in the original Latin, for a description of the volcano itself. Among other suggestions to tourists, he states that, in order to rest and put up their mules at the Casa del Bosco and Casa Inglese, they must obtain the keys from Doctor Giuseppe Gemellaro at Nicolosi. Poor Doctor Gemellaro, who has been dead and buried these several years, and whose only son left that town at the foot of Etna long ago to fill the chair of Mineralogy at the University of Palermo!

But it is useless to follow further Mr. Hare's guide-book, filled with misrepresentations and unreasonable grumbling. At Syracuse, for instance, he quotes Cicero, who claimed that "while Quæstor in Sicily, he discovered the tomb of Archimedes surrounded and overrun with brushwood and brambles, and utterly unknown to the Syracusans, who even denied its existence," which proves that, as far back as the age of Cæsar, Syracuse was partly in ruins, and her ruins neglected; and yet, throughout the book, Mr. Hare writes as if the fault for the disappearance and neglect of those archæological remains belonged to the present race of southern Italians, for whom he seems to have not the least sympathy. We will close with the statement that for those interested in the archæology or classical descriptions of Magna Græcia, and who have not read the many classical writings and innumerable guide-books relating to that part of Italy, this book may be of some use for reference, but for a knowledge of the present state of the country and the people it is absolutely worthless.

Emily Brontë. By A. Mary F. Robinson. [Famous Women Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros.

An Hour with Charlotte Brontë; or, Flowers from a Yorkshire Moor. By Laura C. Holloway. [Standard Library.] Funk & Wagnalls.

No repetition of the story of the Brontë sisters could fail of interest. The piteous fate of Emily is only less sad than Charlotte's own. 'Wuthering Heights' will long be counted one of the curiosities of literature, nay more, one of its marvels. But all this does not vindicate the claim of Emily Brontë to rank as a "famous woman" in a list headed by George Eliot, and in which are to follow George Sand and Maria Edgeworth. This is not to deny her remarkable powers, but to protest against the misuse of well-established terms, the misappropriation of long-recognized standards.

The book is, with but slight additions, borrowed from Mrs. Gaskell's life of Charlotte Brontë. Much is taken outright. The rest is reproduced with a heightened color that is at times a trifle coarse compared with Mrs. Gaskell's grave tones. One quotation will illustrate the style of the whole book. Charlotte writes most justly of Emily's poems: "I thought them condensed and terse, vigorous and genuine. To my ear they had also a peculiar music, wild, melancholy, and elevating."

This the biographer quotes, and then amplifies as follows:

"Very true; these poems, with their surplus of imagination, their instinctive music and irregular rightness of form, their sweeping impressiveness, effects of landscape, their scant allusions to dogma or perfidious man, are, indeed, not at all like the poetry women generally write. The hand that painted this single line,

'The dim moon struggling in the sky,'

should have shaken hands with Coleridge."

The last remark is not criticism; it is nonsense. But there is too much of the same sort scattered through the biography. It is the result of an attempt at something quite beyond the power of the writer. To compose a simple narrative of the facts of a life is not a very difficult matter, whereas literary criticism presupposes both study and practice of a most serious kind. Yet biographies like the one before us are now expected to contain a great deal of it—an expectation which begets such absurdity as we have quoted. The world has been forced to submit to the theory that anybody can write a novel. It would be a pity if the same were applied to biography. We have had heavy, dull books—stupid, one might well say—but the biography to correspond with the *trashy* novel, biographies written with the sole purpose of making them as entertaining, as sensational as possible, we have hitherto been spared. We do not mean that this book is on that level, but it certainly has in it fatal tendencies in that direction. The shameful story of the dissolute brother offered too tempting an opportunity for a sensation. The treatment of it demands distinct, decided condemnation. The account differs from Mrs. Gaskell's in ways which would have seemed to the sisters harsh, and no new evidence whatever is adduced in proof. That might pass, but nothing can justify dragging out of a merciful oblivion his contemptible letters. It is no excuse that the friend to whom they were written had been base enough to print them. They were not needed here to prove the profligacy of his life, nor to point a moral. The thought what keen pain this wanton exposure would have been to the sisters should have been enough to stay the hand. The growing inclination to leave nothing sacred, to bare the innermost recesses of a life to the vulgar gaze, makes it a duty to utter a word of warning.

To turn to less painful things, we have looked in vain for what, remembering all the associations that came after, is perhaps now the most striking of Charlotte's expressions about her sister. The date is 1850:

"I could not feel otherwise to Lewes than half sadly, half tenderly—a queer word that last, but I use it, because the aspect of his face almost moves me to tears; it is so wonderfully like Emily—her eyes, her features, the very nose, the somewhat prominent mouth, the forehead, even at moments the expression: whatever Lewes says, I believe I cannot hate him."

The brief sketch of Charlotte Brontë prefixed to a hundred pages of selections from her letters and novels gains from a comparison with the strained accent and the forced pitch of the biography of Emily. It is much less ambitious and therefore more satisfactory, even with the necessity of making allowance for a roughness which deprives it of anything like style. Its interpretations are, however, based upon a theory quite different, so far as we can remember, from Mrs. Gaskell's, and one which could be established only by definite testimony. The pages of 'Villette' might be accepted as witnesses to thought or feeling, but hardly as to facts. The author has, further, an amiable intention, both in her original work and in the selections, to reinforce some views of her own upon the woman question. This, it seems to us, is to detract, not to praise. Currer Bell worked unconscious of theory or "questions." It was the wonder of her novels that they were the simple, solid representations of concrete realities as her imagination knew them. It was so, because it was so, is as true of the whole of them as of the well-known close of 'Villette.'

Modern Landscape. By J. Comyns Carr. With Etchings from Celebrated Pictures and Numerous Illustrations on Wood and in Facsimile. London: Remington & Co. 1883.

THIS cursory, though interesting and suggestive, essay is accompanied by nine etchings from pictures by Crome, Corot, Constable, Diaz, Daubigny, Dupré, Lawson, and Rousseau; and by thirty-three engravings on wood and in mechanical facsimile. We believe, though we are not sure, that the pictures have been gathered from the pages of *L'Art*. They are of varying merit, and none are of very high quality. The best

are the woodcuts, of which that facing p. 6, "A Spring Morning at Cernay (Seine-et-Oise)," engraved by Lepêre from a picture by Alexander Defaux, is noticeably good. It is a charming glimpse of a French village, half hidden by blossoming fruit-trees, with a duck pond, and ducks splashing in the water, for a foreground—one of those bits of quiet landscape realism, showing little art of composition, but much sweetness of feeling, which are the best outcome of modern French art. Of inferior excellence, though it possesses some pleasant sentiment, is "Evening," from a picture by Guillon, facing p. 10. Other good ones are "Gorse in Flower," after Ségé, facing p. 14, "The Valley of Poussin, Rome," after Harpignies, on p. 20, "A Farm at Baunalec (Finistère)," after Bernier, facing the same page, and "June in Denmark," after Bonnefoy, on p. 24. The photo-engravings have the defects which this process always displays, and which render its results inferior to good engravings wrought by hand. Unless the design is especially adapted to the capabilities of the process, these reproductions are very faulty and unpleasing. Where there is any closeness of fine shading the lines run together and form those violent and inharmonious patches of dark which are so frequently noticeable; and where even single lines are not very strong and distinct, like those of a Dürer woodcut, or a firm etching or pen drawing, they are apt to be rendered in what engravers call rotten lines—lines more or less broken or indistinct. Among the best of these facsimile engravings in the book are "November," by Denduyts, p. 2, and "Washerwomen on the Banks of the Cure, Yonne," by Guillon, p. 34. The poorest are, perhaps, those after drawings by Cecil Lawson.

Mr. Carr's essay is in some parts lacking in discrimination. He begins by alluding to the fact that landscape, as an independent branch of art, is of modern origin; and briefly traces the gradual change of feeling from that which gave rise to the conventional landscape backgrounds of the early figure painters to the more faithfully studied, though still largely conventional and subordinate, landscapes of Da Vinci, Dürer, and Titian. He then shows truly that the great advance which more recent artists have made consists in the perception and expression of the enormous influence of the sky upon the earth and its objects—the infinitely varying effects of light and air. He does not, however, notice the untruthful manner in which some of the most influential modern artists have rendered effects of light and shade, and thus given rise to such faulty conditions of it as M. Fromentin has pointed out in the case of Rembrandt. The remark quoted from Constable, that "there is nothing beautiful but light and shade make it so," is an expression of an idea which has wrought much harm in art ever since the late Italian schools introduced the practice of giving undue importance to chiaroscuro. It was this idea which made Constable himself so neglectful of those other qualities of design which are no less important. The value of Constable's work in giving fuller expression than had before been given to that "passion for the beauty of the outward world" which had "been a powerful influence in the literature as well as the art of modern England" is not overestimated by Mr. Carr; though he seems to rate its intrinsic excellence rather too high. The writer's want of discrimination is perhaps most clearly shown by the remark on p. 32, that the French artists Corot, Millais, and others like them "had acquired all that was vital in the principles of classic design." That which is here referred to as classic design is the art of Claude and his followers—an art which has been miscalled classic on account of certain sentiments and forms in it which were borrowed from classic art. Of this Corot and Millais may have acquired all that was vital; but with the enduring principles of true classic art these artists were never acquainted. Their art owes what value it has to sentiments and qualities which are far removed from those of ancient art. On pp. 34, 35 are some very good remarks upon the manner in which Corot eliminates from a natural scene all that is irrelevant to the singleness of total impression which he wishes to convey; but it is unnecessary, as well as untrue, to add, as the writer does, that the artist paints as much as he can see, while others, who give more detailed definition to their forms, represent rather what they know than what they see. It is idle to contend that Corot's extremely slight and sketchy method is a complete and sufficient expression of all that in nature has effect upon the eye. His method is satisfactory only when taken as giving a hint or suggestion, rather than a complete artistic realization of the visual effect of a given scene. Would Mr. Carr affirm that the elaboration of Titian, of Veronese, or of Turner expresses what these artists knew about nature rather than what they saw? That vague sketches of Corot have often much suggestive beauty may readily be granted; but that they establish a just standard for finished painting is an idea which cannot be entertained by a discerning and reasonable lover of art and nature.

If judgment of the art of the late Mr. Cecil Lawson were to be in any measure formed from the illustrations given in this book, it could be allowed very little merit. We can see no good qualities, either of line or light and shade, in his "In the Valley—A Pastoral," facing p. 28, or in "The Minister's Garden," p. 32, or in "Strayed—A Moonlight Pastoral," facing p. 38. A comprehensive and judicious essay on modern landscape is yet lacking in the literature of art.

Sinners and Saints. A Tour Across the States, and Round Them; with Three Months Among the Mormons. By Phil Robinson, Author of 'Under the Sun.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1883. 16mo, pp. 370.

THE travelled traveller holds the ordinary tourist at great disadvantage. Witness this book. Our author, whose memory is stored with the scenery and customs of half the outlying world, has observed clearly, omits judiciously, and writes charmingly. He cannot help being an Englishman, but he is a cosmopolitan Englishman if there ever was one, and he has a sense of humor that the wandering Briton rarely shows. His experience has given him standards, and he is full of comparisons that vitalize description. The hills above Harrisburg recall to him the fatal landslip of Naini Tal, in Northern India; the Mississippi is the Lower Indus; a homicide at Omaha introduces a vivid sketch of the Kohat Pass in Afghanistan; the mountains at Leadville surpass Switzerland; Echo Cañon is not equalled in the Himalayas nor by the Bolan Pass; Yuma is a reproduction of Rohri; the cacti of the Santa Cruz Valley are the counterparts of those that crowd the field of Isandula; the valley of the Rio Virgin rivals in beauty the scenery of Cashmere, and the steamy summer heat along a Texas railroad "might be the Soonderbuns." Such a one is not ashamed to express admiration where it seems called for, to confess ignorance when he is astonished, nor frankly to affirm that what the native extols he has seen surpassed elsewhere. He has written a book of geographical criticism, and he bestows plentiful and hearty praise.

But the bulk and essence of this volume are the outcome of three months' residence in the Land of the Honey Bee—Deseret. It is a study of the Mormonism of to-day as it is found in the heart of the continent. The author reaches the conclusion, which is the truth, that "the Mormons are a peasant people, but with many of the best human virtues as well. They are conspicuously industrious, honest, and sober." Polygamy he brands as "wrong in itself and a cardinal crime against the possibilities of a woman's heart. A plural wife can never know the utmost happiness possible for a woman. They confess this. And by this confession the practice stands damned." He believes contact with the outer world and education will eliminate this feature, partly by leading the women into more expensive habits and partly by the pressure of opinion. Opinion will act slowly. As long as coercion, moral or physical, is employed, so long will reaction show itself equal to action. That the blood of the martyrs is the seed of the church, applies to heresies as well as to true faiths. A dragonnade may disperse families, but will not alter belief, nor change practice after the pressure is removed. The necessities of social life are more repressive. One man cannot support three households in Utah more readily than in Pennsylvania, if both sets have the same artificial needs. What will bankrupt the one will impoverish the other, and with the spread of luxury and the divergence from primitive frugality it will become more difficult for one pair of hands to supply a multiple family. Polygamy will be limited to the rich, and by the cultivation of taste, to say nothing of morals, it will be gradually denied them also. It is not high morality that calls on Mammon to overcome Mormonism, but, after all, it is its expensiveness that will dissipate the evil. Practical statesmanship, although it may properly put itself on record as condemning plurality, and further, in this case, may wisely insist that a community so diverse from the others in a fundamental principle shall remain in territorial tutelage until it is assimilated, should hesitate long before it indicts a populous community and prosecutes in its courts so numerous a clan. Mr. Robinson only emphasizes what other unprejudiced writers admit, that drunkenness, gambling, sloth, and public unchastity are not Mormon vices. The Gentile community of Utah, in common with a large part of the nominally Christian world, has its many drunkards, its gamesters, its vagabonds, and its other public sinners. The Latter-Day Saints have their individual criminals in the same matters, we may suppose, but, speaking broadly, the line is drawn at polygamous marriage, which is the barrier separating the two classes of goats. Limited observation accords with what he lays stress upon, that the women of Salt Lake City, plural wives and their pretty daughters, are no less modest in mien than their Gentile sisters there or elsewhere. They give no recognition of wrong-doing, no consciousness of shame, no boldness of demeanor. The casual observer sees no difference between these and other decent women; and, however he may theoretically disapprove their tenets, the practical philosopher must admit that their sins, whatever they may be, are not stamped upon their foreheads and lead no one into temptation.

The Mormons are chiefly of foreign birth from the lowest social orders. They lend themselves naturally to government—that is, to being governed—and they find an energetic and intelligent hierarchy prepared to guide them. Nearly all of them are elevated in every material and in many moral features by the discipline they endure. The author does not lay sufficient stress upon the direct and graded control that the Church, which to them is also the State, has exerted over these peasants. It has moulded them at all points. The ancient and sage advice of

Jethro, which Moses cordially adopted (Ex. xviii., 13-26), has been the central principle of Mormon administration, and it has accomplished there what it always will when consistently pursued. It has made a solid, obedient, homogeneous community. Where it will find its limit is for the future to determine. The strain will probably be greatest when faith yields to thought. The leaders wisely determined that their people should be cultivators of the soil. Out of the soil have grown both the rustic virtues and material prosperity, and the hind of Europe has become a land-owner beyond the sea. It is not probable that the Mormons will halt in their career; but whether their future shall be blighted with whiskey or be adorned with true manliness will greatly depend upon the zeal, the example, and, above all, the tact of the really Christian people of America.

Mr. Robinson's book has been written from what may almost be called an esoteric point of view. He was the guest of an Apostle, and received, as his friend, the hospitality of half-a-hundred saints, finding the fairer side constantly turned toward him. Frowning upon plurality and deprecating the neglect of education, he finds the rest of the system to have little blemish, and he believes the Mormons as a whole have been grossly and persistently maligned and libelled. Their management of the Indian question he cordially and justly commends. They have converted all their savage neighbors into sympathetic allies instead of holding them, as we do, hostile subjects. As a quasi-authoritative presentation of the Mormon side of the Utah problem, the book is well worth reading. The American student will miss reference to the sterner discipline with which President Young governed his primitive community, to the monogamous Mormon stock in the West that claims to retain the true faith, to the tragedy of Mountain Meadow, and to other features which the Mormon of to-day would naturally keep in the background. The armed rebellion of '57 has not received the condemnation a citizen would bestow, and there is a curious reticence as to the existence and extent of Mormon colonies in the adjacent regions—colonies that might be looked upon as outposts, of which the ordinary public rarely hears. There is, also, a refreshing absence of description of the Lion House, the really wonderful Tabernacle, the multiple front-doors for the multiple dames, and other features of Salt Lake City that have become hackneyed in report.

This is not altogether a Mormon book. The author carried his observant eyes on to California, and, not tarrying by the way, down to Arizona and New Mexico, and back, through Texas, to St. Louis. He became a friend to the Chinaman as he had become to the Mormon. We should like to discuss the same side of that text, but there is no space. He dashed too hurriedly over the Southern Pacific and noted San Bernardino as settled fifty years ago by Mormons. There was not a Mormon west of the Missouri before 1846. To Yuma, the synonym of aridity, the place where lead-pencils for use must be kept in water, where ink evaporates between the pen and the paper—to Yuma, sapless and anhydrous as funereal cinders, he awards the discredit of a villanously hot, damp climate, like Lower Bengal in August. Hot it has been since the creation, but it is no damper than Tophet. In natural history he suggests that the bunch-grass dies in May—say, rather, that it is cured standing; that the cicada is literally vociferous; that the bison-herds have retired from California before the white man; and he allows the well-known and valuable mezquite to masquerade perpetually as "muskeet." Such slips indicate undue haste, imperfect information, or over-dependence upon a fallible memory. Nevertheless they are welcome, as establishing a bond of human sympathy with the writer who has seen so much. In like manner the somewhat important Reno becomes Greeno, and Texarkana loses its geographical significance in Texakharna. Our tourist met one puzzle which, even at the expense of more serious matter, we must solve for him. He says, "Then Poplar Bluff, a crazy-looking place, with many of its houses built on piles, and a saloon that calls itself 'the XIOU8 Saloon.' I tried to pronounce the name. Perhaps some one else can do it." A greater familiarity with Western phonetics than the author's suggests that, broken up thus, X-10-U-8, it will develop an apologetic designation that other groggeries might emulate.

The book as a whole is delightful. It has much real humor and some wit. There are numerous attractive episodes, with plenty of directly illustrative story and suggestive comment; and although once or twice the fun is strained and an occasional remark grates, it will probably be many a long day—unless, indeed, Mr. Robinson writes up the Yosemite, which he faintly suggests—before we get so capital a collection of notes and ideas.

How to Dissect a Bird. Part 2 of the 'Handbook of Vertebrate Dissection.' By H. Newell Martin & W. A. Moale. Macmillan & Co. 12mo, pp. 85, four plates. 1883.

PART 1 of this series, 'How to Dissect a Chelonian,' was noticed in the *Nation* of February 9, 1882. The authors have doubtless felt that there were good reasons for not adopting the suggestion therein offered as to the substitution of the domestic fowl for the pigeon; but the omission of all reference to the matter of selecting a representative bird leads one to infer that these reasons are held by the authors to be self-evident. Certainly the fowl, like the dog, is open to objection on the score of breed-variation, but this did not prevent the late Jeffries Wyman from recommending it, or W. Kitchen Parker from basing thereon nearly all the illustrations of the article Birds in the 'Encyclopedia Britannica.' Indeed, the anatomy and development of the fowl have been so much more fully studied than those of the pigeon, that the latter would more properly form the subject of a monograph than of a guide to elementary work in comparative anatomy. Finally, the fowl is always and everywhere obtainable without mutilation, which cannot be said of the pigeon. Our authors offer no information as to how pigeons may be had for anatomical purposes, and do not even state—what the isolated student might not know—that, when caught, they are most readily killed by means of chloroform in a close box. Neither is injection of the blood-vessels mentioned as an aid in their dissection and identification.

As admitted in the notice of Part 1, it may be a fair question whether student manuals should include even an approximation to a complete bibliography of the subject; but what good and sufficient reasons can there be for not referring to Rolleston's 'Forms of Animal Life,' McAlpine's 'Zoölogical Atlas,' and some at least of the works and papers on bird anatomy by Garrod, Haswell, Nitsch, Owen, Parker, Shufeldt, and Vaughn? Coues's 'Key' is indeed mentioned twice, but the same writer's memoir on the 'Osteology and Mythology of *Colymbus Torquatus*' might well prove useful for comparison.

The figures of the skull are more distinct than in Part 1, and the leg is also represented. The wing would have been instructive, and it is difficult to see why figures of the heart and brain would not have facilitated the student's comprehension of those organs. The descriptions and directions for dissection for the most part presuppose more knowledge and a greater familiarity with instruments and methods than most students have acquired at the period a book like this would be used. This lack of explicit information as to the details of the best way of accomplishing certain objects is shared, however, with nearly all manuals of dissection, and, when judged by the ordinary standard, the directions in this work are fairly clear. Infelicitous passages occur on pp. 125, 127, 132, and 135, and the humerus and radius are said to expand *behind* or *posteriorly*, instead of at their distal or proximal ends, as the case may be. Since *dorsal* and *ventral* quite consistently indicate general regions and aspects of the entire body, the former should have been replaced by *thoracic* in designating part of the aorta and the sympathetic nervous chain, and the vertebræ and ribs between the cervical and lumbar regions. Following Huxley's strange example, both the thigh and the bone thereof are given the same name, *femur*, and there is no intimation, in either text or index, that this is unusual. The body cavity is called *thoracico-abdominal* on p. 129 and *pleuro-peritoneal* on p. 132, neither term occurring in the index. The unfamiliar terms *uropygium*, *pygostyle*, and *aditus laryngis* are employed without mention of their more common synonyms. Among typographical errors are *turbosity*, *pteregoid*, and *proscencephalon*, and possibly the printer is responsible for spelling the surname of the three Scotch anatomists *Munroe* instead of *Monro*.

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ERRATA.

Page 16, col. 1, line 6 from bottom. For "*Das*" read "*Die.*" Line 2 from bottom. For "Anfang" read "Umfang."

Page 106, col. 1, line 20. For "Magazine's" read "Mazarine's."

Page 150, col. 3, line 12 from bottom. For "Athens" read "Atreus."

Page 167, col. 3, line 17 from bottom. For "twenty-four" read "fourteen." Line 16 from bottom. Insert after "elected" as follows: "and a council of forty-four members, all elected by the people."

Page 234, col. 2, line 10 from bottom. For "magnified" read "modified."

Page 491, col. 1, lines 34, 35. For "England" read "English."